



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

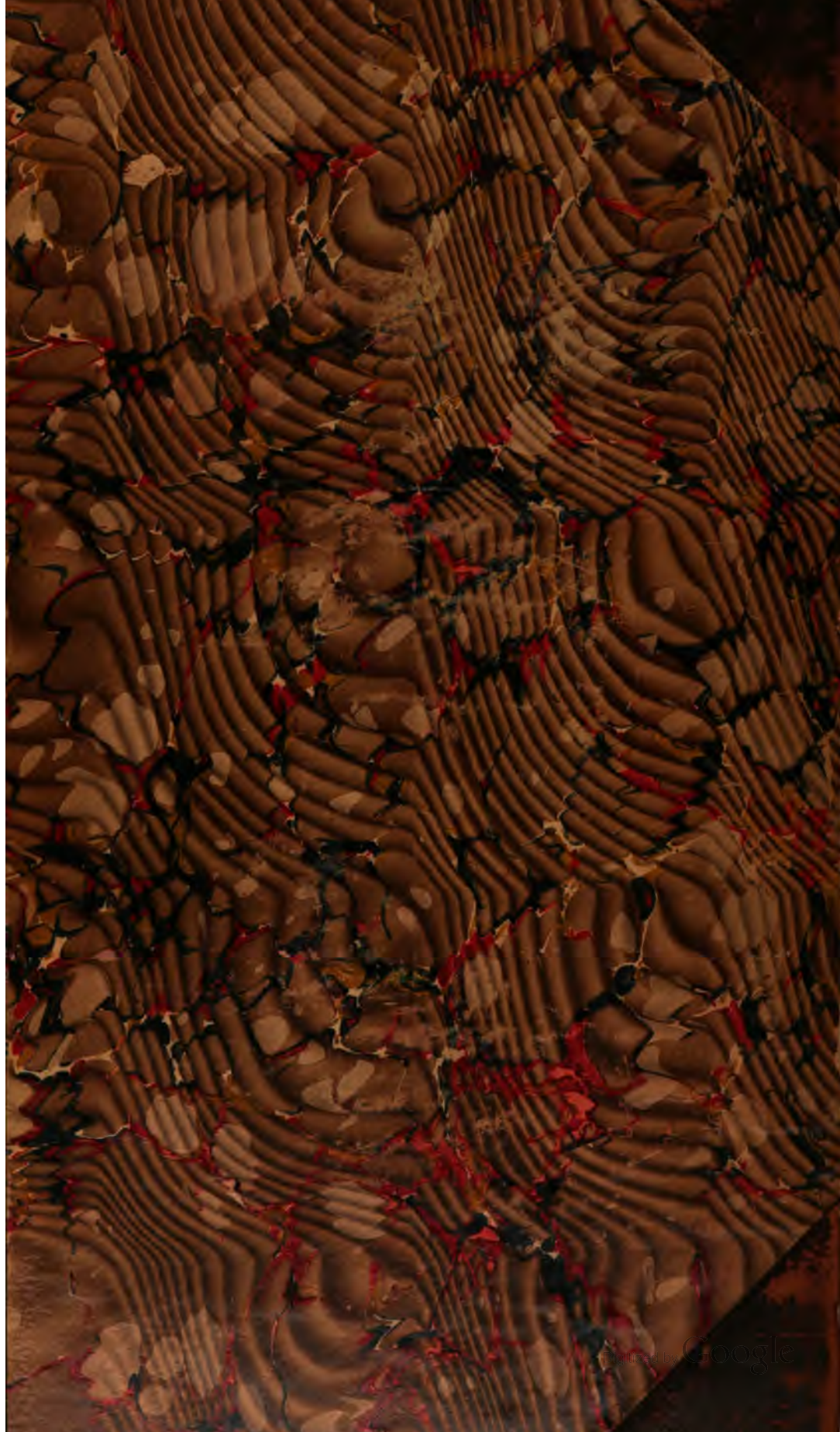
Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

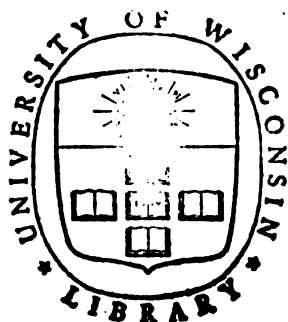
We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>





**Transferred to the
LIBRARY OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN**

SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE • •

With Departments Devoted to Literature, Science, Art and Music, Civics, Education, Religion, and the Home

• • • • Edited by G. MERCER ADAM

+++ WISCONSIN
HISTORICAL
SOCIETY
VOLUME IX

.... MARCH TO AUGUST, 1899

ILLUSTRATED
**TRANSFERRED TO
UOEW LIBRARY**

+++

EVERY PERSON HAS TWO EDUCATIONS, ONE WHICH HE RECEIVES FROM OTHERS,
AND ONE, MORE IMPORTANT, WHICH HE GIVES TO HIMSELF.—GIBBON.

AKRON, OHIO
THE WERNER COMPANY, PUBLISHERS

108,143
RECEIVED

NOV 21 1900
WIS. HIST. SOCIETY.

Copyright, 1899,
BY
THE WERNER COMPANY

MADE IN
GERMANY
V1300

AP83
+ 100
9

INDEX TO VOLUME IX

March to August, 1899

A

Acquisition of Louisiana, The.....	399
Africa, The Parcelling-out of	346
Africa, South, Affairs of	473
Africa, South, Empire-building in	347
African Ostrich in America, The	303
After-School-Age Reading, A Youth's	218
Agassiz of the Pacific Slope, The	293
Age, The Approaching.....	93
Aguinaldo's Forces, The Battle with.....	78
Alliance, Defensive, England and the United States	8
America, National Songs of	17
American Ambassador to England, the New	209
American Colloquialisms.....	371
American Farmer, Fate of the.....	61
American Flag, Birth of the.....	614
American Landscape Painters.....	497
American Literary Critic, An	324
"American Revolution," Trevelyan's.....	363
Among the Canadian Rockies.....	135
Ancestors, Modern Search for.....	26
Andreas Hofer, the Tyrolese Patriot.....	657
Anglo-American Commission, Failure of the	209, 570
Anglo-American Rapprochement, The.....	640
Approaching Age, The	93
April Annotations	204
Arbitration and the Peace Conference	568
Army, The German, and its Organization	56,
174, 264	
Army and Navy Bills, The	208
Army Rations Inquiry.....	77, 209, 342
Art, Henry Fuller on Anglo-Saxon.....	582
Art, The Encouragement of.....	362
Art, Morality in.....	536
Art, The Pictorial	360
Art and Music (Department).....	102, 231, 358,
481, 581, 684	
Artists, Death Roll of English (1898).....	102
Art Notes.....	105, 584
Art of Solid Lying, The.....	377
Art Season in New York, The.....	484
Athenians and Pericles, The.....	12
Attitude of Parents toward Teachers.....	503
Attitude toward Germany, Our.....	467
Australian Federation	213, 678
Austria, Don John of.....	373
Ave Roma Immortalis, Crawford's.....	366

B

Balzac, Honoré de.....	404
Basis of Life, The Physical.....	68
Battle with Aguinaldo's Forces, The.....	78
Belgium, The Political Crisis in.....	677
"Betsy Ross," The True Story of.....	614
Between the Covers of the "Postal Guide"	71
Bicycle as an Educator, The.....	445
Bird Study	627
Birth of the American Flag, The.....	614
Black Rubs off, How the.....	513
Blake, Admiral, an Old-Time Naval Hero	118
Bonheur, Rosa, Death of.....	581
Book Nomenclature.....	519
Books Received	108, 237, 368, 588
Boomerang, How to Throw a.....	119
Boston Subway, The.....	439
Boy Admiral, A Famous.....	373
Bradford on "Popular Government".....	486
Brain and Brawn.....	289
Bread, Meat, and Population	180
Brookline Public Baths, The.....	314
"Browning Letters," The.....	364
Browning's "The Return of the Druses".....	669
Burying-Ground for Dogs, A.....	694
Business and Finance.....	121, 252

C

Cabinet, The New French.....	675
Campaign in the Philippines.....	206, 339, 574
Canada and the Joint High Commission	79,
570	
Canadian Rockies, Among the.....	135
Canadian Verse, Recent.....	283
Carrara, The Marble Quarries of	464
Castelar, Señor, Death of.....	566
Character Development, Country Life as a Factor in.....	311
Chicago, The Tissot Paintings at.....	358
Child-Lover, Eugene Field's Message to the.....	401
China, Peril of Intercourse with.....	472
China, Russia and England in.....	345
Choate, Ambassador, in England.....	209
Chronicle of the Month	85, 215, 382
Church and the Social Problem, The.....	242
Citizenship, The Newer.....	129
City Government and the "Machine".....	475
Civics and Sociology	93, 223

Clippings, How to File and Keep	256
Cock Robin? Who Killed	124
Coins of Conversation	240
College Education, A Word on	690
Colloquialisms, American	371
Commerce, National Rivalry in	340
Commissariat Inquiry, General Miles and the	208
Commission, The Philippine	574
Conference at The Hague, The Peace	676
Conflicting Tendencies in Thought and Opinion	318
Congress, The Fifty-Fifth	330
Congress of Mothers, The National	186
Constitutional Government Imperilled	197
Consumption, Combatting the Scourge of	84
Conversation, Coins of	240
Correspondence	89, 218, 349
Correspondents, Note to	353
Country Life as a Factor in Character Development	311
"Country Parson," Death of the	347
Coyote, Old Stories of the	249
Crawford's "Ave Roma Immortalis"	366
Crete, The Pacification of	83
Crisis in Belgium, The Political	677
Crisis in England, The Ecclesiastical	336
Crisis in Spain, The Ministerial	214
Crisis in the Transvaal, The	569
Cromwellian Commemoration, The	469
Cuba, Palmy Days in	166
Cuba, Transition in	79
Cuban Affairs	348
Cultivation of Literary Style, The	64
Culture, Higher, and the National Life	270
Culture of the Voice	583
Curiosities of Language	376

D

Dante and His Age	29, 460
Daudet, Alphonse, Memoirs of	106
Days in Cuba, Palmy	166
Death of Castelar	566
Death of "The Country Parson"	347
Death of Rosa Bonheur	581
Death Roll of English Artists in 1898	102
De Balzac, Honoré	404
Decade of Institutional Development in Philadelphia, A	629
Deep-Sea Dredging	245
Deep Waterways for Lake Commerce	257
Diamonds, About	563
Diplomacy, A National School of	620
Disarmament Proposals, The	468
"Divine Comedy," The, Dante's	460
Dogs, A Burying-Ground for	694
Dominant Sea Power, The	516
"Dramatic Literature," Ward's	367
Dredging, Deep-Sea	245
Dreyfus, Justice to	569
Dreyfus, The Re-trial of	676
Dreyfus Case Once More, The	472
"Druses, The Return of the," Brown-ing's	669

E

Ecclesiastical Crisis in England, The	336
Economics, Civics, etc.	93, 222
Editorial Comment	77, 206, 339, 467, 568, 673
Education, A Word on College	690
Education, What the New seeks to Accomplish	238
Educational Value of the Study of Roman Law, The	665
Educational Values, The Measure of	109
Educational World, The	109, 238, 369, 489, 589, 690
Educator, The Bicycle as an	445
Egypt, The English in	34
Electro-Magnetic Telegraph, The	277
Empire, The Seamy Side of	89
Empire-Building in South Africa	347
Encouragement of Art, The	362
Engineering Two Thousand Years Ago	120
England, Affairs in	81, 573
England, New Ambassador to	209
England, Old Time Naval Hero of	118
England, Ritualism in	143
England, The Ecclesiastical Crisis in	336
England and Russia in China	345
England and the Transvaal	674
England and the United States and a Defensive Alliance	8
England as a Model	456
English in Egypt, The	34
English in South Africa, The	673
Enterprise, A Great Municipal	314
Entertainment, An Old Time	254
Epics, The World's Great	156
Europe, The United States of, Stead's	585
Evolution: Victorian Thought and Thinkers	19

F

Failure, Success or	591
Failure of the Anglo-American Commission	209
Famous Boy Admiral, A	373
Famous Lyons Mail Case, The	644
Farmer, Fate of the American	61
Fashion's Slaves	521
Fear of Renewed Fighting in the Soudan	213
Federation, Australian	213, 678
Fernald's "The Imperial Republic"	107
Field, Eugene, Message of, to the Child-Lover	401
Fifty-Fifth Congress, The	330
Flag, Birth of the American	614
Fourth of July, The, and Its Import	512
France, Royalist Outbreak in, A	571
France, Situation in, The	80
France, Watson's Story of	106
Franchises, Municipal	449
Franco-Siamese Difficulty, The	188
French Cabinet, The New	675
French Presidency, The	212
Friction between Norway and Sweden	82
Fuller, Henry, on Anglo-Saxon Art	582
Future, Study of, in the Light of Past and Present	93

G

- German Army and its Organization, The . . . 56,
174, 264
Germany, Our Attitude Toward . . . 467
Germany Adds to her Colonial Possessions . . . 571
Germany's Friendliness, Assurance of . . . 210
Glance at Heidelberg, A . . . 32
Gloomy Outlook in the Philippines, The . . . 679
Goethe, The Loves of . . . 299
Gossip on Gossip, A . . . 598
Government, City, and the Machine . . . 475
Government, Constitutional, Imperilled . . . 197
Great Epics, The World's . . . 156
Great Municipal Enterprise, A . . . 314
Greenway, The Lord of . . . 692
Growl over the Spelling-Book, A . . . 369
Growth of the Uniform, The . . . 543
Guns, The Men Behind the . . . 430

H

- Hague, The Peace Conference at the . . . 676
Hale, E. E., Collected Writings of . . . 585
Handwriting Expert, How he Works . . . 532
Harvard University . . . 385
Hawaiian Islands of the United States,
The . . . I, 160
Heavens, The Stellar . . . 115
Heidelberg, Past and Present . . . 32
Herbartian Principle of Teaching, The . . . 111
Higher Culture and the National Life, The . . . 270
Hofer, Andreas, the Tyrolese Patriot . . . 657
Holmes, Oliver Wendell . . . 416
Home, Woman and the . . . 98, 227, 354, 477, 578,
681
Hospitality, What is . . . 578
Hospital Train, On a . . . 545
How the Black Rubs Off . . . 513
How the Handwriting Expert Works . . . 532
How to File and Keep Clippings . . . 256
How to Throw a Boomerang . . . 119
Hull House, Chicago: Life in a Social Set-
tlement . . . 42
Human Immortality . . . 113
Human Speech and Mountain Poverty . . . 561

I

- Imbroglia, The Samoan . . . 344
Immortality, Human . . . 113
Imperialism—England as a Model . . . 456
"Imperial Republic," The, Fernald's . . . 107
Improvement, Writing as a Means of . . . 67
Inferior and Superior Races . . . 89, 349
Inquiries Answered . . . 91, 221, 352, 577
Institutional Development in Philadelphia,
A Decade of . . . 629
Intercourse with China, Peril of . . . 472
Investigation Commission, into the War . . . 208
Island of Santa Catalina, The . . . 501
Is Music Intellectual? . . . 684

J

- Jamaica, The Sugar Problem in . . . 679
Joint High Commission, Canada and the . . . 79,
570

- July, Fourth of, and its Import . . . 512
Justice to Dreyfus . . . 569
Juvenile Poets . . . 228

K

- Kindergarten Methods . . . 493
Kipling's Illness, Mr. . . . 211
Knighthood was in Flower, When . . . 485

L

- Lake Commerce, Deep Waterways for . . . 257
Landscape Painters, American . . . 497
Lang's "Nursery Rhyme Book" . . . 488
Language, Curiosities of . . . 376
Legal Status of Trusts, The . . . 648
Legend-Haunted Summer Land, A . . . 425
Lens We Use, The . . . 600
Life, Physical Basis of . . . 68
Life in a Social Settlement . . . 42
Life on the Vega . . . 552
Lion, The Weight of a . . . 694
Literary Society, The . . . 492
Literary Style, The Cultivation of . . . 64
Literary World . . . 106, 235, 363, 485, 585, 688
Live, What Does It Cost to . . . 227
Lord of Greenway, The . . . 692
Louisiana, The Acquisition of . . . 399
Loves of Goethe, The . . . 299
Lowell, J. R., As an American Critic . . . 324
Luzon, Fighting in . . . 574
Lying, The Art of Solid . . . 377
Lynchings and Women . . . 479
Lynchings, Southern . . . 343
Lyons Mail Case, The Famous . . . 644

M

- Machine, The, and City Government . . . 475
McKinley, President, at Boston . . . 206
McLennan's "The Span o' Life" . . . 587
Mail Case, The Famous Lyons . . . 644
"Malakand Field Force," The . . . 236
Man in the Universe, Place of . . . 112
Man of War, On Board a . . . 170
Marble Quarries of Carrara, The . . . 464
Marquis's "Marguerite de Roberval" . . . 586
May Day . . . 322
Measured Music . . . 481
Measure of Educational Values, The . . . 109
Memory Training, Good and Bad . . . 489
Men Behind the Guns, The . . . 430
"Men's Tragedies," Risley's . . . 585
Message to the Child-Lover, Eugene Field's . . . 401
Miles, General, and the Commissariat In-
quiry . . . 208
Ministerial Crisis in Spain, The . . . 214
Missal Painting and Manuscript Illumina-
tion . . . 231
Missions and Social Evolution . . . 636
Modern Search for Ancestors, The . . . 26
Month, Chronicle of the . . . 85, 215, 382
Mothers, The National Congress of . . . 186

- Morality in Art 536
 Mountain Poverty, Human Speech and... 561
 Muir, John, the Agassiz of the Pacific Slope 293
 Municipal Era, A New..... 475
 Municipal Enterprise, A Great 314
 Municipal Franchises 449
 Municipal Misrule: its Causes and Remedies..... 145
 Music, Measured..... 481
 Music Intellectual? Is..... 684
- N**
- National Congress of Mothers, The..... 186
 National Life, Higher Culture and the... 270
 National Rivalry in Commerce 340
 National School of Diplomacy, A..... 620
 National Songs of America..... 17
 Nations, The Unrest of the..... 394
 Naval Hero, A Popular..... 118, 594
 Navy and Army Bills, The 208
 Nest-Building Fish, A 597
 New Education, The, What it seeks to Accomplish 238
 Newer Citizenship, The..... 129
 New French Cabinet, The..... 675
 New Municipal Era, A..... 475
 New Woman, A Word on the 354
 New York, Art Season of..... 484
 Norway and Sweden, Friction between... 82
 Notes on Reading..... 490
 "Nursery Rhyme Book," Lang's..... 488
 Nursery, School, and Class Reading, For.. 588
- O**
- Ober's "Puerto Rico"..... 368
 "Oceanic," The New Steamship..... 83
 Old Stories of the Coyote..... 249
 Old Time Entertainment, An..... 254
 Omdurman Slaughter Charges, The..... 83
 On a Hospital Train 545
 On Board a Man-of-War..... 170
 One of England's Old-Time Naval Heroes 118
 Ostrich in America, The African..... 303
 Our Attitude toward Germany..... 467
 Our Late War—Who Killed Cock Robin?.. 124
 Outbreaks in Spain, The 677
 Outlook in the Philippines, A Gloomy.... 679
- P**
- Pacification of Crete, The 83
 Painters, American Landscape 497
 Palmy Days in Cuba..... 166
 Papal Possibilities..... 610
 Parcelling-out of Africa, The 346
 Parents, Attitude of, toward Teachers... 593
 Parson, Death of the Country..... 347
 Patriot, Andreas Hofer, The Tyrolese ... 657
 Peace Conference and Arbitration, The... 568
 Peace Conference and Russia..... 344
 Peace Conference at The Hague, The.... 676
 Peace in Samoa..... 678
 Peace Treaty, Ratification of the..... 77
- People and Politics, The..... 505
 Peril of Intercourse with China, The.... 472
 Pericles and the Athenians..... 12
 Philadelphia, A Decade of Institutional Development in 629
 Philippines, Recent Operations in 474
 Philippines, Sketch of the..... 421, 508
 Philippines, The Campaign in the 339
 Philippines, The Gloomy Outlook in the.. 679
 "Philippines and Round About," Young-husband's 487
 Philippines Campaign and the Attitude of the Nation, The 574
 Philippines Commission and the Fighting in Luzon 574
 Philippine Situation, The 206
 Philosophical Studies 98
 Philosophy of Revivals..... 244
 Physical Basis of Life, The 68
 Pictorial Art, The 360
 Pisani of Venice, Vettor..... 594
 Place of Man in the Universe, The 112
 Political Crisis in Belgium, The..... 677
 Political Economy, The Larger..... 222
 Pope and the Sacred College, The 471
 Pope-Makers and Pope-Making..... 538
 Pope's Health, The 212
 "Popular Government," Mr. Bradford on.. 486
 Popular Naval Hero, A 594
 Population: Bread, Meat, and..... 180
 Postal Guide, Between the Covers of the.. 71
 Price Question, Wages and the..... 576
 Price Question and Its Critics, The..... 350
 Princeton University 148
 Psychology, A School of 493
 Public Baths of Brookline, Mass..... 314
 Public Speaking, The Art of..... 589
 "Puerto Rico," Ober's..... 368
- Q**
- Quebec 601
 Queen Victoria at Eighty 437
- R**
- Race for the Speakership, The 572
 Race Problem at the South, The..... 549
 Races, Inferior and Superior 89
 Racine and his Age, Jean 557
 Rapprochement, The Anglo-American.... 640
 Ratification of the Peace Treaty..... 77
 Rations Inquiry, The Army..... 342
 Reading, Notes on..... 490
 Realf, Richard, Poems of 586
 Recent Canadian Verse 283
 Recent Operations in the Philippines.... 474
 Recollections of Doña Carolina..... 166
 Reed, Retirement of Speaker..... 471
 Religious Thought and Opinion..... 112, 242
 Renewing Relations with Spain 572
 Re-trial of Dreyfus, The..... 676
 "Return of the Druses, The": Browning's 669
 Revivals, A Philosophy of 244
 Risley's "Men's Tragedies"..... 585
 Ritualism in England..... 143

INDEX

Rivalry in Commerce, National	340
Robespierre on the Stage	470
Rockies, Among the Canadian	135
Roman Law, Educational Value of the Study of	665
Roosevelt Régime, The	80
Round the Table	124, 254, 377, 494, 598, 695
Royalist Outbreak in France, A	571
Rubber-Gathering	51
Russia and England in China	345
Russia and the Peace Conference	344

S

Sacred College, The Pope and the	471
Samoa, Imbroiglio in	344
Samoa, Peace in	678
Samoa in Revolt	82
Santa Catalina, The Island of	501
School of Diplomacy, A National	620
School of Psychology, A	493
Science and Discovery	115, 245
Scourge of Consumption, Combatting the ..	84
Sea, Superstitions of the	307
Sea Etiquette	695
Seamy Side of Empire, The	89
Sea-Power, The Dominant	516
Sea-Wave Motors	41
Self-Realization	24
Self-Supporting Women	227
Servant Question, The	354
Siamese Difficulty, The Franco-	188
Smithsonian Institution, The	409, 527
Sociability	476
Social Evolution, Missions and	636
Social Problem and the Church, The	242
Social Settlement in Chicago, Life in a	42
Sociology, Civics, and Economics	93, 222
Solid Lying, Art of	377
Songs of America, National	17
Soudan, Fear of Further Fighting in the ..	213
South, The Race Problem at the	549
South Africa, Affairs in	473
South Africa, Empire Building in	347
South Africa, The English in	673
Southern Lynchings	343
Spain, Renewing Relations with	572
Spain, The Ministerial Crisis in	214
Spain, The Outbreaks in	677
"Span o' Life," McLennan's	587
Speakership, The Race for the	572
Speaking, Public, The Art of	589
Specialist, The True	116
Speech, Human, and Mountain Poverty ..	561
Spelling Book, A Growl Over the	369
"Statesman's Year Book," The	587
Stead's "The United States of Europe" ..	585
Stellar Heavens, The	115
Stickleback, The	597
Study of Roman Law, Educational Value of the	665
Study of the Future in the Light of the Past and Present	93
Style, The Cultivation of Literary	64
Subway, The Boston	439
Success or Failure	591

Sugar Problem in Jamaica, T
Summer Land, A Legend-Ha
Summer Vacations
Superior and Inferior Races
Superstitions of the Sea
Sweden and Norway, Friction

T

Teaching, Herbartian Princip
Telegraph, Electro-Magnetic
Tissot Paintings at Chicago,
Transition in Cuba
Transvaal, Crisis in the
Transvaal, England and the
Trevelyan's "American Revol
True Specialist, The
True Story of Betsy Ross, T
Trusts — Their Legal Status
Tudor Princess Mary, The
Tyrolese Patriot, Andreas H

U

Uniform, Growth of the
United States, The Hawaiian
United States and England
ive Alliance
"United States of Europe,"
Universe, Man's Place in the
University, Harvard
University, Princeton
Unrest of the Nations, The

V

Vacation Schools in Summer
Venice, A Popular Naval Her
Verse, Recent Canadian
Victoria, Queen, at Eighty
Victorian Thought and Thin
Viga, Life on the
Violins and Some Famous V
Voice-Culture

W

Wages and the Price Questio
War, Our Late: Who Killed
Ward's "Dramatic Literatur
War Investigation Commissi
Waterways, Deep, for Lake C
Watson's "Story of France" ..
Wave Motors, Sea-
Weight of a Lion, The
What is Hospitality?
What it Costs to Live
What the New Education se
plish
"When Knighthood was in H
"White Man's Burden, The" ..
Who Killed Cock Robin?
Wilkins, Mary E., and her N
Windsor Hotel Fire, The
"Wisdom and Destiny," Mae
Woman, Self-Supporting

- Woman, The New, A Word on..... 354
 Woman and Lynchings 479
 Woman and the Home ..98, 227, 354, 477, 578,
 681
 Women's Clubs.....98, 230, 357, 477, 683
 Women's Work.....98, 227
 Word on College Education, A..... 690
 World and its Doings, The...77, 206, 339, 467,
 568, 673
 World's Great Epics, The..... 156
 Writing as a Means of Improvement..... 67

Y

- Younghusband's "The Philippines and
 Round About"..... 487
 Youth's After-School-Age Reading, A 218
 Youths' Department.... 118, 249, 373, 594, 695



SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. IX

MARCH, 1899

NO. I

THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS OF THE UNITED STATES

THE Hawaiian Islands of the United States" is the latest and most important correction to be noted by the map-makers of the world, and so ends a controversy prolonged beyond any other that ever occupied the attention of our nation. Barring the constitutional questions involved in, and finally settled by, our Civil War, no single issue has been so fruitful of debate, or has resulted in such apparently uncalled-for contest. The Star-Spangled Banner now waves over islands in the South Seas 2,000 miles from our nearest shores, while Plymouth Rock is distant from Honolulu some 18,000 miles if an all-sea route be taken. These islands constitute to-day one of the most remarkable mileposts in our national history, dating back to that now historic morning of the 31st of March, 1820, when a little group of American missionaries first landed on their shores, armed only with the Bible and hymn book, while as yet their own country was but a provincial group of poor commonwealths on the Atlantic coast. To-day the islands are not only part of our national domain, but they constitute the most concrete evidence of the arrival of a new world-power—destined, in all probability, to control the Pacific Ocean. A bird's-eye glance at the past and present of the islands would therefore seem timely.

Etuah (the Spirit) created the Hawaiians; all was peace and happiness until O'Rono Akau (the presiding deity and immediate patron of the Hawaiians) sacrificed his wife under the impression that she was about to desert him. Their abode was at Karakooa (the name of the goddess); his love was Kaikirani Aree Opuna. They

dwelt beneath the rock. A man ascended to the summits above, and from the heights thus addressed the spouse of O'Rono: "O Kaikirani, your lover salutes you; keep this; remove that; one will still remain." O'Rono, overhearing this artful speech, killed his wife with a hasty stroke, then, sorry for his rash deed, carried to the "moray" (the temple) the lifeless body of his wife, wailing greatly. He then travelled through Hawaii in a state of frenzy, boxing with every man whom he met. The people, astonished, said: "Is Rono entirely mad?" He replied; "I am frantic on her account—frantic on account of my love." He then instituted games to commemorate his wife's memory, and, yet mourning, he embarked in a triangular boat (Piama lau) and sailed away, prophesying as he went: "I will return in after time on a floating island bearing cocoanut-trees, swine, and dogs." This prophecy of the return of O'Rono on a "floating island" had become deeply imbedded in the consciousness and therefore in the traditions of the nation. It constituted one of the central conceptions around which their priesthood organized their ceremonials and their national legends had crystallized. There are ample evidences to prove that the aboriginal Hawaiians were the foremost type of the Polynesian race of that period. They certainly constitute one of the most remarkable examples in history of the adaptability of a distinct primitive race to enter the ranks of civilized nations in an incredibly short space of time.

As stated, their traditions were real to them, and so, when those (to them) wonderful vessels of Captain James Cook, the

"Resolution" and "Discovery," anchored at Kealahou Bay, Hawaii, in the year 1778, the natives could only think of one solution to the mystery,—that O'Rono had returned as he had promised. Naturally enough Captain Cook and his followers

larged upon at this time ; but, alas, the "Jack tar" of the period, despite his magnificent bravery and his supremacy on the high seas, would, if not held in rigid check when he came in contact with an inferior race, display an inherent coarse-



HAWAIIAN SHIPPING—HONOLULU HARBOR

received all the homage due to a divine personage, yet the visit ended in a tragedy involving the deaths of Cook and several of his followers. It must be admitted—and on the part of all unprejudiced historians it is freely granted—that Captain Cook's seamen were more to blame than the natives. With arrogant stupidity they desecrated what to the natives was sacred ground. The theft of a row-boat (a most natural offence on the part of the infinitely curious and semi-amphibious natives) was punished by death, and the dire tragedy followed. "Surely these are not gods" reasoned the natives, and profound must have been their disenchantment. Captain Cook, and his second in command, Captain King, were both accomplished men, in search of the "northwest passage," when they accidentally discovered these islands.

Captain Cook's eminent services to geographical science and to the commercial prestige of his country need not be en-

ness of behavior that but too often became sheer brutality. The conditions under which he was reared and his treatment on board ship made this almost inevitable. It was the men, therefore,—and but indirectly Captain Cook and his officers,—that brought about the tragedy which cut short the career of the most distinguished scientific explorer of his age,—a man who rendered his country and period services well-nigh equal in importance to those of Magellan. It would be gross injustice to judge these men by modern standards, and similar allowances must be made regarding the proved serious misbehavior of later crews of American "whalers" which soon began to frequent the islands.

The earliest American navigator seems to have been Captain Gray, of the "New Albion," who reached the islands August 2, 1788. The first English-speaking man, however, who seems to have made a profound and far-reaching impression on the

islanders was Captain Vancouver, who arrived there in 1792-93,—some fourteen years after the Cook tragedy. Captain Vancouver had in him the elements of a Livingstone as well as being a competent sailor and discoverer. He was twice on the islands, and through his sagacity and tact he gained an ascendancy over the most important chiefs, that was as remarkable as it was beneficial. The facts attending the first appearance of white men in the islands had by this time gradually clarified themselves in the brains of the aboriginal chieftains. The white-skinned visitors were not gods, for they had killed some of them and had heard their death groans; but they were their superiors, nevertheless,—that was clear.

The man among them all to whom these things became the most apparent was Kamehameha I. All circumstances considered, the career of that chieftain and founder of the longest reigning dynasty of the islands was most remarkable

ogist reconstructs an extinct animal from scattered bones. On a limited scale the man might be termed a Polynesian "Charlemagne." The most daring and successful warrior of the islands, he consolidated the group into one kingdom, marrying the daughter of his most formidable foe after defeating her father's warriors; but his success in war was but the prelude to the practical improvements he inaugurated for the benefit of his people.

Kamehameha I must be credited with initiating the earliest movements in the remarkable transformation which took place in the thoughts and habits of the Hawaiian people. In many practical ways he was aided by two young Englishmen, Messrs. Young and Davis. That, nevertheless, the subsequent reconstruction of an entire people became distinctively American will always remain one of the loftiest tributes to New England religious zeal and Christian endeavor. But the rev-



A FOREST GLADE

and even great. Reared in absolute ignorance of the civilized world at large, his only object lesson the occasional ships and their rough sailors, his primitive mind appeared to grasp the significance and bearing of it all as the modern geol-

olution of civic manners and customs; the inauguration of a Pacific Ocean commerce that extended to China, preceded, of course, by the construction of native and the purchase of foreign vessels; the subsequent destruction of the native gods

and temples, under his son Kamehameha II,—all these must be directly attributed to the far-reaching statesmanship of Kamehameha I. Captain Vancouver must have found him the most remarkable aboriginal chieftain he ever encountered. This becomes most strikingly evident in the voluntary request of his subordinate chiefs that Vancouver turn the sovereignty of the islands over to his king. This was complied with, and the captain returned to England with a treaty offering to George III complete possession of the island of Hawaii. At that period (February 2, 1794) this would soon practically have implied the control of the entire Sandwich Island group.

The ready perception on the part of Kamehameha that, unless he hastened to protect his native land by an alliance with some powerful nation, his home would be made the prey of several mutually jealous Powers, and his people would probably be all destroyed, does credit both to his head and heart. The treaty was duly signed and engraved on a plate of copper which remained on the island, while the original manuscript was conveyed to England by Captain Vancouver. The treaty was well received by all concerned.

Five years later Kamehameha II and his queen visited England,—a visit which resulted in the death of both in the month of July, 1824. Slight was the immediate cause of their demise but the probability is that the long journey *via* the Straits of Magellan, the change of apparel and diet, and above all the radical change of climate, tended to hasten their end. Commodore Byron, who furnishes the most satisfactory account of this episode, and on whose vessel (the "*Blonde*") the remains were returned home, is very sincere in his encomiums on the character of the two young sovereigns. The royal pair appear to have most agreeably surprised the British public with whom they came in contact, by the dignity of their bearing and the good-natured intelligence with which they adapted themselves to their surroundings, every situation of which was to them absolutely unique. These circumstances indicate a ready capacity for observing and understanding a strange civilization, and are suggestive of the rare adaptability the race as a whole has demonstrated in its rapid transitions from crude paganism to a comparatively high standard of Christian civilization.

The arrival of the remains at Hawaii was the occasion for a display of the most pathetic grief of the people throughout the islands.

One of the interesting episodes in the story of this visit to England was the call, made by the vessel carrying the Hawaiian king and party, at Rio Janeiro, Brazil. The British Consul there was diplomatic enough to discern the important bearing of such an enterprise on the future trade possibilities of England in the South Pacific, so he forthwith organized a reception and ball for the royal party, in which the leading English and Brazilian people of the capital participated, including the Emperor Dom Pedro. That these South Sea Islanders acquitted themselves as well as they did, both on this occasion and in England, must be attributed in a great degree to the preliminary instruction given them by the American missionaries already in Hawaii, and also to the efforts of Dr. Ellis, the English Church representative, whom the visiting party greatly desired to have with them as an interpreter. In this matter, however, they were thwarted by the captain of the vessel.

It is a remarkable fact that, in spite of the sincere welcome extended to the royal party in England, and the formal treaty ceding the Hawaiian kingdom, no actual possession of these islands on the part of England was ever established. Russia and France, as well as England, thought they had use for them, and were constantly intriguing for them, while their real importance had not as yet dawned on the United States Government. It was this uncertain status that gave birth to the Hawaiian flag. Kamehameha I, being friendly to both English and Americans, and not possessing any flag of his own, flew the British and American colors indiscriminately. During the War of 1812, however, an American privateer captain, finding the British flag flying over Honolulu, remonstrated at the apparently unfriendly act. The King accordingly substituted the Stars and Stripes for the British flag, only, a few days later, to be similarly taken to task by the captain of a British man-of-war. In this dilemma the King called upon his advisers, Young and Davis, and suggested the display of both flags from the same mast. This incongruous proposal being overruled, it was suggested that a new flag be constructed

from the two hostile emblems. The Hawaiian flag thus became a combination of the two national emblems, the American red, white, and blue stripes forming the heraldic field, with the English jack imposed as the canton.

The scope and purpose of Christian missionary efforts had in them a meaning, an overwhelming earnestness and enthusiasm, in the early part of this century, which it is not easy for us "fair-weather Christians" to realize at its close. The Hawaiian Islands, with all their beauty, productiveness, and great naval importance, are now ours. That such is the case

a Christian missionary; not a crown that would not fall into utter obscurity with that of Paul. The seraphs nearest the celestial throne might esteem it a most distinguished honor to execute, in a manner befitting its nature and design, the trust committed to you. Be not high-minded, but fear. You are but earthen vessels. All your sufficiency is of God, and the whole glory will be His."

But the worthy doctor had an eye to the material as well as the spiritual welfare of the prospective converts:—

"You are in addition to aim at nothing less than to cover these islands with fruitful fields, pleasant dwellings, schools, and churches."



THE ARCH—A COAST SCENE

is due, under Providence, exclusively to the Christian fortitude and devotion of a few men and women who staked all that life held for them in this remarkable venture. The spirit in which this whole movement originated, and the manner of men who carried it through, are worthily indicated in the introductory remarks of Dr. Worcester, who addressed the dedicatory sermon to the departing missionaries for Hawaii at Park Street Congregational Church, Boston, October 17, 1819:—

"The world has not an office in its gift which is not annihilated when compared with that of

How well these mingled instructions, prayers, and prophecies have been realized, the great value of these islands today testify. The Christian pioneers to whom the above words were spoken were the Rev. Asa Thurston, Rev. Hiram Bingham, Dr. Holman (physician), and their wives; Mr. Whitney Ruggles and wife (teachers); Mr. Chamberlain, his wife and five children. Mr. Chamberlain was to instruct the natives in the art of husbandry. In addition there were three converted natives who had drifted to the United States aboard the whaling vessels

that at that period frequented the North Pacific Ocean, hailing from New England. Their names were Thomas Hooper, Honolulu, and William Kannui. They all embarked from Boston, October 23, on the brig "Thaddeus," commanded by Captain

thus speaks of education and culture in Hawaii:—

"When I first came among the Hawaiian people I was surprised to find the school children able to put to shame, with their knowledge of Garfield, Grant, Lincoln, Washington, Glad-



A BANYAN TREE

Blanchard, and after a journey of 157 days landed in Hawaii the last of March, 1820.

The practical results which have flowed from the sincere and intelligent labor of the missionaries soon became evident. Two years after their arrival (or in 1822), a primer of the Hawaiian language was in print, and from that time forward the language became a recognized literary medium in Hawaii, and is to this day used in books and journals printed for the natives. Still more remarkable was the speedy attainment, by the native congregations, of a status of independent self-support, and the establishment of a native ministry. In the latter forties this became the rule rather than the exception.

Mr. Henry Schuler Townsend, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Honolulu, in "The Forum" for July, 1888,

stone, Beaconsfield, Bismarck, and "Unser Fritz," Nelson and Napoleon, the American school children with whom I had come in contact. Hawaiian newspapers still give a greater amount of news from foreign lands than would be appreciated by readers of American country newspapers. It is a rare thing to find an illiterate adult Hawaiian in Hawaii, as it is rare to find an illiterate adult American in the most favored American state, and such has been the case for more than a generation past. Yet these are the people who must bear the brunt of the malice or ignorance of cartoonists and writers, who think it funny to caricature them as ridiculous savages. . . .

"Speaker Reed says 'we are different,'—meaning that there is a marked difference between us and the American people. In some degree we plead guilty to this difference. For instance, men sleep here in perfect safety of person and property with unlocked doors. Our educational system, again, is somewhat more comprehensive, the annual term is somewhat longer, the attendance is somewhat

more general, and the ability to read and write is somewhat more common among the native born population than is the case with the average agricultural community in the United States. Furthermore, the contribution to scientific and polite literature of the day, is more liberal than it would be from a community of corresponding size in the United States.

"When the red sunsets or afterglows attracted world-wide attention in 1883, it was a native of the Hawaiian Islands of American descent who offered the true scientific explanation. Of the two prizes offered by astronomical societies of the world, one came to Hawaii. The recognition extended to the 'Bishop's Rings' was even more hearty in Europe than in the United States. Mr. Forrander's 'Polynesian Race' still leads all authorities. Green's 'Vestiges of Molten Earth' still leads as a geological treatise. Law and literature have also been enriched by recent contributions from Hawaii. . . .

"During the Civil War, when it at first became a serious problem to officer the colored troops, Samuel C. Armstrong, of Hawaii, came

fourteen years of age. Truant officers enforce the law, and it would be hard to find a boy or girl twelve years old who could not both read and write. The best of public schools are supplied by the Government. On January 1, 1897, 10,189 scholars were enrolled in these schools, of which there were 132, taught by 280 teachers. All schools are conducted in the English language, except two of forty-eight pupils each, which are taught in Hawaiian. No minister or priest is permitted to hold the position of Minister of Public Instruction or of Inspector-General.

The average salary of public-school teachers is about \$626 per annum, and something over twenty per cent. of all Government expenses is for these schools, which are in session forty weeks each year. From the high schools, scholars may enter Punahou Preparatory, and from there go to Oahu College,* which was founded in 1841 by Rev. Daniel Dole,



GROUP OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

forward and earned the title of 'Brigadier-General' on the battlefield. He subsequently became noted in civil life as the founder of the 'Hampton Institute' of Virginia. This was Hawaii's contribution to that period of American history."

A compulsory educational law is rigidly enforced on all nationalities from six to

father of the President of the late Republic. This splendid institution fits the student for entry into Yale, Princeton,

*Around the grounds of this school is a high stone fence on which grows the night-blooming cereus. When in bloom this bank of beauty is visited every evening by scores of people, who return to their homes literally loaded with its beautiful blossoms.

Harvard, and all the best American colleges, without further preparation.

There is no district in the islands unprovided with schools, and many of the teachers are brought from the United States. Schoolbooks are supplied at cost price by the Board of Education. This Board, which serves without pay, consists of six persons, two of whom are women. The public schools are strictly nonsectarian, but the St. Louis College is maintained by the Catholic Church for those who prefer to attend that institution.

Through the generosity and forethought of Mrs. Pauahi Bishop, two most excellent schools—the Kamehameha Boys' and the Kamehameha Girls' schools—afford opportunities for Hawaiian youth to learn trades as well as to obtain a good schooling. Mr. F. W. Damon conducts Mills College as a Chinese school. Mr. Damon spent many years in China as a missionary, and is now doing a grand work, not only for the Chinese, but for those among whom they are to live. A Chinese church is also under Mr. Damon's charge.

The moral and intellectual results, therefore, as a whole, will bear close comparison with those of any similar condition the world over. The masterful and inherently noble New England leaven was too vital to become a mere negative quantity. What it implied is most perfectly embodied in the career of Judge Sanford P. Dole, who is still at the head of the

(To be concluded next month.)

Hawaii Government. Yet every primitive race capable of being civilized possesses native traits growing out of their environment, and indispensable to a natural and healthy activity, which it is generally well to preserve intact, or advance, if at all, only along the lines their inherited ability and conditions foster. Nansen, in his volume on Greenland, regretfully notes that the natives of that country, as they become civilized, lose their ability for self-support. They are heroes in their kayaks, and the most masterful seal-hunters in the world; but, once "converted," they appear to lose their stamina to battle for a subsistence with the elements surrounding them. But the natives of the Hawaiian Islands are now to be found in every calling on the islands. They are expert mechanics, and especially noticeable for their skill as carpenters. They make faithful laborers on the sugar estates, if properly treated, but are especially famous as sailors, pilots, and fishermen. The Kanaka's skill in the management of his canoe is marvellous, and the perils of the giant surf of the Pacific Ocean have but stimulated his courage and ingenuity, till the sea has become as much his home as the land, and his knowledge of navigation, winds, and currents has made him in many respects the equal, if not the superior, of many white seafaring races whose prowess has been more widely known and sung.

OLAF ELLISON.

ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES AND A DEFENSIVE ALLIANCE

THE first time that the word "alliance" was spoken in official language between the Governments of the United States and England, was in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. It was a misfortune as much as it was a blunder that the two Governments allowed that treaty to lapse, or to be held in long obedience. An Isthmian canal built by the two nations, with English and American money, would have given to both all the advantages it would have had if built by one, and their united protectorate would have brought with it the union of their two fleets. The canal would thus have become the bond of union and alliance over the two great oceans of the globe. With

the junction of these two fleets, the alliance of the two nations would have been cemented by its own development and the necessities of its growth, and they would have commanded the great oceans against the armed and jealous world.

But the threadbare, if not obsolete, prejudices of the wars of 1776 and 1812 still existed, and were fostered by Fourth of July orations and the extravagant optimism of the American press. The noblest accomplishment of these two nations, however, counted for naught in the face of these prejudices and passions. We are, however, now reading between the lines of our national history. The Revolution of 1776 was no revolution at all.

The colonies revolted from the exercise of a feudal prerogative by the King which he neither could nor dared to exercise over his subjects in England. The true English temper of the American colonists revolted, as the Long Parliament and Oliver Cromwell revolted before them; and in '76, as in the days of Cromwell, the revolt was in defence of the English law, of "the Declaration of Rights," and of the Great Charter of England. It was the King and not the people who were in rebellion. America in that war was fighting the battles of Englishmen, and we have won the gratitude of modern England as we won the admiration of Burke and Chatham then. Not even a revolt against an English king, nor a political separation from his dominion, could weaken or destroy the moral alliance of the two peoples.

At no time in the history of nations has any Government encountered embarrassments such as those met with by Mr. Madison's Administration in 1812, during the strife between England and France. The country had not recovered from the exhaustion brought on by the war of '76; there were great debts against the Government, and little or no revenue to meet them. The majority of the Cabinet opposed a war; the tradesmen, farmers, and men of business were anxious to build ships, towns, colleges, and churches, to open up commerce, clear away forests, construct post roads, and educate their children. More than that, large numbers of intelligent Americans had no faith then in the new form of government, no confidence in the Federal Constitution, and they duly avowed their belief that it would end in ignominious failure. Our Government was between the upper millstone of France under Napoleon, and the nether one of England. Each was endeavoring to force the United States to declare war against the other, through self-interest alone. Stupid and ill-advised as the English Orders in Council were, the Decrees of Milan and Berlin, issued by Napoleon, were far more insolent, more aggressive, and more despotic still, for they constituted Napoleon an American as well as a European dictator. Ancient prejudices again loomed upon the scene, and in an evil hour our Government sided with France and declared war against England. At that time, if President Madison had inclined ever so slightly towards

England, that Government would have given us reams of white paper on which to write our demands, and they would have been granted not only freely but gladly. Unfortunate as that war was for both nations, it, however, brought our statesmen to the front, while the laws of nations applicable to the sea, and the rights of belligerents, were duly acknowledged. It was not, however, until the seamen of our country rose in anger at and defiance of France and England, and flung their proclamation of "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights" from their mastheads to the world, that the President and his Cabinet could see their way to action.

Later on, our war with the Barbary States enhanced our nationality perhaps more than any conflict in which our rising nation was engaged. It was an act of national chivalry. From Morocco to Tunis, along the northern shores of Africa, were planted the capitals of four pirate kingdoms. Their harbors and coasts bristled with fortresses and cannon, while fleets of their corsairs levied tribute of men and money from every Christian ship sailing through the Gibraltar Straits, and raided and harried the coasts of France, Italy, and Spain. Right under the very eyes of these Christian nations the pirate sultans lived and flourished. Every civilized nation paid infamous tribute to the Moorish pirates, and it is recorded that our own Government paid its share of tribute, with a cask of Spanish dollars, to the Bey of Algiers. It was paid once and only once, and the shame of the deed caused Congress to build and equip a squadron of ships of war to settle all future demands. When Commodore Decatur entered the Mediterranean, he met the great "Capitan Pasha" of the Barbary fleet, in his frigate, and, laying his own ship alongside, proceeded to demolish her. With some seventy of the crew—the Pasha himself among the slain—stretched out on her decks, the American commodore carried her into Algiers as a trophy of war to the Bey, who was invited to come aboard to view the remains and sign a treaty of peace on the deck of the flagship. It was the last tribute ever paid by our country to a foreign Power.

It was a strange lesson to England. Shame at last came to the English Court, and the gallant Lord Exmouth carried a British squadron into the harbor of Algiers, and brought it to anchor in line of

battle before the town and its vast fringe of batteries and castles. On that day the English ships also paid the last tribute to the pirate power in the total destruction of his defences, his castles, and his capital. A happy fate reserved to the young Republic the glory of the first example of the performance of a national duty to the monarchs of Europe.

During our great Civil War there was much exasperation in our country against England when that Government recognized the rights of belligerency to the Confederacy. But it was the one thing needed to enable us to establish an effective blockade, and it guaranteed to our Government also the belligerent right of search over every ocean of the globe. That act, while it proved of effective force to us, became disastrous to the rebellion.

In 1867 the French army of invasion had evacuated Mexico, at the command of our Cabinet, and the Emperor Maximilian was made a prisoner of war and executed by the Juarez Government. In the harbor of Vera Cruz the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa was garrisoned and commanded by the imperial Government. An American gunboat was at anchor in the inner harbor, moored by a hawser to a ring-bolt in the castle. About a quarter or half a mile farther out lay at anchor the British frigate "Jason." Seeing his Government without a head, and affairs looking very complicated, General Gomez, the commander of the castle, ordered the American gunboat to leave the harbor; but frail as his little command was, the American commander had received his orders from his own Government to protect his fellow-citizens in Vera Cruz, and he refused to leave. That night the work of mounting heavy guns upon the inner walls of the fortress was industriously prosecuted. Satisfied of the hostile purpose of the general in the castle, at midnight the American commander sent a note to the following purport to the British captain of the "Jason": "They are mounting heavy guns on the walls of the castle, that will point directly down upon my decks and sink my ship, where one hundred and fifty officers and men are endangered. I shall run the risk and the danger and be at my lock-strings at early daybreak." In a half hour more the terse and heroic answer was returned by the English captain: "A gun fired at one ship will be returned by both." Behold here the alli-

ance of kinship and the glorious analogue of the cry of Tatnall at the Peiho, "blood is thicker than water!" "A gun fired at one ship will be answered by both" are words that should be writ on the flags of both nations for evermore. They are the words of alliance between England and the United States.

Since the unfortunate adventure of England in the Crimean War, that Government, like that of the United States, has self-reliantly held itself proudly aloof from entangling alliances with foreign nations. The English people are no more prone to form entangling alliances than are those of the United States. But a *defensive* alliance is not entangling, and it may mean much, or it may mean little, since it is capable of infinite modifications, but "a gun fired at one ship must be answered by both" is the true spirit of a defensive alliance. The fact exists, then let it be writ in official language.

The two nations view the beginning of the dismemberment of China with alarm and apprehension. The dismemberment of China must inevitably lead to civil war and anarchy in that empire; but civil war and anarchy mean the destruction of trade and commerce, and would bar forever the hopes of regeneration of that ancient people. The Chinese are the most industrious and laborious people of the earth. And as commerce has ever been the great missionary of the world, so it has become the gospel of peace and safety to the weary nations. It is the desire of both Governments to see this long-secluded empire penetrated to its remotest recesses by the railway and telegraph, by factories and machinery. The demand for the "open door" is the demand of human progress and civilization, and the eventual enlightenment of the Chinese empire. Our two nations do not wish a rood of this people's territory; they will demand, and they will have, ports of ingress and egress for all nations, and the door of exclusion at last must be opened wide to the world.

The partition of Africa among the Christian nations is a very different matter. China possesses a civilization more ancient and archaic than any other peoples. Africa has been sealed from the eyes of men since the creation, if we except the valley of the Nile, occasionally administered by the Egyptian Pharaohs. Until recently a great dread fell upon the Christian nations that Africa was destined

swiftly to become the centre of a mighty slave power under the dominion of Mohammedanism. A great Mohammedan power was looming up over that continent, confronting a triumphant civilization, which centuries before had beaten it to defeat. It was no small menace that confronted Europe, as the conflict was again to be between the cross and the crescent—the Bible and the Koran. The downfall of the Congo Arabs on the one hand, through the wise instrumentality and statesmanship of the King of Belgium, and the victories in the Sudan under the English general, Kitchener, have extinguished the last hopes of slavery and Mohammedanism forever in Africa. The French in the north, the west in the hands of England, France, and American-Liberia; the French, the Italians, the English, and Germans in the east and southeast, while Egypt and England cleave the continent in twain from north to south through the valley of the Nile and the Sudan—all this insures the redemption of the continent and of millions of intelligent human beings. Who shall say that this is not the crowning achievement of political wisdom?

Notwithstanding the grievous burdens weighing upon the lives of the people of the Old World by the enormous armaments of its Governments, these stupendous armaments have made ambitious kings afraid of war,—they have kept the peace, and Armageddon has not yet come! As surely as the sparks fly upward will militarism give way to mercantilism. The dollar may be a sordid thing, but the populations of the Old and New Worlds alike have learned that it means plenty of healthy food, good raiment, and houses to live in, while it enables men of science and learning to lay at their doors their tributes to human welfare for mind and body. The time has passed when a military hero, with an army of 100,000 men, can march up and down Europe, leaving in his wake a scene of desolation and ruin, and this for no higher or nobler purpose than to twine a wreath of military glory around the head of a king or an emperor.

We are now being told by certain people that we are not an Anglo-Saxon nation. If they will but look at the year books of the patriotic societies of the Cincinnati, the Colonial Wars, and the Sons of the Revolution, they will realize the tremendous fact that the currents of Anglo-Saxon blood are running in chan-

nels broad and deep through every rood of our country, and its genius is enacting its laws and ruling our land. Not yet has this rich blood been absorbed by Celtic, or Latin, or Slavic overflow from Europe. If we are the heirs of Henry Plantagenet and Oliver Cromwell, of Nelson and Wellington, England may justly claim heirship to the wisdom of Washington.

A defensive alliance has now become a political and a national necessity to the two nations, and we may yet see the fleets of the two arrayed in line-of-battle, in their mighty power for defence, against the expiring throes of the Latin races. They have no need for acts of aggression, for their power for defence is enough to confront the Latin and Slavic nations, or the assaults of the world, against the march of nineteenth century civilization.

These two nations, claiming the same ancestral origin, the same historic traditions, holding the same lofty social and political ideals of national life, and possessing identically the same material and commercial interests, independent of the sentimental ties of blood and kinship, possess a latent majesty of power that is competent to confront the world in arms. One single barrier separates them. The English theory of absolute free trade, and that of the United States of protection, are in antagonism, and both alike have been condemned by the ablest men in the two countries. It should seem strange, indeed, if they may not fall into the middle way and adopt the principle of tariff for revenue only. These two extreme economical theories keep the two nations asunder.

The downfall of England and the United States would bring upon the world a grievous calamity to its civilization and welfare. Neither nation appeals to the sword of aggression; both proclaim their appeal to the highest instincts of humanity and to human welfare over the whole earth, but their defensive, un-aggressive attitude must present an iron front to any attempt to break their power, either by combination or by treachery. To-day the Anglo-Saxon nations stand for unity of purpose, for peace and good will to men, and for the righteous heritage they have received through suffering and trial, through weal and woe.

FRANCIS ASBURY ROE,
Rear-Admiral U. S. Navy.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE ATHENIANS AND PERICLES

ATHERNS and Sparta represent the two great antagonistic types of Greek society, politics, and education. The greatness of Athens was essential to the intellectual energy of her sons, and the fruits of that intellectual energy have contributed largely to the enjoyment, to the refinement, to the freedom, and to the well-being of mankind. The annals of Rome or the chronicles of later times may offer to the student the hope of greater practical utility, but in the whole course of history, ancient and modern, there is no period to which we revert with fresher interest than to the short era of Athenian ascendancy in Greece. It is vain to tell us that other epochs and other nations are better entitled to our attention and consideration, for the lips that have once drunk from Attic fountains of the pure waters of their inspiration will not suffer themselves to be weaned from the country and the era of their choice by any meaner spell. To the student and the scholar every spot in the soil of Attica is consecrated ground:—

* There each old poetic mountain,
Inspiration breathes around;
Every shade and hallowed fountain
Murmurs deep a solemn sound.*

Her olive groves and flowering hills appear ever green to the imagination. The lapse of centuries has only cast a brighter, though more mellow, hue over the shrines and glories of the queen of cities; everything connected with her is pregnant with sweet and imperishable associations. At the mere mention of her streets, her porticoes, her temples, her theatres, or her ports, a hundred cherished fancies wake from slumber, and the voices of the departed sound familiarly in our ears. The Athens of Pericles rises from the grave; the rust of ages, and the deep disgrace of Roman, Moslem, and Venetian rule are forgotten; the Olympian Zeus of the Agora shakes off his sleep of over two thousand years and again wields at will that "fierce democratie"; again "shakes the arsenal and fulmines over Greece." We cast our gaze around and say, here stood the Parthenon, the wonderment of art to all succeeding ages; here rose the Propylæa, the splendid entrance to the venerated Acropolis, which modern skill has endeavored to imitate,

but has not hoped to equal; there was the Pnyx, hallowed by the thunders of Demosthenes; on this side the Temple of Olympian Jove; on that the magnificent Theseum; here the painted Stoa; beneath us lay the Odeon, roofed with the masts of the Persian fleet destroyed at Salamis; near it was the theatre of Bacchus, remembered long after its crumbling ruins have turned to dust, by the ever-living names of Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes. Beyond the walls is the Cerameicus, where were buried the heroes who had fallen in their country's cause; at the distance of little more than a mile is Colonus, the birthplace of the Attic Bee. Every spot from "Suni's marble steep" to the defiles of Cithæron is sanctified by some pleasing or ennobling association.

When her marts were filled with merchandise and bustling with life; her ports open to a thousand vessels, bringing from the cities of Greece, the coasts of Asia Minor, and "the countless isles that gem the Ægean deep," all that was useful or luxurious in nature or in art; when mighty men lived within her walls, and the voice of genius was echoed back from all her splendid fanes,—the Athenian himself was so filled with the consciousness of her loveliness, that her name never rose to his lips unless accompanied by some term of endearment. There is no one acquainted with the Greek poets, or even with the historians, who can help being struck with the exuberance of their affection towards Athens. Every epithet which can convey the idea of loveliness or splendor is lavished upon "the violet-crowned city."

Jealous, too, as were the other cities of Greece, of Athenian greatness, they all admitted the superior beauty and magnificence of the favored Athens. There was truth as well as eulogy in the honest boast of Isocrates, that she was universally admired and beloved by strangers above all other cities. Her climate, her situation, the brightness and serenity of her empurpled skies, the salubrity of her atmosphere, the balmy breath and refreshing softness of her evening zephyrs, the rich verdure of her flowering hills, the sparkling clearness of her sacred streams, the laughing waves of the blue Saronic beneath her, a pure and unmixed race with a faultless

symmetry of form — such was her dowry from the benignant hand of nature. To these she added the trophies of art, the glories of statesmanship and of war, the pomp and solemnity of religion, the attraction of graceful amusements, and the magic of letters. All these combined to weave a web of brilliancy around Athens; and when she had won the homage of all hearts, the causes were as obvious as the feeling was deep.

The foundation of this fair city and the origin of its people are involved in complete obscurity. We have both too much and too little information on these subjects to render it of any avail. The legends which have been handed down from early times, and were believed with religious veneration by a vain and credulous posterity, are sufficiently numerous; but they are fabulous, confused, and inconsistent. It is needless to linger over doubts and difficulties, or to endeavor to determine either the period or the mode of the foundation of the city; we only know that, whenever built, its beauty was such as to render it worthy of the perpetual superintendence of Pallas, and that two divinities are supposed to have contended for the honor of conferring on it a name borrowed from their own.

With Solon commences the history of the Athenian people, though it does not yet emerge entirely from the mist and obscurity in which it is so long enveloped. The charter of their liberties was, indeed, sealed only by the blood spilt on the plain of Marathon and the waves of Salamis; but the foundation of their future polity was laid in the time, if not by the express enactments, of the great Athenian law-giver. Some thirty years before, certain movements of the populace and the excesses of the nobles had resulted in the legislation of Draco, but the severity of his laws had rendered them inoperative. The general tendency of the Draconian laws favored the power of the aristocracy. When Solon undertook the arduous task of reforming the Athenian polity, he found the people fairly aroused to a consciousness of their rights and strength. They were nearly in the same position as the Roman *plebs* at the time of their secession to Mount Aventine. The aristocracy were still strong in the enjoyment of comparative wealth, in the prestige of ancient privilege, in time-honored prescription, in the recognized possession

of authority, in the habitual use of arms, and in connection with the dominant class in other States. The Reformers were trammelled by debt and manifold encumbrances, by the disadvantages of inexperience, of conscious innovation, of ignorance as to the means to be employed for the attainment of their ends, and of uncertainty as to the definite shape in which their aims were to be cast. The one party was contending for liberty as their right and sole refuge from starvation; the other was feverishly clutching at the last remnants of departing power.

Amid the angry war of factions the order of government was so confused and the resources of the state so crippled that Megara, small and insignificant as it was, had wrested the island of Salamis from the Athenians, and Athens seemed sinking into an inglorious decline. At this juncture Solon appeared. His first effort was to reconquer the lost island. For this purpose he combined cunning with wisdom, and skill with courage. He eluded the enactments of the nobles and appealed to the patriotism of the people. To deceive the one he assumed the guise of insanity, and falsified the Homeric poems to give color to the Athenian title in the eyes of the other. His success was complete, and the island was speedily regained. His popularity became proportionate to the magnitude of his services. By his influence the power of the oligarchy was shattered and an opportunity afforded for a more popular government. Solon was constituted lawgiver and achieved his highest renown by refraining from any attempt to give the Athenians what might appear theoretically the best polity, contenting himself with so modifying the government as to afford the best constitution which they were in a condition to receive. He so equally held the balance between the conflicting and irritated factions as to secure the confidence of both. He removed the causes of existing distresses, without doing serious injury to either party, while he also enlarged the scope and created the means of further development. It is sufficient to take the name of Solon as the representative of an era in which great reforms in the Athenian constitution were introduced or confirmed, and from which Athens dates her importance among the sister states of Greece.

Shortly after Solon had achieved his work, seditions and the fury of contending

factions again convulsed Attica. Profiting by these disturbances, and, perhaps, appealing to the religious caprices of the mob, as well as to their democratic tendencies, Pisistratus made himself master of the reins of government. The dexterous devices which he employed for the attainment of his object are found in the chronicles of Herodotus. During the remainder of his life, with two interruptions, Pisistratus retained his unlawful power. The measures of Solon were, for the most part, still enforced; and under the tender and skilful administration of a splendid tyrant, the resources of the state were developed, the industry of the citizens encouraged, literature and the arts cherished.

Athens might long have enjoyed a career of happiness and prosperity, had not the success of the rapid innovations excited in the people a restless love of change, and the sudden brilliancy of their subsequent achievements dazzled and bewildered them. The development of their wild frenzy for novelty was, however, checked for a time, to advance afterwards with accelerated violence, by those Persian wars which were to close, at least within the limits of Greece, with the glorious days of Marathon and Salamis, Mycalé and Platæa.

Those memorable times when Athens strove almost single-handed against the whole power of Persia, or, forgetful of all jealousies, cordially united herself with others in defence of the liberties of Greece, constituted the noble advent of true Athenian greatness. Amid the din and terror of the battle, and the streams of blood that dyed the plains around her, and "her multitudinous seas incarnadined," Athens proclaimed her entrance on the race of glory. With the first effort she had already outstripped all competition; but her eye was fixed on a higher goal, towards which she pressed forward with lofty hope and eager energy.

When the sun rose over Athens on the morning after the battle of Salamis, its beams fell upon a city of endless ruins. Everything had been sacrificed to preserve the liberties of the country. In defence of Attica and Greece the Athenians had abandoned their temples and domestic hearths—all that was dearest and most sacred. Amid the fragments of their fallen temples, and the yet glowing embers of their former dwellings, they com-

menced the restoration of their city. When they had lost all that they had accumulated in the past, they prepared to secure an everlasting heritage in the future. Bulwer, the novelist, observes: "One successful battle for liberty quickens and exalts that proud and emulous spirit from which are called forth the civilization and the arts that liberty should produce, more rapidly than centuries of repose. To Athens the victory of Marathon was a second Solon." In a short time the city was rebuilt and fortified, the harbor of the Piræus opened and protected, and the walls connecting it with Athens were raised. Military and naval power was extended; colonies were sent out to secure their foreign possessions, and the sovereignty of Greece was established. The arts, too, were encouraged, and Attic literature was adorned with many of its brightest fruits.

In the year following the battle of Marathon, Æschylus had obtained his first tragic prize. Euripides was born on the island of Salamis on the same day that its name was consecrated by the glorious triumph of Themistocles. Only twelve years later Sophocles gained his first dramatic honors and carried off the laurel from Æschylus, and in ten years more the highest flight of Attic tragedy was represented. Just at this time Pericles was making his first appearance in Athenian affairs. Thus, within the compass of a single generation, Athens was rendered immortal by his victorious and heroic spirit; the city was rebuilt, enlarged, beautified, and strengthened; her maritime sovereignty was established; and many of those imperishable associations which still endear her memory had already rendered her the most illustrious city in a land of endless glories. Plato and Aristophanes, the one with philosophic eloquence, the other with sarcastic virulence, have attributed the decline of Athens to the splendid administration of Pericles—neither, we think, with entire justice. The impression produced by them would withdraw us from the contemplation of the many noble traits and high qualities which characterized that most magnificent of party leaders. It must be admitted that many of the measures of Pericles turned out ruinously, especially the Peloponnesian war. But this unfortunate result was owing partly to the waywardness and intractability of the

people; partly to fortuitous circumstances, such as the desolation of the plague; and even still more to the early death of Pericles at its commencement, which deprived his country of his eminent talents, and left his power as the prize to be contended for and squandered among a miserable succession of ignoble aspirants.

It is true that the perceptible decline of Athens dates from his ascendancy; and rapid and melancholy was her fall. It is true that the innovations of Pericles were rendered most efficient instruments in pandering to the depraved appetites of the Athenian multitude and ministering to the progressive corruption of their declining career. But a strong current towards unbridled licence had already set in long before the rule of Pericles commenced; this he checked for awhile and guided in those channels where it would produce the least injury. It was, however, too late to attempt to stem the torrent, for even in the halcyon days which immediately succeeded the overthrow of the Persian hosts, the provident sagacity and anxious patriotism of Æschylus had already taken alarm. The name of Pericles is so closely intertwined with the brightest associations of Athenian glory, that we cannot refrain from dwelling for awhile upon the character of a man at once so great and so remarkable. Moreover, as his supremacy formed the culminating point of Athenian renown, the consideration of his genius furnishes the best insight into the genius and social condition of the Athenian people. The strong bold outlines in which Pericles has been portrayed by the comedians who satirize him, and the clear light in which his policy and achievements have been exhibited by Thucydides, who was of too high a nature himself either to flatter or slander him, have given to him a prominence in our conceptions, consonant with that pre-eminence which he enjoyed at Athens. It is impossible to peruse the words with which Thucydides closes his account of this great statesman, without feeling that in him lived and died one of the noblest and loftiest of spirits.

Sprung from the highest lineage of Athens, and gifted by nature with an elegant form and a commanding air, Pericles added to mere personal attractions all that could embellish or adorn the human character. To a mind trained and disciplined in graceful accomplishments and all intel-

lectual pursuits, he added a keen knowledge of men and a practical acquaintance with the economy of states. He was a consummate politician, no less by the minute diligence of long-continued study than by his natural endowments. He early obtained an accurate insight into the fitful, wayward, glory-loving, pleasure-seeking character of his countrymen, and learned to sway them as he would by fervid appeals to their impetuous passions. Unlike, however, the miserable demagogues who succeeded to his power, he disdained to lead his fellow-citizens by any other than noblest feelings. He was fond of display himself and lavish of the public money in all matters that tended to increase the splendor or the fame of Athens. But in his own expenditures he was frugal, as well as prudent in the management of his private fortune; so that he remained in his high position entirely incorruptible. The profound and curious wisdom of the philosopher was in him united with the overwhelming power and splendid graces of the consummate orator. Genius and taste—true Attic taste—were his guiding stars, and the glory of his country was his noble inspiration. He was the first in time and nearly the first in eminence of the great Athenian orators, and though his perceptions of intellectual beauty may have been quickened and refined by the wonderful influence of the fascinating Aspasia, yet to himself is certainly due the credit of having made the praise of oratory the first of mental achievements. His talents as a statesman and soldier were equally conspicuous with his other accomplishments. He directed the helm of Athens in the most critical and difficult period of her career; he raised her to the height of her glory; and had his life continued, or any worthy successor arisen, her greatness would have been prolonged by his measures; perpetuated it could not have been by prudence, as the seeds of destruction were already too deeply implanted in the bosoms of the Athenian people.

The most marked feature in the Athenian character is the riotous love of liberty, which raged with resistless violence and formed the very breath of Athenian existence. This liberty of Athenian conception was in no respect what we should recognize as such; there was no homage paid to either the principles or the practice of justice and propriety—no strict subjec-

tion to the dictates of law and order, without obedience to which freedom can never find its best form and only guarantee. With the Athenian it was the wild frenzy of acknowledging no authority but such as he individually might constitute for himself, of following his own uncontrolled impulses alone, and giving a loose rein to the free play of either his passions or his caprices. The *summum bonum* of his imagination was the entire absence of restraint, and thus he gradually reduced his country to those Saturnalia of licence which she exhibited in her decay. This rejection of all restraint produced the ordinary display of other vices. There was no confidence to be reposed in either the public or the private honor of the Athenians. A spotless character, like Aristides, was not more rare among them than an instance of their rejecting, as in the proposal of Themistocles, any profligate or favorite scheme on account of its alleged or obvious dishonesty.

The avarice of the Athenian at an early period merged into that treacherous lubricity of principle which was so severely scourged by the high-toned Muse of Aristophanes, and, in a later age, noted and lashed by the stinging satire of Juvenal. The consequences of greed upon the political welfare of the state and the purity of the judiciary were so marked, that few of the most illustrious characters of Greece were untainted with the disgrace of bribery and corruption. The vanity of the Athenians was ever more inordinate than their avarice. Plato boasts, in a passage of his laws, that the horses and mules in the streets of Athens walked more proudly and neighed more haughtily than they were wont to do elsewhere, as if sniffing in with the air they breathed a consciousness of the lofty dignity of the city to which they belonged. Aristophanes is continually ridiculing this vainglorious spirit. There was much to excite pride and justify an honest boast. Athens was the centre of attraction and the cynosure for all Greece. She was the mother of eloquence; the nurse of all arts; the home of the dramatic Muse. She was the fountain head of Grecian freedom, and the model of all elegance and refinement. But the vanity of the Athenians induced a continual itch for flattery, and led them to claim honors for those merits which they were furthest from possessing. They claimed to be compassionate, and

indeed erected an altar to Pity; but on more than one occasion their victories were stained by the cold-blooded assassination of their captives; and, after the abolition of Ostracism, there was no prospect before an unfortunate general, or unpopular politician, but flight or death. They boasted of their freedom and their love of liberty, but soon fell into a popular despotism and exercised the most unmitigated tyranny, not merely over their subject allies, but over the persons and property of their more wealthy fellow-citizens.

The Athenians were proud of their polished manners and refined intercourse with each other, yet their orators exhibit a richer anthology of billingsgate than any other language has the capacity to equal. They plumed themselves on their observance of law, yet they were so unmindful of all law, that really they cannot be said to have had a jurisprudence. They approved of the right after it was done, and repented of the wrong after the event; but they were too excitable and unsteady coolly to deliberate and resolve upon the right course in advance and firmly to execute it; and they were too indolent or indifferent to pursue any consistent or decided system. Life was to them but a bright vision, and their constant solicitude was to strew the path with roses. Like their own Apollo, the Athenians were gifted with perpetual youth; and they never learned to discover the dangerous inconsistency between the fickle juvenility of their feelings and the stern seriousness of their condition. All past misfortunes were at once obliterated by that irrepressible buoyancy of spirit and ever-gushing tide of sanguine hope. No failure could deject them; no past calamity inculcate any lesson of prudence. The shadows, that lengthened and darkened around them as their sun declined, only stimulated them to more heedless licence; and the bitterest hour of their distress was the period of their boldest infatuation. Their heedlessness, their energy, their hope, their restless love of innovation, their quick and impatient apprehension, their unchecked liberty, which claimed as free a charter as the wind, their thoughtless daring, all constituted the ill-omened influences of their decline, but they had urged them onward to the highest pinnacles of glory.

BOYD WINCHESTER.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

NATIONAL SONGS OF AMERICA

THERE is an old adage ascribed to Fletcher, of Saltoun, which says: "Let me write the songs of a nation, and I care not who makes her laws." The law, or word of command, is wonderful in its effect, but the reason it fails so many times, is because it does not come from the heart; but where they "cast their net on the other side of the ship," and their hearts speak, their souls are gathered into one by the emanation of music and song, the audible language of the soul.

Aside from the principle of right which actuated our soldiers in the Civil War, what cheered and made light their hardships and privations was the tocsin call of freedom and union in the battle songs then produced. The call sounded over mountain and plain, the dark bayou and the lonely tarns of the South, and cheered the flagging spirits of the soldiers in that memorable "march to the sea." The words of these songs were wonderfully wedded to melody, and were not only the inspiration of the hosts that are sleeping, but they found an echo in every school-house and cabin. As perpetuators of patriotism the influence of these patriotic songs, rising like some glorious exhalation over battlefields almost forgotten, can hardly be measured in the memory of to-day. Melodies handed down from time immemorial crossed the currents of the Atlantic in the "Santa Maria" and "The Mayflower," and rose phoenixlike in the hearts of a newborn nation.

John Dickinson, an American statesman, born in 1732, published in 1768 his "Farmer's Letter," among them his Liberty Song containing these words:—

"Then join in hand, brave Americans, all!
By uniting we stand, by dividing we fall."

Nearly one hundred years later, George P. Morris wrote (ten years before our war) "The Flag of our Union." Seemingly Dickinson's lines were in his mind, for he wrote:—

"A song for our banner! The watchword recall
Which gave the Republic her station;
United we stand, divided we fall;
It made and preserves us a nation."

"Hail, Columbia" was written in the summer of 1798, when war with France seemed inevitable. The people were divided and party spirit ran high. A theatre was opened in Philadelphia and a new song was desired. Joseph Hopkinson, in

later life a notable American jurist, was asked if he would compose some patriotic words to the tune of "The President's March," composed in honor of George Washington. The words were ready the next afternoon, and the song was a great success. No allusion was made to England or to France, or to the question which was most at fault in their treatment of us. The song was repeated eight times, the audience finally joining in the chorus.

"The Star-Spangled Banner," by Francis Scott Key, written September 14, 1814, was inspired while witnessing the bombardment of Fort McHenry. These words were not the offspring of poetic fancy or imagination, but what the writer actually saw and felt. Every word undoubtedly came from his heart. Key had left Baltimore under a flag of truce to release a friend of his who was a prisoner on a British vessel. They would not permit him to return that day or the following night, fearing that he would tell of their intended attack; hence he watched the flag the whole day with an anxiety better imagined than described. All night he watched the bombshells, and at early dawn his eye was greeted by the proudly waving flag. That night, while pacing the deck, the song materialized in his mind and he scratched it on the back of a letter. The next morning he was permitted to land; he read the words to the chief justice of Maryland for approval, who at once gave it his seal. In less than one hour it was in the hands of the printer and was received and hailed with great enthusiasm. It was carried to thousands of firesides as the most precious relic of the War of 1812. The tune is an old English air, that of "Anacreon in Heaven."

Our beloved "America" was written by the Rev. Sam'l Francis Smith, who graduated from Harvard College with Oliver Wendell Holmes. The air is English; both words and music are said to have been composed by Henry Carey under the title "God Save the King." There is certainly something more than ordinarily inspiring in an air which has struck the popular heart of four nations—England, France, Germany, and America.

In 1831 Mr. William Woodbridge brought from Germany a mass of music books and

gave them to Lowell Mason. Mr. Mason turned them over to the Rev. S. Francis Smith, saying that he could not read German, but Mr. Smith could, and if he found anything good to give him a translation or imitation of it, or, write a whole original song,—anything, so that he could use it. One afternoon, in looking over the books, he met with the tune "God Save the King." The air thrilled him. Immediately he took up his pen and wrote the entire song at one sitting. This was at Andover, Mass., February 13, 1832.

"Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean," or "The Red, White, and Blue," was written in 1843 by Thomas à Becket, an Englishman, and is therefore an adaptation. In a sense, however, the song is of American inception and origin. David Shaw, an actor, was, it is related, to give a benefit night at a theatre in Philadelphia. He sought to compose a patriotic song for the occasion, but could not succeed, and he called on A. Becket to assist him. Shaw furnished the title and A. Becket wrote the entire song that morning. In the evening Shaw sang it at the theatre. The applause was great, and that evening established it as one of our popular airs. Shaw promised not to sell or give away the manuscript, but afterwards parted with it to a publisher with his name as the composer.

"Yankee Doodle," called our national air, is a musical vagabond, a literary Bohemian. The words are older than our Revolution, for they date back to the time of Charles the Second. It was also a satire on Cromwell. It cannot be called a national song, although national property, and it is not a treasure of high value. It now exists only as instrumental. It has not a national character and must be silent when serious purposes are desired, and men's hearts are moved to high effort and great sacrifice, but as a quickstep it is always inspiriting. Whence its name or how it originated is not clearly known. Tradition affirms that with slight variations it has been known from time immemorial in Spain, Italy, France, Hungary, and Germany. It was introduced into America in 1755 by Dr. Schuckburgh, of Albany, N. Y. When the British advanced in triumph on Lexington and Concord, their band played "God Save the King." On their disastrous retreat the Americans played "Yankee Doodle."

"Maryland, My Maryland" was the work

of James R. Randall, a native of Baltimore, and was written in April, 1861. The melody is a German folksong, and is also found, pretty much in its present form, in an interlude in Mozart's "First Mass."

"The Battle Cry of Freedom," "Tramp, Tramp, the Boys are Marching," "Just Before the Battle, Mother," and a score of other war-songs, were written by Dr. George F. Root. He did more for his country by his stirring songs of freedom than he could probably have done had he shouldered the musket. It was no ordinary feeling that his appeals inspired; they came from his pen aflame with patriotic enthusiasm and never failed to inspire the sons of freedom. In 1861 the Lombard Brothers were in Chicago for the purpose of holding a war-song meeting. They were anxious for a new song and their need inspired Dr. Root, who straightway wrote both the words and the music of "The Battle Cry of Freedom." The ink was scarcely dry before it was sung from the courthouse steps. One brother sang the verses, the other joined in the refrain. Before they finished, a thousand voices took part in the chorus. In the Reform excitement of 1867 in England, it became as well known there as in America.

In March, 1895, Doctor Root's son gave a war concert in Chicago. At the close an old man threaded his way to the footlights, and when he faced the assembly the audience instantly recognized Doctor George Root. The applause swelled into so great a volume that it seemed it would never cease. The son announced that his father would sing his great war-song, "The Battle Cry of Freedom," and he desired the audience to join in the chorus. The silver-haired veteran sang with spirit and enthusiasm, and more than five thousand voices joined in the chorus. It is remarkable that this simple composer, who has greatly enriched the psalmody of the Church, should have given the cast of endurance to songs of patriotism that flowed forth as pure patriotic fire, that, Prometheus like, remains a heritage of the fateful past.

We would not forget "John Brown." In 1861 the Twelfth Regiment of Massachusetts was encamped at Fort Warren. Among the soldiers were four glee club singers, one of whom bore the name of John Brown. His presence was always

suggestive of the illustrious John Brown of Harper's Ferry. One day the soldiers entertained some guests, and the quartet gave them the first verse of John Brown. It was the earliest occasion on which this famous song was sung. One of the guests, Captain Greenleaf, organist of Harvard Church, Charlestown, Mass., suggested a different tune, one which he had found in the archives of the church, an old Methodist camp-meeting melody ("Say, brothers, will you meet me?"); they tried it and the effect was electrical. The soldiers were enthusiastic over it; they asked the captain to compose some more verses, which he did that night and gave them the immortal "John Brown."

When the regiment was marching through the streets of New York and Boston, after leaving Fort Warren, every step was taken to the tune of "John Brown." In later marches and battles no song so moved and stirred the hearts of the soldiers as this one; it was truly their battle-song. In 1864 it crossed the ocean and even became a favorite in London.

Julia Ward Howe's "Battle Hymn of the Republic" was written in Washington. Mrs. Howe, with some lady friends, had been out to witness a military review,

when they were attacked by a party of Confederates. After their rescue they were marched into town with a line of soldiers on either side. All the way home the ladies sang "John Brown." Mrs. Howe had always wished she could find some different words for that tune, and that night the wish followed her in her dreams, for she awoke at early dawn with the verses spinning in her mind. Fearing that she might forget them, she immediately rose and wrote them down without looking at her paper. She was used to writing without a light while sitting up with her children. Her refined and ringing words have sounded from ocean to ocean, but the homely verses of "John Brown" maintain their place in the hearts of our soldiery, and what to-day could have inspired our "boys in blue" more than the words in the last verse of Mrs. Howe's beautiful hymn, which says:—

* In the beauty of the lilies
Christ was born across the sea,
With the glory in His bosom
Which transfigures you and me.
As He died to make men holy
Let us die to make them free,
For God is marching on.*

DELLA M. JOHNSON.

CINCINNATI, O.

VICTORIAN THOUGHT AND THINKERS

II.—EVOLUTION

A NEW departure in English thought dates from the publication of Darwin's biological researches in the year 1859. Darwin's "Origin of Species" was an epoch-making book, comparable with the masterpiece of Laplace, the "*Mécanique Céleste*" (1799-1825). Since the publication of Newton's "Principia" (1687), no other English book has presented facts and conclusions of such fundamental and far-reaching importance. The idea of universal gravitation is scarcely to be regarded as a greater contribution to human knowledge than that of Evolution as announced by Darwin. The principle of the derivation of higher from lower forms, the complex from the simple, by means of "resident forces," may be considered established as one of the primary laws of nature.

Says a writer of our day: "The conception of evolution, rendered acceptable by

Darwin's work, is the great harmonizer of science." It is more than this. The Darwinian theory has permeated and revolutionized all recent thought, philosophic, religious, and social. It has its bearings on a thousand questions and affects the conditions of countless problems. No other Englishman of this century, not even Mill or Spencer, has more profoundly stirred the world of philosophy. The extent and value of Darwin's service to intellectual progress the future alone can estimate.

The idea of transmutation of species was not new. The Lamarckian hypothesis had been given to the world fifty years before, but it was inadequately presented, and was generally discredited by naturalists. During this interval an enormous mass of scientific facts had accumulated. Darwin's merit consists in digesting this mass of facts and in formulating a theory to explain them.

* Continued from the January issue, Vol. VIII, p. 548.

The idea of natural selection had occurred to others and had been partially stated before. Tennyson hints at one phase of it in the well-known lines of "In Memoriam":—

* So careful of the type she seems,
So careless of the single life.*



CHARLES DARWIN, F.R.S.

Glimmerings of the notion of the survival of the fittest are to be found in other writers of the period, but no one, besides Darwin, then realized its vast import. He was the first to elaborate the theory of the origin of species by natural selection—that is, by the preservation of the strongest in the struggle for existence. It was a new method of Evolution. Darwin was the first man to write a book on the subject that took the world by storm. Its effect was to recast the mould of modern thought.

It was indeed an unexpected and startling message that Darwin brought to the thinking men of his time, and it had anything but a cordial reception. His doctrine of natural selection was at first misunderstood and misrepresented. For many years it met with hostility and deri-

sion. Many fallacies were attributed to it not inherent in Darwin's reasoning. It was assailed by theologians and scientists alike. It had at the start but few friends. Huxley and Tyndall were its warm defenders, and their writings and lectures did much to popularize it.

Hooker, Lyell, Lubbock, and Carpenter immediately rallied to their support. Alfred Russel Wallace, who had propounded the same theory in 1858 along with Darwin, helped to establish it on a firm basis. In America, Asa Gray, Joseph Le Conte, E. D. Cope, John Fiske, J. A. Zahm, and others, have rendered efficient and valiant service to the cause by their books and public addresses. It found formidable antagonists in Owen, Sedgwick, Whewell, Agassiz, Mivart, the Duke of Argyll, Silliman, Dawson, and others, who raised innumerable objections. Their criticisms have been answered, and fresh evidences have been brought to light strongly confirming it. Never has a theory been more severely tested, and it has been found to be a satisfactory working hypothesis for scientists and philosophers.

In the last quarter-century, Evolutionism has made considerable headway in England, although opinion is still divided on the subject. By many it is not looked upon as a dangerous doctrine. In a modified form it won a reluctant assent from literary men and liberal divines. With but few exceptions, all the leading scientists and thinkers of the period are Evolutionists. These few exceptions are old-timers who find it difficult to adjust themselves to the newer thinking of the age. It is doubtless true that thousands of well-read clergymen are opposed to Evolutionism because it makes for Naturalism. But it is wonderful what progress it has made in the last two or three decades. It has been a silent force, leavening culture and working endless transformations. It has served and will serve as a wholesome corrective for numberless vagaries of thought and belief. For one thing, it conflicts with the notion of a speedy millennium. No sane Evolutionist would predict that the end of the world is near at hand.

But the popular prejudice against Darwinism has never been overcome, so persistent are the old habits of thinking. It is still opposed by the common people. This is not surprising. A long time must yet elapse before Darwin's leading idea and its implications will be grasped and assimilated by the average men and women of intelligence. Many educated minds have never given it a fair hearing. Probably a majority of college graduates have not read his two chief books: "The Origin of Species" and "The Descent of Man." There are still those who believe that the earth is not round. Here and there an advocate is found for some other system of astronomy than the Copernican. According to Jasper, the sun "do move," and the teachings of Teed are at variance with the laws of Kepler. Strange as it may sound, "Koresshan Cosmogony maintains that the earth is a hollow sphere," and that the sun is within this sphere, "less than four thousand miles distant, instead of ninety-three million miles, as falsely taught!" So centuries may pass before Evolution be universally accepted.

Darwin not only furnished the unifying principle of science, he supplied the chief element of the new philosophy, the interdependence of everything in the universe, the intimate and necessary relation of every part to the whole. This is a corollary of the development theory. Men had never before so fully realized the extent of the interaction of the individual and his environment. The work of collecting and tabulating data had gone on for decades, and the time was ripe for the coming of a philosopher of broad vision to bring uniformity out of seeming diversity. In this colossal undertaking of organizing facts and finding laws, of transmuting chaos into system, one man stands easily first, a thinker of thinkers, the legitimate successor of Bacon and Locke. Herbert Spencer (1820—) had become imbued with the scientific spirit of the age, and is perhaps its best exponent in philosophy. During many years he was busy gathering information and laying the foundations of the "Synthetic Philosophy." He was much in-

debted to Darwin, yet he had the root idea of evolution before Darwin's book appeared. "It is to him," says Grant Allen, "that we owe the word evolution itself, and the general concept of evolution as a single, all-pervading natural process." He changed his views from time to time, and critics have pointed out his numerous shortcomings and inconsistencies. With more general culture, he had less of the strictly scientific method than Darwin. But his prodigious range of knowledge, his masterly style of exposition, his architectural ability shown in constructing a massive edifice of thought, extort wonder and admiration. With herculean exertion, under trying infirmities and discouragements, he toiled on for half a century and completed his self-imposed task. Rarely is it given to a single intellect to



HERBERT SPENCER

plan and execute a monumental work. To Herbert Spencer rightly belongs this honor.

One outcome of Darwinism was a strengthening of Materialism. It gave a marked impetus to materialistic speculation in the sixties and seventies. The

theory of natural selection seemed to afford a temporary show of advantage to Atheism. Undoubtedly it robs the old argument of design of some of its force. Evolution unquestionably makes for a mechanical explanation of the universe. The hypothesis of spontaneous generation was again revived and discussed. Many experiments were made, but failure attended all efforts to produce life artificially in laboratories. Spontaneous generation broke down under crucial examination.



JOHN TYNDALL, LL.D.

However, many physicists confidently believed that it once took place — it might have been possible in the eons of the past under other conditions. Given matter and force, atoms combining and re-combining in endless flux, sooner or later, they argued, life would come forth. Once started, it would go on transmitting itself and appearing in an infinite variety of forms. "The fortuitous concourse of atoms" explains it all. Chance, or rather necessity, was the first cause of all things. Blind Nature once did what the chemist of to-day cannot do. According to the materialistic view, which is the old Epi-

curean system revamped, matter was eternally in motion, and the vital spark was originated naturally and inevitably by the fortunate combination of circumstances. How this happened is a mystery. The biologist learnedly declares that "protoplasm is the physical basis of life," it is the result of certain contingencies, etc., but so far he has not discovered any new way of calling it into existence. Perhaps the most distinguished representative of Evolutional Materialism in Britain was Professor Tyndall, whose Belfast address (1874) is its law and gospel. For awhile Romanes was a convert, though he afterwards abandoned the materialistic position defended in his "Candid Examination of Theism" (1876). W. K. Clifford was another. It never had a large following among Victorian thinkers, and its vogue was of short duration. The instincts of the English are too strongly set in the opposite direction. They prefer to cling to the traditional theism of the fathers, which postulates God as the First Cause and Creator of the universe. The works of Büchner, Vogt, and other Materialists of Germany and France have been translated into English and have exerted a perceptible influence on contemporary thought in England.

The invariable accompaniment of Materialism is Pessimism. The wail of despair and disappointment has been heard in the closing decades of the nineteenth century. The question was propounded anew, "Is life worth living?" It was answered in the negative by Mr. W. H. Mallock, if there be no supernatural order and no reality in religion. It was variously answered by the poets. To Browning, life is worth while because of his profound conviction of an after-life. "No," says Tennyson, "if this life be all." "Scarcely so," says Swinburne. "Yes," says Matthew Arnold, but sadly and wearily. William Morris evades the question, but the melancholy note in his verse and prose suggests that something was lacking in a life so full and rich as his. What James Thomson thought is recorded in "The City of Dreadful Night" and other "broodings on hopelessness and spiritual

desolation." There was sure to be a reaction against this cheerless pagan philosophy.

A passing phase of recent thought, that need not be long dwelt on, is Agnosticism. It may be called the culmination or advanced stage of the scepticism of the thirties and forties. The relation of Hamilton and Mansel to it has been pointed out. They prepared the ground for Huxley, who had much of the challenging temper then rife in England, but mingled with scientific caution and reserve. A new attitude of mind was the result, the outcome of these two tendencies. With much of the iconoclastic mood, he did not countenance sweeping criticism. He would not deny the possibility of life after death or the existence of a Supreme Being. He assumed the position of one who is non-committal. Intellectual honesty compelled him to take some such position. In the absence of positive proof respecting certain theological and metaphysical conceptions, he preferred not to affirm dogmatically whether they are true or not. Recognizing that the boundaries of the knowable and unknowable (so-called) are forever shifting, he maintained a suspense of judgment. To express his mental attitude toward matters that he regarded as uncertain and unverifiable, he coined the new term *agnostic* from the Greek word *agnosco*—"I do not know." It was merely one of the details of Positivism brought into clearer relief, Huxley's position being substantially that of Mill and Spencer. The doctrine was at first misconstrued, denounced, and laughed at. Later, its distinctive features were seen to be not so very objectionable after all, aside from the weakness of negation. In time, it received the qualified approval of philosophers and theologians. For awhile Agnosticism gave rise to heated polemics, but its discussion soon ceased.

The latest phase of Victorian philosophy is Monism. It is a compound of ingredients old and new. The problem of soul and body has been threshed over in the light of physical science with varying



JOHN STUART MILL

results. To the Monist of to-day, the dualism of Descartes is unthinkable, mind and matter being different aspects of one substance. Literature and science have both contributed to this result. Idealistic Monism owes much to Spinoza, Hegel, and Goethe. Materialistic Monism owes much to the Evolutionists of our time. There is a strong pantheistic tinge in the poetry of Wordsworth and of Shelley. There is a slight infusion of Pantheism in Tennyson. It is more pronounced in Emerson and Matthew Arnold. The effect of Darwin's teaching has been to reinforce the monistic position. In the "Origin of Species," pages 298-9, he says: "I believe that animals are descended from, at most, only four or five progenitors, and plants from an equal or lesser number." From this it is not a long step to the derivation of all living beings from one germ—a view more guardedly expressed on page 484 of the first edition: "Therefore, I

should infer from analogy that probably all the organic beings which have ever lived on this earth have descended from some one primordial form, into which life was first breathed." Thus, Darwinism has paved the way for the Monism of Haeckel and Hartmann. The trend of latter-day thought in England is toward

the acceptance of "a unitary principle of the universe." It has not yet settled just what this is, but its drift has been more and more in the direction of Idealism. This opens a new chapter in the history of British philosophy during the last quarter-century or more.

EUGENE PARSONS.

SELF-REALIZATION

THE phrase self-realization embodies a philosophy of life which is profound and yet practical as well. It has received the stamp of the Hegelian die, and has become inseparably associated with the maxim of the Hegelian ethic, "Be a person." Though we may not be able to appreciate the "Secret of Hegel" and lighten the obscurities of his philosophy, we may at least comprehend the significance of that simple statement into which he has compressed the essence of his ethical teaching. *Be a person* is a command which implies an ideal. The person which each should become is that personality which realizes most completely the possibilities of the individual. It is a pregnant expression. Man must be a person, not a thing; his activities must be regarded as an end and not merely as a means; he must develop the higher self and not the lower; he must realize the fully-rounded self, and not be content with the partial fostering of single powers. As thus construed, the idea of self-realization sets a standard of being and of conduct which is many-sided. As an ideal of life, however, it has been criticised as inadequate, and yet it is an idea which has so many affinities as to attract to it, as a nucleus, the various essentials of a complete ethic. It is rich in its implications.

In the development of philosophical thought, the insistence upon the self, the ego, as the proper point of view for the solution of the great world-problems, has characterized two philosophical epochs, one in the ancient, and one in the modern, world. Socrates turned the minds of the vague thinkers of his day from their dreamy speculations as to the origin and underlying unity of the world without, to the study of the microcosm, the nature of man within, his ideals and duties. His teaching marked an early renaissance

which gave an ethical impulse to thought and conduct.

And in modern times, a return to the study of self was brought about by the great Kant, concerning whom Goethe said that "to read Kant was like entering a lighted room." The light of his teaching radiated from the focus of the self. He insisted upon a new beginning in the midst of the confused mazes of modern philosophy. That beginning was the analysis of the ego and the principles underlying the processes of reason. A new direction was given to thought, both speculative and practical. On its practical side, especially, there was an ethical revival in the emphasis placed upon the sovereign commands of duty and the inherent divinity of the right.

Moreover, in the sphere of religion, the rise of Protestantism may be traced to a similar beginning. It was the insistence again upon the supreme dignity and worth of the individual self, and the protest that no institution, however sacred and powerful, should assume the responsibilities of the individual, either for thought or practice. Hence the birth of civil and religious liberty, and the increasing sanctity attached to the individual and his rights. Again, in the passage from the Greek to the Christian ethic, there was a transition from metaphysical speculations to an investigation of the psychological basis of morality—that is, the study of the phenomena of mental activity as exhibited in man's impulses, desires, appetencies, the reason and the will, in order to ascertain the norm of character and the laws of practice. It was essentially an analysis of the various manifestations of the self. It will be seen, therefore, that the idea of self-realization is of a philosophical lineage, both ancient and honorable.

Self-realization, regarded as an ideal comprehensively interpreted, and allowed to become an active principle in the life,

will serve the ends of healthful growth and attainment both for the individual and for society. It will prove a counter-tendency to certain forces specially dominant in our modern life. One of these forces is the prevailing material considerations of the day, resulting in a creed of utility as the rule of life; another, the tendency to extreme specialization which, while it deepens, yet narrows the channels of one's being; and the third is the growing spirit of unrest and of anarchy which threatens the disintegration of society through the disruption and the deterioration of its several parts.

As to the first, a proper conception of self-realization must at once raise the individual above the considerations of mere utility as a guide to conduct. In this connection the idea of self-realization must be sharply differentiated from that of self-satisfaction. To satisfy self is to minister to the needs and desires of the self as it is. To realize self is to so minister to the self that is as to foster the growth of the self that ought to be. In the former, maxims of utility will naturally prevail; in the latter, an ideal of character and conduct. There is, therefore, a marked antithesis between the momentary gratification of the immediate desire and that activity of the self which is characterized by permanent acquisition, insuring continuous development. The ideal of self-satisfaction must be expressed largely in terms of the material and the transitory; the ideal of self-realization in terms of the spiritual and the enduring. As one or the other of these ideals has sway in the life, so will one's estimates of value be in terms of the material or of the spiritual, of utility or of duty. A man's worth to himself and to others will be his productive power assessed in material units, or it will be his value as represented by character. Pleasure, happiness, and all that these words imply, must therefore in no wise be the main or direct goal of living, if man purposes to realize rather than satisfy self. To be rather than to have, to grow rather than to enjoy, to minister rather than be ministered unto, to lose one's life rather than save it—this is the law of self-realization. This is the *Ewigkeitsgeist* that must ever rise superior to the *Zeitgeist* which may strive to suppress it. As Socrates divined, centuries ago, "The best man is he who most tries to perfect himself, and the happiest man is he who most

feels that he is perfecting himself." And the man who is perfecting himself is, after all, the most useful man in society. He best conserves its real interests. From the standpoint of utility alone, the expanding personality is always of superior worth.

Moreover, the purpose staunchly maintained of realizing oneself counteracts the tendency towards partial development through excessive specialization. The ideal development must provide for the rounding out of the complete self into a manifold personality. In the exacting competition of modern life, and with the vast enlargement of the area of knowledge, one must choose a small plot for his work-field, or pay the penalty in scant productiveness. There is a danger, however, in the concentration of thought and energy within a limited sphere, to the exclusion of the widespread interests of life about us. He who is bent upon developing the whole man acquires a wider horizon. Neither his tastes nor his pursuits are circumscribed. His sympathies are manifold. He touches humanity on all sides. While productive in his own specialty, he has time and thought for the humanities, for art, for music, for literature, for the discharge of his duties to society, and the fulfillment of his obligations to God. Life for him is ever increasing in breadth as well as depth. For such a man, culture has a meaning and is prized. It is not a selfish gratification of æsthetic taste. It is the reaching forth to grasp the fulness of life, to wrest its meaning, and rise through growing knowledge to planes of more widely extending vision. And with every extension of faculty and additional acquisition there is a corresponding increase of that productive power which makes for the conservation of the social health and welfare. But as a man's interests become restricted, the sphere of his helpfulness is likewise limited, so that he touches humanity at fewer points. It is urged on the other hand, however, that he best serves humanity who concentrates his efforts in producing to the best of his capability in some definitely bounded field of labor. To be effective, one must concentrate; to concentrate means a focusing of thought and activity, and the focus point is necessarily a limited area. This is doubtless true. A too great diffusion of one's powers results in dearth both of acquisition and attainment as well. However, inasmuch as the tendency of the day sets wholly in the one

direction, it is well to bring into prominence the necessity of a widening prospect in order to preserve a balanced mean in life.

There is, again, a prevalent disposition among a certain class in society to manifest a spirit of lawlessness and anarchy. Their lives are a sullen protest against the existing order of things. They breed discontent among the masses. Having a little knowledge, they obscure its light that they may the more easily lead astray those who trust them. Having power, they prostitute it to base ends. They are a perpetual menace to the stability of government and the integrity of society. Matthew Arnold has emphasized the truth that culture is the natural foe of anarchy. Culture he defines in its deepest significance as the mission to "make reason and the will of God prevail." Self-culture, therefore, must be regarded in the larger sense of the self as identified with the social organism of which it is a part. To realize self implies large social obligation. It is not merely to acquire knowledge for knowledge's sake, to train the activities in the interests of self-satisfaction and development, but to further the health and growth of society as a whole, to challenge the false leaders of the people, and to bring light to them that walk in darkness. One's larger self, his social self, is not developed as long as there is a person whom his life might touch for healing or for enlightenment, and yet does not. Agassiz was never content until every new-found bit of knowledge gained in his patient researches had been imparted by him to others. Much of his life was spent in the unremunerative labor of instructing the teachers of New England that they in turn might teach others and so reveal the secrets of nature to the largest possible audience. In like manner, as men of culture multiply and identify themselves

actively in the cause of increasing the knowledge and promoting the welfare of their less favored fellows, in "making reason and the will of God prevail," there will be less friction between classes, a wider diffusion of truth, a growth in moral vigor, more consideration between man and man. We may well heed the admonition of those stirring verses which suggest the lines along which true progress is to be sustained:—

* Children of men! not that your age excel,
In pride of life, the ages of your sires,
But that ye think clear, feel deep, bear fruit well,
The Friend of man desires.*

It is true also that the smaller self of the individual is expanded by identification with the interests and activities of other lives. The more intimate and real this identification, the more considerable becomes the social increment in the development of the self. He who gives himself to his fellows gathers up their lives within his personality. While enriching them he is himself enriched. We see, therefore, how comprehensive an expression self-realization may become, and what limitless possibilities it presents. Its many phases cannot be fully enumerated; to indicate the chief features of the most evident of them, however, will be the aim of subsequent papers, bearing upon the special topics of self-knowledge, self-reverence, self-control, and self-sacrifice. These ideas seem to mark the essential moments in the process of self-realization. Their organic connection, forming a basis for an ethical creed, is seen in the strong verses of Tennyson's "Ænone":—

* Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,
These three alone lead life to sovereign power.
Yet not for power (power of herself
Would come uncall'd for), but to live by law,
Acting the law we live by without fear;
And, because right is right, to follow right
Were wisdom in the scorn of consequence.*

JOHN GRIER HIBBEN.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

THE MODERN SEARCH FOR ANCESTORS

IT HAS been said that of the three kinds of pride, face-pride, race-pride, and purse-pride, the second is the least sinful. It is certain that our selfish and vainglorious thoughts seem less ignoble when widened from the personal ego, so as to embrace the larger unit of one's family or community or the still larger group of "tribal connections."

If one pursues a search for ancestry in the spirit of a recent visitor to a genealogical library, it is hardly an elevating occupation. "O, I don't want to know about all these people," she exclaimed. "What is the Coat of Arms? That is all I care to look for." Perhaps she would have experienced some flagging of zeal if she had heard the remark of an official in the same

library, that most of the insignia claimed by American families had an element of spuriousness or at least of doubt hanging over them. The real peers of the realm did not, as a rule, come to seek their fortunes in the New World wilderness,—as, indeed, why should they?

But whether or not the number of families entitled by the laws of heraldry to display armorial bearings be as few as this genealogical expert would have us believe, is of slight importance to the true explorer in genealogical fields. If we find a blazoned shield which commemorates the prowess of some far-back ancestor, it is certainly an interesting and innocent object to contemplate. But for practical value it is as empty as a last year's bird's nest and far more meaningless to a people who have been for generations in the position of "younger sons," so far as the profits of Old World nobility are concerned. The man whose forefathers boasted no such heraldic devices may be equally rich in all that contributes to success in American life—possibly even richer, if we may trust the philosophy of the author of "Night Thoughts":—

"They that on glorious ancestors enlarge,
Produce their debt instead of their discharge."

But there are ways of cultivating an interest in ancestral belongings which have no element of pride connected with them, at least in any objectionable or un-American sense. Genealogical inquiry has been unjustly regarded as inducing a feeling of aristocracy or "blue-blood" exclusiveness. Yet the natural tendencies of the study seem all the other way. The true genealogist ought to be the most pronounced of Democrats. As one follows toward the various sources all of the converging rills that have contributed to the stream of his own personality, he can scarcely help acquiring new views of the essential brotherhood of man, and of the links that bind all social factors into one interdependent whole.

The relations of Americans to their ancestors seem, in a measure, different from those of people in other lands. In Japan and other Oriental countries where occupations are hereditary, there is transmitted from father to son a vast amount of technical knowledge as well as prestige in the family craft. It becomes then vital to society that the line of descent should be kept unbroken. In such a social organ-

ism veneration for one's ancestors easily assumes the character of worship, and becomes a species of religion.

In Europe the existing land laws and other remains of feudal history give a special importance to the lines of male descent. But in America there is a delightful freedom in recognizing the equality of all lines of pedigree that greatly adds to the labor as well as to the interest of the ancestral search. It also gives a freedom from anxiety as to what we may discover, that increases still further the zest of the pursuit.

One is sure to experience a feeling of wonder at the rapid increase of the geometrical series. If we go back ten generations,—a number that is sometimes included between the child of to-day and the first corner of his name to the New World,—we count a generation of 1,024 forbears. Adding all the intermediate links, we find more than 2,000 personalities that have contributed to our heredity. And since every good grandmother introduces us to another family group, we have in this comparatively brief space a thousand surnames representing the family characteristics that have linked themselves in our inheritance. The twentieth generation numbers more than a million ancestors. At this rate of increase we would need to go back but a few hundred years to count a multitude sufficient to people the whole known world of that period, and every soul of them our lineal ancestor. One wonders at what stage in the series from the two immediate parents, back to the primitive pair, the numbers begin to diminish.

It is true that in our calculations we have ignored the fact that relatives may sometimes intermarry. But as we naturally regard this as one of those apparently exceptional occurrences, concerning which we can deduce no reliable law of frequency, we excuse ourselves in omitting this disturbing factor. The geometrical ratio of the increase by doubles, which we have made the basis of computation, seems more fixed and natural than the "averages" on which many statistical tables are made. So, if our numerical reckoning ends in an absurdity, we are tempted to look with distrust upon many another carefully prepared table of the "figures that will not lie."

But there is enough of real truth in the theory to fill us with amazement at the

complexity of our inheritance, and to save us from being greatly puffed up over the fame of any distinguished progenitor from whom we may have derived an infinitesimal part of our inheritance. It is difficult to speak with certainty of family traits derived from an ancestor of even two or three generations back, though this is often done by those who are accustomed to refer to their great-grandfather, as though, indeed, they had but one.

Another thought that follows close upon that of the immense number of our ancestors is that everyone around us can boast of an equal number. In truth, if there be a difference, it is probable that the humblest members of the community had the largest supply, since it is to be observed that poor and obscure families often show the largest tendency to early and rapid multiplication.

There is still another consolation open to those whose ancestral records are obscure or wanting. To such an one the path is still open to become an ancestor whom posterity will be glad to own. Indeed, the ancestors who are most spoken of by their American descendants are those whose fame has never been threatened with eclipse by prior illustrious forbears. With all that has been written of the famous "Mayflower" band, one is surprised to find how little is certainly known of the family pedigrees of those who were most prominent in these New World relations. Perhaps none among them is more valued for his ancestral qualifications than the "comely and honorable Mr. John Alden." Yet his descendants must be content to know of his antecedent history simply that "he was not of the Leyden Church, but hired as a sea-cooper at Southampton."

As a rule, for most of us there are both famous and obscure persons in our family tree. We may feel sometimes like separating these and challenging the right of some to claim us as their posterity. There is surely nothing un-American in feeling a peculiar thrill of interest as we find our lines of pedigree leading back to some name inscribed in large letters on history's page. But the true spirit of research gathers them all in, and feels an especial pleasure in unearthing some new genealogical fact regarding an ancestor whose name has hitherto been hidden in the mists of antiquity.

Mrs. Phelps-Ward, in her charming book

"Chapters of a Life," tells us that "people are either rebels to or subjects of their ancestry." In most people, probably, the two feelings are blended and greatly mixed. Yet the closer we come into touch with our ancestry, the more we become subject to good influences proceeding from them. As we trace the family record, a little of the loving thought that lingers around the grandparents of our childish memories seems to extend itself still further back to the parents and grandparents whom they loved and honored.

Our sympathies do not stop with the thought of our own progenitors. We become interested in the brothers and sisters who lived and grew up under the same roof with these forbears of ours; and a pathetic interest attaches itself to the little grand-uncles and aunts who died in infancy, leaving no mark upon the world into which they were born, except, as we may suppose, a lasting and hidden sorrow in the hearts of these others who lived and sent their heredity down to us.

It gives one a peculiar feeling to come upon some record that seems uncouth or inconsistent with one's preconceived ideas of his progenitors. The writer well remembers the curious feeling that arose on reading of a pious and famous colonial ancestor that in 1639 he was "fined eighteen pence for having three swine unringed." Yet the quaint record gave a new and vivid interest in the personality of this ancient divine, thus suddenly revealed as a man of ordinary human frailties. Even when we are "brought up standing" by elements of superstition or bigotry that look indefensible to this more enlightened age, we fall back for consolation on the thought that only a thin strain of this intolerant spirit has descended into our complex heredity. So we do not feel called upon to repent of the mistakes and misdeeds of our remote ancestors even to the extent of being ashamed of them.

Man is a bundle of relations. Genealogical study reveals a curious network of relationships running north and south, east and west, throughout the country. The knowledge of common ancestry is a great aid to acquaintance. It brings us into touch with a host of cousins of varied degrees of remoteness, not sufficiently close to us to add any burdens of responsibility to our load, yet sharing with us a common interest in people and places that

have given to each a legacy of family associations.

As we travel into other towns, a new stock of interests arises as we see the old church where one of our forefathers worshipped, the crumbling stone in the old graveyard which marks his resting-place, and perhaps the ancient homestead, with oaken beams still unrotted, where he built for himself a home in the colonial wilderness.

The sympathetic genealogist cannot remain a mere compiler of family statistics. He becomes an historian in a larger field of interest. Around the facts of family history gather the events of the town, the State, the nation, the world, as the history of the ages reveals its relations to the varying family fortunes.

One learns to look with leniency on Whig and Tory alike in the great Revolutionary quarrel. We find that the people who differed in politics were, after all, similar in character. We find that both sides had honest and well-meaning people whose origin may be traced to the same sources.

The thought of ancestors emphasizes to the present generation the fact that it is the connecting link of the epochs of his-

tory. It quickens within us a feeling of gratitude for our own rich inheritance. We feel the present throbbing both with the influences of the past and the impulses of the future. The knowledge of the debt which we inherit from the past lays upon our consciences the duty of discharging that debt nobly for the benefit of future generations. While we do not worship our ancestors, the thought of them can but kindle the religious feelings, as we say with William Morris:—

"The Dead will I love and remember, and the Living will I love and cherish. And Earth shall be the well-beloved home of my fathers, and Heaven the highest hall thereof."

It is a libel upon genealogical study to maintain that it shuts the sympathies off from the future. If anything can project the thought into the future, with feelings of sympathy for the coming generations, it ought to be the knowledge of the successive links already forged in the living chain of human generations. So we will study our ancestral records in the liberal spirit of the true historian, and forget not, while we "honor the old," to "bring a warm heart to the new."

MARY HALL LEONARD.

WORCESTER, MASS.

DANTE AND HIS AGE

III. MINOR WORKS *

THE "CONVITO," OR BANQUET.

THE "Convito" is probably the second of Dante's works, written after his banishment from Florence, about 1308, although portions of it may have been composed before his exile. The idea was probably taken from the "Symposium" of Plato; and the plan adopted is very much the same as in the "Vita," the leading ideas being set forth in the poems, connected by dissertations in prose. It was intended to consist of fourteen books, but only four were written and three poems. The poems, he said, were intended to set forth the excellence of Love and Virtue, and they were to be accompanied by the Bread of exposition, to make a banquet. His plan was that of an encyclopædia, embracing the whole range of contemporaneous

learning, written in a language which could be understood by common people.

Thus he remarks (i. 1): "O happy those few who sit at the table where the bread of angels is eaten, and miserable those who partake of food in common with the beasts! Yet as every man is naturally the friend of every man, and everyone grieves over the defects of one whom he loves, those who are banqueting at so high a table are not without pity for those whom they see in the pastures of cattle, feeding upon grass and acorns. And inasmuch as pity is the mother of kindness, those who know give always liberally of their riches to the truly poor, and are thus a living fountain, from the water of which the natural thirst of which we have spoken is quenched. I, therefore, who do not sit at that blessed table, but yet, having fled from the pasture of the vulgar, placing myself at the feet of those who sit there,

* Continued from SELF CULTURE, Vol. VIII, No. 3, page 332, for November, 1898.

gather up that which falls from them . . . and so propose to make a general banquet of that which I have acquired. . . . The viands of this banquet will be set forth in fourteen different manners, that is, will consist of fourteen canzoni, the materials of which are love and virtue. Without the bread that accompanies them, they would have had some shade of obscurity; but the bread that is the present exposition will be the light which will make apparent every color of their meaning."

Of these fourteen canzoni, as we have said, only three were written, preceded by one book, and each followed by a book, so that four books (*Trattati*) in all were written.

The discussions in these books are often fanciful, mystical, and disconnected. They belong to what we may call the second period of Dante's literary life—the period of criticism and doubt, lying between the simple spontaneity of the "Vita Nuova" and the artistic greatness of the "Commedia." It corresponds with a period in his life when, without perhaps having abandoned the Christian faith, he yet went through a phase of doubt and unrest represented by the beginning of the "Commedia," out of which he was conducted by Divine Grace to the solid faith which comes of higher illumination and deeper experience. The "Convito" has been with justice described as the first model of classical Italian prose.

The canzoni in the "Convito" are longer, less spontaneous, and more labored than those in the "Vita Nuova"; yet they are full of thought, energy, and force. The first takes up the conclusion of the "Vita Nuova." Speaking of the footstool of God, he says:—

There I beheld a Lady hymning praise,
Of whom to me were spoken words so sweet
That the rapt soul exclaimed, 'I long to go.'
Now one appears who drives that thought away,
And rules so mightily and lords so o'er me
That my heart trembles and reveals its fear.
Me he compels a Lady to observe,
And says, who seeks true blessedness to see,
Let him the eyes of this blest Dame regard,
Unless he dread the anguish of deep sighs.

So far the meaning is tolerably clear. The first lady is Beatrice in glory. The other who appeared is the Noble Lady. But here the mystical element predominates, and we are informed that the Lady is a Secular Philosophy which is threatening to displace Divine Revelation and Grace. This is one of the passages over which

controversy has arisen. We must repeat that we can see no reason for abandoning the real existence either of Beatrice or of the "Gentil Donna," although it is often difficult to assign the limits of the real and the ideal.

We should here draw attention to a remarkable passage (ii. 9) on the Immortality of the Soul. The arguments adduced by Dante were mainly those of the period to which he belonged, and some of them have been supplanted by others which to ourselves are more satisfactory; but the passage is characterized by great beauty and elevation of thought. The second canzone is remarkable inasmuch as the first line of it,

"Amor che nella mente mi ragiona,"

is quoted in *Purgatorio* ii. 112, by Casella, who had probably set the poem to music. Here again Love is treated in a mystical and allegorical manner.

The third canzone introduces the fourth and last *Trattato*. He says he now forsakes the pleasant rhymes of love which he was wont to seek in his thoughts. He then proceeds to discuss the essential nobility of man. He examines the theory which maintains that aristocracy is plutocracy, that the principle of nobility is wealth, and declares it false and vile.

Why was the work broken off at this point? Was Dante dissatisfied with it? Possibly or even probably. But a greater work was now rising before his imagination, perhaps had risen some years before, and now was engrossing all his thoughts. In the greater work that which had been contemplated in the lesser might be better done. Yet the "Convito" is not unworthy of study, and it shows how the poet accumulated material for the "Divina Commedia." Before passing on to the greatest work, two treatises deserve brief notice, "De Vulgari Eloquentia" or "Eloquentia" and "De Monarchia." They are both written in Latin prose.

"DE VULGARI ELOQUIO"

The work "De Vulgari Eloquentia" or "Eloquentia" (the former seems the original word, the latter afterwards more common) was produced about the same time as the "Convito," and was also left unfinished. According to the author's plan it was to consist of at least four books, but only two were written, the first on Language, the second on Prosody, Rhetoric and Poetry. Naturally, as the treatise

tise was addressed to scholars and in commendation of the common speech, it was written in Latin.

The writer begins by distinguishing between grammatical and popular languages. The latter were learnt in the nursery insensibly, the former by grammar and with great labor. He then discusses the origin of language as a necessity for man, who alone could use it. Inquiring into the nature of the first language, he breaks forth into raptures over Florence, but decides that Hebrew was the first. Soon, however, the languages became divided, and especially in Europe. The Romance languages parted principally into the three great divisions, the *Langue d'oc*, the *Langue d'oïl*, and the *Langue de si*. The *Vulgaris Eloquentia* (common tongue) was that language which was common to all the Italian dialects, and ought, he says, to be called the Latin vulgar tongue. The first book, which ends here, was probably intended to be an introduction to the whole.

The second book opens with the question, Who ought to use the cultivated vernacular? "Not all writers or versifiers," says Dante, "ought to use the nobler language, but those only who are distinguished by capacity and scientific knowledge, and not any chance subject, but only the best things should be treated of in this nobler Italian." These things, he says, are love, virtue, and arms. First, we remember, it was love in the "*Vita Nuova*"; then love and virtue in the "*Convito*"; now we have arms added. But later, in the "*Commedia*," no subject is too high or too deep for him. Heaven and earth, God and man, time and eternity, are all sung in the language of the people. And it is the great poem, more than this treatise, which has vindicated the use of the vulgar tongue in Italy and in literature.

"DE MONARCHIA"

The treatise on the Empire has for its subject, as Plumptre remarks, "the ideal polity which should guide men to righteous government, and therefore to blessedness on earth, and to the reward of righteousness in heaven." Only a brief sketch of the treatise can here be offered. A careful analysis, however, is given by Hettinger and an excellent brief account in Dr. Bryce's "*Holy Roman Empire*." The treatise is divided into three books. Book i. asserts the necessity of monarchy

and of the oneness of the Empire: (1) because thus universal peace will be secured; (2) the Emperor is an image of Divine unity; (3) every organization must have a centre; (4) justice will in this way be best secured. More particularly, the Emperor, having no rival, will be under no temptation to do injustice.

Book ii. proves that dominion belongs to the Romans; and this is shown by their history, by their virtues, by the right of war. He quotes the noble words of Virgil ("*Æneid*," vi. 851):—

"Romane, memento:
Hæ tibi erunt artes; pacis imponere morem,
Parcere subjectis, et debellare superbos."

Book iii. seeks to prove that the imperial power was immediately dependent upon God, and directly derived from Him. Here is the point at which he separated from the Guelphs, the party to which he belonged by birth, who held that the Emperor derived his power from God through the Pope, and that he held it of the Vicar of Christ. Assuming the truth of Constantine's donation (now long ago disproved), he declares its illegality. Moreover, he points out that Leo III had no power to confer the Empire upon Charles the Great. This, of course, is another disputed question as to matters of fact.

Finally, he urged that, man's nature being twofold, he needed two guides. The principles of "*De Monarchia*" were the principles of Dante's whole life, perhaps those which were always most consciously present with him. It is possible that some personal feeling entered into this theory. Dante had such experience of the evils of a mere uncurbed democracy that he longed for a master who would reduce those selfish, turbulent elements to order. But, apart from this, he had a sincere belief in the monarchical and imperial principle. He lived to maintain it and to suffer for it, and was probably willing to die for it.

WILLIAM CLARK, D.C.L.

★

A TRANSLATION of M. Joseph Texte's study of the literary relations between France and England during the eighteenth century will be published shortly by The Macmillan Company, of New York. It is entitled "*Jean Jacques Rousseau, and the Origins of the Cosmopolitan Spirit in Literature*." M. Texte's object has been to exhibit Rousseau as the man who has done the most to create in the French nation both the taste and the need for the literatures of the North.

A GLANCE AT HEIDELBERG, PAST AND PRESENT*

AMONG the twelve hundred students of Heidelberg is found the man who goes from his room to his lectures, and from his lectures hastens once more to his books; who absorbs facts at every pore, and, ever digging in the rocky bed of knowledge, hews out for himself a path leading to a docentship. It must be a true love of learning and the honor which attracts him, for filthy lucre is a substance so inferior to brain matter, that, apparently, a German university does not consider it worth meting out to its instructors. There is an entirely opposite class of students, however,—those who sow wild oats before settling down to the work of tilling their intellects for the product of a degree. These men rarely, or never, enter a lecture hall, but spend their time driving, duelling, and at the unfailing "Kneipe," a social beer-drinking place.

The student has his club or fraternity. The clubhouse and fraternity spirit runs, in its way, very high. Any member of a Korps will salute or fight another Korps student, but no other. At the Schloss, and in the Stadt-Garten, we frequently noted distinctions. The members of a Korps might be drinking together at a table where students would be constantly passing; many went by without recognition, until some Korps student passed, when he was at once saluted by lifted hat and profound bow, and when a member of their own particular Korps entered, courtesy effervesced, the entire body rising, bowing, and shaking hands profusely, although they may have parted from this comrade but half an hour previous. The Kneipe offers the chief amusement to one class of students, and no night fails to see them repair to clubhouse or restaurant for a season of conviviality. How their capacity can become sufficiently elastic to admit of seven and eight quarts of beer has to the stranger long been a question of marvel and perplexity. If, on returning home from a Kneipe, a student becomes too boisterous, or infatuated with a desire to shatter lamp-post and window, he may be sentenced to the Carcer, the students' prison. Here his penalty will be only confinement, as he is free to continue his beer, order what he wishes

for meals, smoke and read, besides the privilege of leaving his name or cartoon on walls and doors, already covered with reminiscences of those who have had the distinction to be thus incarcerated.

No German student is entitled to his full quota of respect without his duel. These are ostensibly prohibited by government and faculty, there being a written law that whoever so much as witnesses a duel shall be suspended; but there is also an unwritten law which connives at the act, because of a lurking belief that bravery and a military spirit are hereby promoted. Duels are sometimes fought to decide personal disputes, more often between different Korps for honor. They always occur in the forenoon at the Hirschgasse, a restaurant across the river from Heidelberg, where a large room is devoted to this especial purpose. To the German student a duel is a dignified function. The men present quite a formal array as they are driven in hacks out to the Hirschgasse, since not more than two students must be seated in a carriage, and a single man sometimes occupies a carriage, with several vacant ones following, in order that the procession may be sufficiently imposing. Arrived at the scene of action, the combatant is protected against fatal injury, and the slashing begins; this often continues until the men are so weak from loss of blood that they are hardly able to stand. Should it become necessary for a wound to be dressed, the referee watches the victim, and if he wince or display the slightest expression of pain, the fact is carefully recorded in a notebook, and counts against his Korps. If, during the contest, a man dodge his head to avoid a thrust, it is quickly noted, and if the movement be repeated three times during his student duels, expulsion from his Korps and disgrace follow. When the duellists have fought until they are too exhausted to continue, or are blinded by a profusion of blood, the physician again attends to any wounds, and they go forth to exhibit their bandaged heads and lustrous honor at café and public garden.

But more than University or Students, the Castle is the pride of Heidelberg and chiefly attracts the traveller. Though never rebuilt after the destruction wrought upon it by the French, \$30,000 is annually

* Concluded from SELF CULTURE, Vol. VIII, No 6, page 672, for February, 1899.

expended in order to arrest further damage by time and the elements. Here, in its massive stones and casemates, we see the terror of rough days, in its great quadrangle trace an architecture Norman, Gothic, and Renaissance, and in its grim stone statues greet prince and armored emperor, who five centuries gone by trod these historic hills. Shorn of their defences the huge walls stand in helpless majesty, and around the shattered towers and deserted windows clings a tender beauty, shedding on the Castle in its ruin a charm subtle and more pervasive than ever could have rested upon redoubt or

penetrate these uncanny paths some distance, and almost hear the steps of surreptitious foe creeping along this gruesome avenue.

In a cellar of the Castle is the "great tun" famous for its size; capable of containing 51,920 gallons; it is encircled by thirty-six wooden and iron hoops, is twenty-three feet high, and thirty-two feet long; a flight of stairs leads to the top of this great cask, where it is the fashion for tourists to say they have danced. Formerly an iron pump connected it with the Emperor's Hall, from which inexhaustible source the revellers could quaff



HEIDELBERG, FROM THE TERRACE

fortress. Here, with delightful discrepancy, a tower of one century adjoins a façade of another, and amid this conglomerate pile, we read a history of dynasties and war, a play of art, a whim and ambition of rival rulers. The yawning moat, where lions are said to have been chained, ready to loosen upon approaching foe, is empty now, and the cruel portcullis is rusty from disuse, while in the gardens, in lieu of cannon, the band plays and people harmlessly chat and drink their beer. Below the gardens and the Castle subterranean passages formerly afforded secret communication to the different fortifications, and (tradition claims) delving below the river bed led a tortuous exit to opposite hills beyond. To-day the intrepid can

their wine without stint. Here in this vast hall, in the year 1886, could Prince Ruprecht have turned his stone head, he might have seen potentate and faculty celebrating, by banquet and toast, the five hundredth anniversary of his infant University.

Nature has granted a favored spot to this Castle of Heidelberg; whether it be viewed from the city below, or from the Molkenkur above, from its grand terrace rising abruptly above the town, or from its picturesque courtyard, its charm is never wanting. But it is when seen from the river, on a night of its illumination, that it bursts forth in a lurid beauty never to be forgotten. Then it seems, as the red light suddenly rises, filling the great

octagon tower, outlining the casements of its numerous windows, and defining arch and balcony, as though the Castle leaped to life and arms again, and that prince and retainer had returned, once more to hold high carnival in their ancestral halls. Yet not in artificial and fantastic colors, but by moonlight, does the Castle take on her greatest loveliness. The mellow rays, streaming through turret, window, and abandoned hall, soften her harsh lines, silver her façades, and, shrouding her spoliation, wrap the hoary ruin in a glorious embrace. Stretching further and further out among the leafy garden, the moonbeams rest on broken urn and fountain, coquette with swaying vine and moss-grown column, and, clothing fallen

Rhine-god in an ashen mantle, flood the hollow basin with an overflow of light. Upon the gray walls the shadows chase each other in perpetual pursuit, they play strange fantasies on sculptured features of Prince Electors, until the warrior statues seem to nod and whisper, and, gliding from their rigid quarters, hold hushed and weird conspiracy. And the old Castle which has looked down on a Gustavus Adolphus, a Tilly, a Turenne, and a Melac, that has seen the city in flood and in flame, convulsed by civil strife and assailed by foreign foe, to-night watches a slumbering town, skirted by its gleaming thread of water, bathed in beauty and dowered with peace.

ANNA L. WETMORE SMITH.

THE ENGLISH IN EGYPT: HOW AND WHY THEY ARE THERE

IN ENTERING upon any discussion of European intervention in Egypt, and the present relations of the British Government to the administration of that country, it is important to point out the circumstances out of which that intervention arose. The conduct of Ismail Pasha, who succeeded to the Khedivate in 1863 and was forced to retire from his position in 1879, has been ever since a subject of controversy and conflicting opinion. Ismail Pasha, from one point of view, contributed much to the progress of Egypt; but those by whom he was surrounded were no more capable than himself of properly conducting the affairs of the country so as to carry into effect those reforms and improvements which he deemed essential. When Ismail succeeded to the Government of Egypt he found a debt of £3,300,000. When he was forced to abdicate it had risen to £100,000,000. In 1870 the funded debt was in round numbers £33,000,000, and the charge very nearly 12 per cent annually. In 1873 the Oppenheim loan was effected for £32,000,000, for which the Khedive received £11,000,000 in cash, and £9,000,000 of stock worth 65 per cent in the market, and which he was forced to accept at 93 per cent—28 per cent above its market value; so that by this one loan, though the debt of Egypt was increased £32,000,000, the net cash received was

less than £17,000,000. The following year the Ronznamah international loan was ordered for something over £5,000,000, for which the subscribers were to receive a perpetual annuity of 9 per cent. Further efforts were made to bring the debt of Egypt, which had risen from 15 shillings per head in 1863 to £18 per head in 1879, within control, and to see whether the Egyptian Government might not be saved from the bankruptcy which threatened it.

Mr. Goschen (subsequently English Chancellor of the Exchequer) was sent out by 2,500 bondholders to remodel Egyptian finances, and the Khedive assented to his demands. The sum of £59,000,000, which was bearing £4,130,000 interest annually, was charged against the general revenues of Egypt; the preference debt of £17,000,000, bearing £886,000 interest annually, was charged against the earnings of Egyptian railways; and the diâra loan of £8,825,000, bearing £450,000 interest annually, was charged against the estates of the Khedive. This arrangement was found to be one beyond the power of Egypt to carry out, and lasted for but a few months. Next a mortgage was given upon the estates belonging to the various members of the Khedive's family. Upon this security Sir Rivers Wilson went to Paris and negotiated a loan with the Rothschilds for £8,500,000, upon which there was a dis-

count of 27 per cent, and Sir Rivers was allowed $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent commission on the nominal sum, which amounted to £212,000. So the Khedive actually received less than £6,000,000, though the liability of Egypt for this loan was £8,500,000. A number of Egypt's creditors had already obtained a lien upon these lands, and this led the Rothschilds to delay the payment of the money. This proved very dangerous indeed. A large number of Egyptian officials were left unpaid, and there was serious danger of a massacre of both the Khedive and all Europeans found in the country.

It is charged against Ismail Pasha that he squandered the money which he borrowed. Mr. Mulhall, the eminent English statistician, defends Ismail against this charge. He points out that on loans amounting to nearly £100,000,000 he actually received but £42,000,000. Upon the Suez Canal he expended £6,700,000 after deducting the value of the shares sold. The actual amount spent by the Egyptian Government upon this canal was upwards of £16,000,000. Of this sum £5,328,000 was interest. Upon 8,400 miles of Nile canals, £12,600,000 was spent; upon 430 bridges, £2,150,000; upon the harbor of Alexandria, £2,542,000; upon the Suez docks, £1,400,000; upon 919 miles of railway, £13,361,000; upon 3,200 miles of telegraphs, £853,000; and upon 15 light-houses, £188,000. During Ismail Pasha's reign his public works increased the fertile area by 1,373,000 acres. The value of the imports rose from less than £2,000,000 in 1862 to £5,500,000 in 1879. The exports in 1862 were £4,500,000, and in 1879 £14,000,000. The revenue in 1862 was a little less than £5,000,000, and in 1879 was more than £8,500,000; the population of Egypt increased during his régime 700,000; and the estimated value of the crop in 1879 was £44,800,000. There can be no question that the wealth and productive power of Egypt was enormously increased under Ismail. That he squandered large sums in entertaining Europeans and upon places of amusement is true, but his chief loss arose in his dealing with money-lenders who obtained Egyptian bonds greatly below par and at very exorbitant rates of interest; and to these things and to the bad management of those who were entrusted with the government, his misfortunes were due.

Ismail Pasha had in office nearly 1,300 Europeans, whose salaries aggregated £373,000, for which the majority did little and some did nothing at all; and it is not surprising that under such incompetent management Egypt rapidly approached bankruptcy. Mr. Mulhall says that the original cause of Egyptian bankruptcy was the excessive charge on account of the sinking fund; that the net product of nine loans was £50,500,000, and of this sum, £46,000,000 were spent by him on public works; that English contractors for those works charged 80 per cent profit, and European bankers obtained 28 per cent interest; that he expended during his reign £3,600,000 on schools; that he lost £900,000 in village banks, started to save the fellahin from usurers; that he lost £150,000 in the Nile Navigation Company; and that he spent upwards of £1,000,000 in the erection of palaces and opera-houses and in the entertainment of kings and emperors. When you put these sums together you will find that they amount to the net sums of money that the Khedive received. It is said—and I believe the statement is true—that the amount of money already paid by Egypt to her creditors, had she borrowed at par and at a moderate rate of interest, is more than equal to the total amount which she has received, with the ordinary rate of interest that solvent states pay included.

Mr. Seymour Kay maintains that all the loans that Egypt has received from European speculator have already been paid, together with interest at the rate of 6 per cent, although the total nominal amount of her indebtedness—less the sums paid into the sinking fund—still stands against her; that, notwithstanding this fact, under the law of liquidation as settled in 1880, the people of Egypt still pay 8 per cent on the amount actually received, so that about one half of the revenues of Egypt are applied in the payment of interest on loans for which Egypt has never received any return whatever. That the European control was established to manage the affairs of Egypt in the interests of those capitalists who had plundered her is in some measure true; it is also true, as is stated by Mr. Kay, that the cultivators of the soil in Egypt had been promised a permanent reduction of their taxes by one half if they would raise money to meet pressing public obligations; that they raised £17,000,000 in cash,

which sum was paid to the bondholders and was never refunded, although the fellahin had no remission made to them; and that Egypt is governed in the interest of the bondholders and not in the interest of the Egyptian people.

There is much truth, as we have said, in these statements. From one point of view they are correct. They are not, however, the whole truth, and much contained in the charges made by Mr. Seymour Kay, Mr. Mulhall, Mr. Blount, and others, will be found, when investigated, to be charges rather against the governments of other countries, than the Government of England. No doubt, when the security for Egyptian loans was raised from one of desperate speculation to a perfectly good security, the governments that took control of the Egyptian revenues ought to have insisted upon the actual amount of money received by the Egyptian Government being taken into consideration, rather than the nominal sum mentioned in the Egyptian bonds. But such a course, though favored by the English Government, was strenuously resisted by the Government of France, which put a higher value upon the influence of the bondholders than it did upon justice to the Egyptian taxpayer.

Although Egypt has, from a period antedating her occupation, been compelled to pay a sum unduly great, it was the oppression of bad financial management and the undue influence of Turkish officials that led to the Egyptian rebellion,—a rebellion that, had it not been for the defeat of Arabi Pasha, might have ended in a general massacre of the European population. There cannot be a doubt that when the English entered Egypt they expected to put the Egyptian Government in order and then to retire. But the spread of popular religious excitement produced a situation that made retirement impossible. There were many millions of European money and many thousands of European lives in jeopardy. England had an enormous interest both in the transit trade and the direct trade of the country. It was only a few years before, that Egypt, from bad financial management, was on the brink of bankruptcy. There is no room to doubt that, apart from the joint control, Egypt would have been compelled to repudiate, without much prospect of alleviation to the great masses of her population. The movement under Arabi

Pasha threatened her with both bankruptcy and barbarism. The massacres which occurred at Alexandria and at Tanta, and the rising Mohammedan feeling, might have produced a state of things in Egypt that would have led to massacres as shocking as those which have recently taken place in Armenia. There was constantly increasing violence that pointed in the direction of the extermination of the entire Christian population, native as well as foreign.

It was then that the Government of the United Kingdom sought the concerted action of Europe and the intervention of Turkey, and invited the coöperation of France. But the growth of a spirit of hostility became too alarming to await the delays of negotiation, and so England assumed the responsibility of acting alone. She had a greater interest at stake than any other state. Her resources enabled her to act at once, and the rising storm forbade delay. No matter what criticism English intervention may subject her to, her conduct saved Egypt from great loss. It saved the Christian population from annihilation. She did for Egypt what Europe has refused to do for Armenia. The intervention of 1882 was an intervention that the situation justified. No doubt the movement led by Arabi Pasha was one springing from the aspirations of the Egyptian officials, who were provoked by the favors extended to Turkish officials. The non-Turkish officers in the Egyptian army were wearied beyond measure by the Turkish oligarchy. The official Turk had no claim upon the Egyptian people. The class was arrogant and corrupt, and Arabi Pasha and his friends were resolved to get rid of them.

At this time, moreover, the gross abuses associated with the privileged position of foreigners of the most unscrupulous sort had grown, during the large expenditures of Ismail, to frightful proportions. The Egyptian whose intelligence enabled him to comprehend the situation was friendly to Arabi, and he hated those who had plundered the treasury of his country. The European adventurer seeking favors, the loan-monger, the Greek publican, the Jewish and Syrian money-lenders, the European who had obtained possession of great estates and received the protection of his Government, had fattened upon the Egyptian treasury, and had burdened the Egyptian cultivator until his condition

was little better than that of a slave. Indeed it was often worse. These were all hated by the Egyptian fellahin, as the Turkish official was by the Egyptian official. So Egypt was ripe for the movement which Arabi Pasha had begun to lead. Nearly the whole native population sympathized with him. The cry of Egypt for the Egyptians was a call that aroused the entire population and betokened instant revolution. It was directed against every European as well as against every Turk, and so included those who were necessary to the progress of Egypt as well as those who had proved to be its greatest misfortune.

The abuse of the privileges which I have mentioned has been the bane of Egypt, but European influence of a legitimate kind has all along been its hope. The usurer who found in Egypt a paradise for rogues, and who has bled the country without pity, has done great mischief, but there is also the capitalist who has invested his money in great public undertakings that have developed the resources of the country and have met the special needs of its people. The Eastern Christian and the Eastern Jew are both unscrupulous, but they have in their possession more than half the wealth, and a good deal more than half the intelligence, the enterprise, and the reforming energy, to be found in the land of the Pharaohs.

The crusade of Arabi Pasha came, says Sir Alfred Milner (author of "England in Egypt," and now Governor of Cape Colony), at a moment when the better class of Europeans were triumphing over the worse class, and when, under dual control, Egypt was entering upon a path of pure, economical, and just administration. But when the movement under him became powerful, it not only attacked the abuse of Egyptian influence but its existence. The prejudice of the Moslem grew as he became conscious of power, and a half a million of Egyptian Christians, with their hated rivals, the Syrians, and Europeans of every nationality, would have perished had England not instantly intervened. Arabi Pasha did not favor the excesses of revolution, but he was wholly unable to control the spirits which he had called up.

He and his Egyptian confrères began the movement to root out the Turk; but as Moslem fanaticism grew in fierceness, the floods of revolution were diverted from

their original channel, and he sought the support of the Sultan against the Christians of Egypt. The great improvements which England has made in the valley of the Nile are such as the Egyptian party professedly favored; they were such as Ismail Pasha himself, in a most improvident way, undertook to carry into effect. The people of the United Kingdom have furnished Egypt with the only real nationalists that it has known,—the only people who have earnestly devoted themselves to the great natural resources which Egypt possesses. During the year 1895, there was made, in Upper Egypt, 115 miles of drainage, at a cost of £66,500. During the ten years, 1,400,000 acres have been drained and made fit for cultivation, at a cost of £421,000. There are 3,000,000 acres undrained, which will require an expenditure of £800,000. The Public Works Department have in recent years built 900 miles of agricultural roads, and light railways have been begun.

The natives who belonged to the ruling class have themselves been wanting in honesty and in capacity. They have accepted bribes, they have perverted justice, and they have neglected their public duties. It has often happened that the men selected from among the foreign classes have lacked influence when they were not wanting in honesty. The number of foreign officials have, since the fall of Ismail Pasha, been excessive, and the salaries paid them have been out of all proportion to their services; but France has most strenuously resisted all reform of this abuse. The Egyptians have justly complained of excessive taxation, waste, incompetence, and corruption. The prestige of the Khedive has been diminished; his power and authority have been weakened. This is the necessary consequence of European interference, especially the power to interfere under the capitulations.

The English have found a most formidable task in the government of Egypt,—the most formidable that any one Government has ever undertaken to meet, because she has largely denied to herself the employment of coercive means to secure respect for her authority. Her civil officers in Egypt have found corruption to be the root of Egypt's misfortune, and they have undertaken to destroy it. In 1879 Sir Evelyn Baring (now Lord Cromer) on behalf of England, and M. de Blignières, on behalf of France, undertook to give Egypt

a better civil government than she had before known. But the dual control was doomed to failure, and the attempted revolution under Arabi Pasha, three years later, put an end to it. England, on account of her immense interests, assumed the responsibility of governing Egypt through Egyptian authority. It may well be that had the British Government fully realized how formidable the undertaking was which they had assumed, they might have shrunk from the task, or they might have boldly faced it by the establishment of an English protectorate over Egypt. But they adopted what they thought a milder course. They declined an English protectorate. The Egyptian authorities must govern Egypt, but they were to be guided by English advice, which under no circumstances were they to be at liberty to disregard. In 1884 Lord Granville informed Sir Evelyn Baring that "it should be made clear to the Egyptian ministers and governors of provinces that the responsibility which for the time rests on England obliges Her Majesty's Government to insist on the adoption of the policy which they recommend, and that it will be necessary that those ministers and governors who do not follow that course shall cease to hold office." This is, in effect, a protectorate, though it is not one in form, and so not one that a foreign state can recognize. It has, however, rendered the government of Egypt far more complex than if an actual protectorate had been boldly proclaimed.

British authority in Egypt is exercised in three ways,—through officials in the Egyptian service, through the troops that England maintains there, and through the Consul-General. The British officials have been greatly reduced in numbers. Theoretically they are the officials of the Khedive. They are not, in most instances, the heads of their respective services. There is an Egyptian chief in every instance; but he knows that his subordinate who stands next him is a citizen of a state that, through him and others, must, in effect, govern Egypt. On account of their official relations to the power behind the Government, the advice of these officials is not ordinary advice; it is the voice of superior wisdom, supported by invisible authority.

The English troops have no official status of any kind in Egypt. Had there been a British protectorate, then they would have

had an official position; but as it is, they are not foreign soldiers in Egypt upon her solicitation; they are not soldiers of a protecting power, because the British Government do not claim that they have established a protectorate. They are a few thousand foreign visitors, whose presence lends additional weight to the advice given by the British Consul-General.

The Consul-General himself is, in practice, a powerful British minister at the court of the Khedive. His normal position is the same as that of any other consul-general. His actual position is very different. Nominally he stands upon a footing of equality with the consuls-general of other countries, but in fact he is the unproclaimed arbiter over an administrative area of very varying dimensions. He is engaged in the work of internal administrative reform in Egypt; but all he does is, in form, to give advice, but advice which he knows the parties carrying on the Government of Egypt cannot disregard. The system is not popular with Egyptian statesmen, because, when they receive advice, they think they ought also to be at liberty to exercise a judgment, but when the test comes they find this is not the case.

There is much in the Government of Egypt of which an Englishman cannot approve, and were there a British protectorate, which has been established in the Sudan, there are many abuses which might easily be got rid of. When Egyptian finance was undergoing reform, and the creditors of Egypt were having their securities improved, the English Government favored a permanent reduction of the interest upon the debt. France championed the bondholders and favored the sweating process. The law of liquidation failed to make adequate provision for the actual needs of the Egyptian Government. This was modified by the London Convention, which provided that the Government should have a claim upon any excess received by the *Caisse* as soon as the interest on the debt was satisfied. The *Caisse* hands over to the Government of Egypt whatever is necessary to meet the deficiency on the authorized expenditure. If there is still a surplus it is equally divided between the *Caisse* and the Government. What is retained by the *Caisse* is applied to the reduction of the public debt; what is handed to the Government is used in the public service. If, in any

year, there is a deficit, the Egyptian Government is authorized to draw upon the surplus in the hands of the Caisse to the extent necessary to meet the authorized expenditure. One of the chief embarrassments of the Egyptian Government has been in obtaining the consent of the Great Powers to any new outlay, as the construction of a new canal or the extension of the system of irrigation, for without such consent the expenditure is not authorized, and so cannot be made a charge upon the revenues. This is one of the sources of embarrassment which the English Government is compelled to face.

Another ancient abuse which the British Government has endeavored to abolish was the *corvée*—the forced labor of the Egyptian peasants upon public works, especially that of clearing the canals of silt. It was estimated that this would cost about £400,000 a year. Under the old régime the fellah might be compelled to work upon any undertaking, public or private, at the instance of the Khedive. He was frequently taken from his own field at a season that entailed upon him an enormous loss, so that of all forms of taxes this was one of the most wasteful. The English stopped the *corvée* upon occupying the country. They regarded the abolition of this forced labor of far more consequence than the reduction of the tax to an equal sum in value. The Great Powers were asked to add the costs of removing the silt from the canals to the authorized appropriations. Yet it took three years to get the consent of the French authorities to this most reasonable proposal. The sum appropriated was but little more than half of what was required. As soon as this limited appropriation was made, it was found so advantageous that the National Assembly, although composed of landlords, voted the tax necessary to secure its entire abolition. The tax, however, was never imposed, as it was found immediately after, in 1890, possible to reduce the interest on the privileged debt from 5 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, which relieved the Egyptian treasury to the extent of £300,000 a year. But France refused to give her consent to these most advantageous reforms unless Great Britain would name a day for the evacuation of Egypt. To avoid the *corvée* tax, the Egyptian Government asked to have it charged against authorized expenditure. The French Government refused until

she had extorted fresh concessions from the Egyptian Government, but the Egyptian revenue so improved as to enable the Egyptian Government to meet the outlay from the surplus. France, from first to last, beyond all the other Powers having any interest or authority in Egypt, has never scrupled to avail herself of every proposal to improve the condition of the Egyptians to get some advantage for herself at their expense. In this regard there has been a marked difference between the conduct of the United Kingdom and that of France. England has drawn from her predominant position no special commercial advantage to herself. Her percentage of the Egyptian trade is no greater today than it was before she occupied the country, though the volume of trade has greatly increased, and in this she has shared.

There is no doubt, if the position of the United Kingdom were more permanent, she would increase her influence and diminish the difficulties of government. The creditors of Egypt desire her continuance. But the French, and a small minority under French influence, are hostile, and put every possible impediment in her way. Italy was at one time the only friend England had in the government of Egypt; latterly Austria and Germany have occasionally given effective help. Russia has thrown her influence with France, but it has not been hearty. Her interests in Egypt are small, and she could not decently obstruct English action in the direction of reform. France thinks she has a grievance. She thinks that she has a special claim on Egypt, that Egypt should be a French possession, and that the rest of mankind—the British excepted—sympathize with her. France is mistaken. Those who have no interest in Egypt are not disturbed: those who have, prefer to see life and property made more secure, and the mercantile world is not hostile to good government. Those who reside outside of France know that France, if she could, would legislate solely in favor of her own people in Egypt.

France represents nobody but herself. When Sir Drummond Wolfe, in 1887, negotiated a treaty with the Sultan in respect to England's withdrawal, France, by her threats, deterred the Sultan from ratifying the treaty. The influence of France from the outset has been far more selfish than that of any other European state. Egypt

was burdened to the extent of many millions in the construction of the Suez Canal, solely in the interests of its French promoters. Ismail Pasha had promised to aid in digging the canal by the forced labor of the peasantry; but this proved so destructive of life that he was unable to keep his promise. For this France compelled him to pay an immense sum of money. She used her influence to prevent the establishment of a mixed tribunal. French adventurers received the support of French diplomacy in their dishonest demands upon the Egyptian treasury. She has not regarded either the weakness of Egypt nor the misery of its population. On behalf of contractors and money-lenders she has sought from the Egyptian the last pound of flesh.

It is a mistake to suppose that the hostile policy of France in this regard owes its existence to the presence of England. France bullied Egypt before English occupation. Her arrogant demands weakened her influence; and her attempt to frustrate England at every step has in more than one instance sacrificed her interest to her jealousy. She has resisted reform; she has checked Egyptian development; she has perpetuated many great abuses; and she has resisted to the utmost every attempt to put an end to useless officials if her own people were found among them. She has resisted a reasonable press law; she has interfered with the police; she has prevented restraints upon drinking. She insists upon maintaining a separate post office at the expense of the Egyptian treasury, although every other Power has abandoned it. She has, by her resistance to reform, continued in existence, at a great cost to Egypt, many separate administrative boards that are no longer necessary, and that Egypt has outgrown. France has to the utmost of her power endeavored to weaken the present system and to render it costly and ineffective. There are French officers in the Egyptian service who are men of high honor, who desire to be fair, who wish to avoid friction, and who would like the government of Egypt to be made effective. But the French colony at once subjects them to attack. French opinion in Egypt is too powerful with any French Government not to succeed in the ruin of the official who refuses to be their instrument. The colony is unscrupulous and active, and is backed up in that

policy by the Parisian press. It has sought to propagate the notion that, were England to withdraw from Egypt, France would be her most devoted ally; but the West Shore question of Newfoundland, the West Coast question in Africa, the occupation of Tunis, the efforts to obtain Central Soudan and the Upper Nile, and the protectorate of Madagascar, all alike contradict any such notion; and he must indeed have but a very narrow acquaintance with modern diplomacy, who can be imposed upon by any such notion.

Nevertheless, French opposition to the English in Egypt grows yearly less and less availing. Yearly the amount of European capital invested in Egypt is increasing. Yearly the men of other countries have larger and larger interests in Egypt. They know that English occupation means an equal chance to men of all nationalities, struggling to make the most of their opportunities. They know that this would not be the case if the authority of France were substituted for the authority of England. They know that the extension of English sovereignty upon the Upper Nile, and English dominion over the Soudan, which the International Court of Appeals, under French influence, has repudiated on behalf of Egypt, has given to England the right to retain, on her own behalf, the country of the Mahdi, and this right, it is to be hoped, she will not hesitate to assert.

At some future time I may have the opportunity to point out the strenuous efforts made by Germany to bring about a conflict between England and France in the Central Soudan, which shows how anxious she has been, during the past twelve years, to divert the attention of France from the Rhine to Central Africa, and from Germany to England. So far, Germany has not succeeded, though her conduct toward the United Kingdom has in no case been marked by friendliness, and in some cases there has not been even good faith. Her diplomacy has neither been scrupulous nor candid. In the crooked course she has taken she has imposed upon the English Government the necessity for concessions, in order to avoid serious friction both with Germany and with France. But the United Kingdom can never abandon Egypt until it becomes perfectly certain that Egypt will be politically so circumstanced that no other state will have either the opportunity or the pretext

for taking her place. English dominion has already extended over the best portions of the African continent. I hope that at no distant day British authority will stretch continuously from Alexandria in the north to Cape Town in the south, and from Suakin on the Red Sea to Lake Tchad, and thence to the Atlantic coast. England is marking the continent of Africa with the cross of St. George, as the sign of her possession. I say with all my heart, May she complete it, and may she be worthy to make it, while the world endures, indelible. It is to the interest of Africa and of its people that she should do so; for she is doing more, many times over, for the

Dark Continent, than all the rest of the civilized world besides. It is impossible to read the history of the century now closing, without feeling that the British empire has a destiny that is indeed manifest, if it be adhered to with prudence and upheld with humanity and courage. With Tennyson let me say:—

"To all our statesmen, so they be
True leaders of the land's desire!
To both our houses, may they see
Beyond the borough and the shire!
We sailed where'er the ship could sail,
We founded many a mighty state;
Pray God our greatness may not fail
Through craven fears of being great."

DAVID MILLS.

OTTAWA, CANADA.

SEA-WAVE MOTORS

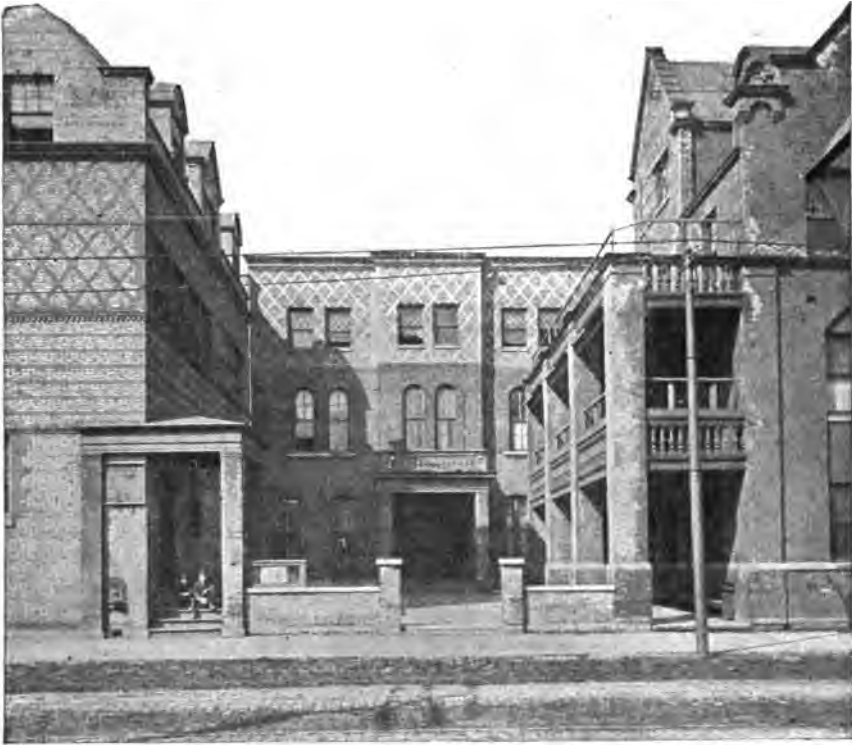
MANY schemes for harnessing and utilizing the power of sea waves have been devised, and in some cases have been turned to economic account. In California such a device has been employed to pump water for irrigation purposes, and at Ocean Grove, N. J., a water-wheel, driven by wave-power, supplies a bath-house with water. The New York "Sun" has recently given an account of a wave motor invented by Mr. Herbert E. Rider, a model of which was in actual operation last year at Galilee, N. J. Mr. Rider's device consists of a floating structure having a flat base of such surface as will resist the lifting pressure of the waves on the working buoy above. Rising from this base is a superstructure which carries air-tanks sufficient to float the entire machine, and at its summit is an inverted cylinder in which works a piston-rod. The head of this rod is connected with a buoy which rises and falls, with the motion of the waves, in guides that form a part of the rigid structure. The machine being anchored in a depth of water that will submerge the base plate beyond the influence of surface motion,—the height of the superstructure and the position of the air-tanks being gauged to this depth,—the motion of the waves raises and lets fall the floating buoy which operates the piston. Thus, at every upward thrust of the rod, air is compressed within the cylinder, from which the power obtained may be conducted to the shore by pipes and there turned to practical use. During the past

summer Mr. Rider's model, which weighed but a few hundred pounds, and the cylinder of which was but three inches in diameter and two and a half feet in length, furnished a constant supply of air compressed to about twenty pounds to the square inch. Connection was made between the machine and a small engine on shore by means of a flexible rubber tube and a quarter-inch gas-pipe laid on the sandy bed of the ocean, and running out 650 feet to the anchorage. The engine was kept running throughout the summer by the power thus obtained, and in addition a supply of highly compressed air was kept in a tank outside the engine house, from which bicycle riders were permitted to inflate their tires free of charge.

In a few weeks a larger machine will be completed and anchored off shore, and careful experiments will be made to determine the actual horse power produced and the constancy or variation of its supply. The new air-pump will be two feet in diameter and of three and a half feet stroke; the whole machine being twenty-two feet in height and weighing twelve tons. Should the experiments show favorable results, and it be demonstrated that the enormous power of the waves can be harnessed and controlled, and can be relied on through storm and calm, there would seem to be no limit to its application. But in the light of past experiments with this and other forces it may be wise to defer the expectation of seeing all factories removed to the seashore immediately.

E. E. TREFFRY.

LIFE IN A SOCIAL SETTLEMENT—HULL-HOUSE, CHICAGO



ENTRANCE TO HULL HOUSE

ONE of the landmarks of Chicago on the west side of the city is the old Hull-House, at the intersection of Halsted and Polk Streets, in what is now the nineteenth ward. The house was built by Mr. Charles J. Hull, in 1856, for his family residence,—a substantial, roomy, two-story brick building. In its earliest days there were trees and a lawn about it; then a growth of one and two-story dwellings closed it in,—homes built by American, Irish, and German men of small means. As the city expanded, many of these home-builders moved farther west, and the houses they left were filled with tenants, with more families to a building than could be wholesomely housed, and frequently the owner yielded to the temptation to increase rentals by putting a second house upon a lot laid out for one. Most of these houses, slightly built and of wood, suffering from twenty to thirty years of hard usage at the hands of migratory tenants, are now so dilapidated that only those live in them who are unable to insist on any improvement in them or in their surroundings.

(42)

Here and there a substantial family has clung to the home where the children were born, and a house is kept up and occupied by its original owner. These are the "old settlers of the nineteenth ward," who gather at Hull-House annually on New Year's Day, to exchange reminiscences concerning the time when there were green fields about their homes, and the water of the Chicago River was so pure that it was dipped up in pails for drinking use.

The river is five blocks east of the house, and between Halsted Street and the river are the factories of the ward. In this section the buildings still used for dwellings have deteriorated more than in other parts of the ward, and here the greatest changes in population have occurred, the leading nationalities now being Italians and Greeks on the north, Polish and Russian Jews on the south, and between these a small colony of Bohemians, many of whom own their houses, and are thus prevented from leaving a neighborhood which has become objectionable to them. School statistics show

that there are now living in the ward natives of China, Holland, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Mexico, Norway, Poland, Russia, Scotland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Wales, Belgium, Bohemia, Canada, Denmark, England, France, Germany, and Greece.

In 1871 the Hull family moved to another part of the city, and during the next eighteen years the old house was used as a Washingtonian Home, as a home for Little Sisters of the Poor, and as a tenement house. In September, 1889, two young women made their abode in three rooms of the house, and Hull-House, the social settlement, came quietly into being. They had chosen the place as a convenient centre for the work they had in mind to do,—work based upon the creed that social service to those destitute of social privilege must be personal service. At this time there were several families in the building; a part of the first floor was a cabinet shop; near by, to the right of the house, was a saloon; and the building upon the left was an undertaker's shop.

The growth of Hull-House settlement has been as quiet as was its birth. Nothing is undertaken before the need of it arises; nothing is made permanently a part of the work until its usefulness has been tested. The first residents made friends with the children, and through them with the mothers. A story-hour for the little ones, a few afternoon teas, an evening class or two, a widening circle of acquaintances, the making of a few friends, would have been the record of the first few weeks.

There are now forty-seven evening classes meeting at the House weekly, twenty-five evening clubs for adults, seventeen afternoon clubs for children, the

Hull-House Music School, a choral society for adults, a children's chorus, a children's sewing school, a training school for kindergartners, a trades union for young women.

In daily use are the nursery, the kindergarten, the playground, the penny provident bank, an employment bureau, a sub-station of the Chicago post office. A trained nurse reports to the house every morning and noon, to take charge of the sick-calls for the neighborhood; a kindergartner visits daily sick and crippled children. The coffeehouse serves an average of 250 meals daily, and furnishes noonday lunches to a number of women's clubs; soups and broths and wholesome food are bought by neighbors from its kitchen, and bread from its bakery, adorned with the label of the bakers' unions, goes out to the Lewis Institute, to grocery stores, to neighbors' tables.

Sunday afternoon concerts and Sunday evening lectures are given in the gymnasium from September to June. The holiday season has its own round of festivities; receptions, mothers' meetings, neighborhood parties, make glad the winter evenings, and excursions on the lake, to parks and to woods, temper the summer days.

From the beginning of its work Hull-House has been fortunate in its friends. Many of these teach in evening classes and at the summer school; others are directors of

clubs, assist at receptions and other entertainments, lecture, or take part in concerts. The financial part of the work is contributed by friends, some of whom give regular sums at stated intervals, others when special needs arise. The rent of the old house and of the ground on which the new buildings stand is paid by Miss Culver, the representative



JANE ADDAMS



A GLIMPSE OF THE RECEPTION ROOM

of the Hull estate; and Hull-House Association, incorporated in 1894, holds on these terms a lease of house and grounds which does not expire until 1920. The playground, a lot 310 x 215 feet, was cleared of tenement houses for its present use six years ago. The restoration of the old house and its furnishing was done by Miss Jane Addams, at the time when the entire building came into settlement use. The teaching and other work of the settlement is without charge; and the residents, of whom there are now twenty-four, pay their own living expenses, as they would if living elsewhere. The coffeehouse is self-supporting, and returns a good rental to the general fund. No public appeal for funds has ever been made.

To the old house, enlarged by the addition of a third story, there have been added four new buildings, and a fifth is now being put up. The general living and reception rooms are on the first floor of the old house, and these are also used for evening classes; the two upper floors are bedrooms. A three-story building to the right of the old house is used on the first floor for receptions and club meetings, for technical classes on the second floor,

for bedrooms on the third floor. Where the undertaker's shop stood is now the Children's House, four stories teeming with child-life through the day, and in the evening used by classes and clubs. To the west, on Polk Street, the two-story building is coffeehouse, kitchen, and bakery on the first floor, gymnasium above.

The fourth building is upon Ewing Street, south of the coffeehouse, and is the home of the Jane Club. This coöperative club of young working-women was founded in 1892, by a group of trades-union girls, assisted by Hull-House. The tie between the club and the settlement is one of affection only, and the club is managed by its members, without matron or other officers save as the club members in turn fill necessary executive offices. Club dues are three dollars per week, which includes lodging and table-board, and the members have home comforts which no regulation boarding-house could offer for much more money. Club member-

ship is limited to thirty, and there is a waiting list of applicants for admission. Until this year the club has occupied flats not intended for coöperative housekeeping; the new home, a three-story brick with English basement, beautifully finished within and without, was built with special reference to its present uses. The building is a gift to Hull-House from one of its staunchest friends, and the rental from the club to the House is to apply on the running expenses of the Children's House.

The fifth building, on Polk Street, between the coffeehouse and the Children's House, will be an extension of the coffeehouse on the first floor, and an auditorium above. The need of room for concerts, lectures, dramatics, and other entertainments, is now inadequately met by occasional use of the gymnasium. All the buildings are of brick, and the grouping is very effective, with a happy escape from the institutional.

Hull-House holds itself in readiness to participate at all points in the wider life of the community, and the strong desire is to bring into this life all with whom the house has influence. This is the real reason for being of the settlement, the end

to which all other settlement work tends. Early in the history of the movement in this country, Miss Addams characterized a social settlement as "An attempt to make social intercourse express the growing sense of the unity of society; an attempt to add the social function to democracy." The forms which this attempt takes at Hull-House are stated in general terms in its charter, *viz.*: "To provide a centre for a higher civic and social life; to institute and maintain educational and philanthropic enterprises; and to investigate and improve conditions in the industrial districts of Chicago." Work upon these lines must be many-sided and flexible, and a settlement may not become wedded to routine, nor expend all its energies and resources upon administration. It must be immediately responsive to any wholesome neighborhood sentiment; quick to discover and uncover anything that threatens to lower standards already reached in civic and industrial affairs; ready to initiate and coöperate in any attempt to raise these standards. It must have courage to be unpopular, to be in-

take, so that it sometimes leads far afield from its starting-point.

Some specific things done or attempted by the House will illustrate this. A nursery was established, where children too small for school and kindergarten are cared for while their mothers are at work. No socialist can endorse more heartily than do the residents of a settlement the propositions that child-bearing mothers should be able to stay at home, and that an industrial system which forces them out to work cannot be too speedily changed. They will agree, too, with their socialist friends that the palliative of a nursery, just to the extent of its usefulness, puts back the hour of change. Yet mothers do go out to work whether or not they can avail themselves of nurseries for their babies, and without the nursery the babies do burn themselves by the fires or contract croup and pneumonia from the cold of the rooms in which they have been left prisoners. Therefore the House makes it easier for mothers to work on the one hand, and on the other would hasten that change which will free



THE GYMNASIUM

consistent, to try the unknown. One new to settlement work said of her first experiences: "Whatever I undertake, the only thing I am certain of is that it will turn out something else." Settlement life is not always as uncertain as this; but it is in the nature of experimental work, much of which a settlement must under-

mothers from this necessity; thus earning and accepting the reproach of inconsistency.

Residents of settlements agree with all advanced educators that the kindergarten should be a part of the public school system. Yet as long as 90,000 children of kindergarten age in Chicago are without



THE STUDIO

kindergartens, there will be need of private initiative to secure their maintenance, and Hull-House will offer one to the children of its neighborhood.

Interest in the children does not cease when they go from kindergarten to public school, from school to factory or street. The endeavor is to maintain an intimate relation with the child through the afternoon clubs, through the gymnastic, singing, sewing, and manual training classes which meet after school hours and upon a Saturday. This impels the House to maintain an unceasing campaign for more school-room, better school facilities, and better school laws. The Andrew-Jackson School with kindergarten, one of the best in the ward, opened in 1894, was built in response to an agitation which began in Hull-House; and the effort now is to secure another school-building in a part of the ward where fifty per cent of the children of compulsory school age are in half-day sessions or pent up in rented tenement-house rooms.

Children who live in rooms deserted by day and overcrowded at night, in a ward without park or public playground, are likely to become wanderers in streets and alleys, and thence to drift into police courts, charged with petty misdemeanors. A resident of Hull-House visits the neighboring police courts daily, the judges accepting her service as a voluntary probation officer. Her work among these

children has shown the vital need of a truant school in Chicago, as habitual truancy is found almost invariably to antedate a child's criminal record. The presentation of facts gathered in this work, before reform and educational clubs, has resulted in a strong movement for the establishment of such schools, and a bill for their creation is before the legislature now in session in Springfield.

When children ten and twelve years old dropped out of clubs and classes, and visits to their homes revealed that they had gone to work, in caramel factories for ten to fourteen hours a day, as cash girls in department stores, as errand boys amid the horrors of the stock-yards, as button girls in sweatshops, Hull-House undertook to secure a statutory enactment which should check this loss of most essential school years. The mistaken plea, that a child must be allowed to work if parents are in need, had no effect with those who knew the child's parents, home, and physique, and therefore knew that the child has no physical or moral stamina with which to withstand premature work, but must inevitably be drained for life of industrial value by it. The first factory act in Illinois, that of 1893, resulted in prohibiting employment of children under fourteen years of age in factory, workshop, and sweatshop. A resident of Hull-House was made chief factory inspector, and official data gathered under her su-

pervision was presented to the legislature in 1895, and again in 1897, until the child-labor provisions of the act of 1893 were extended to children employed in stores, offices, and laundries. Other provisions of this act were designed to mitigate the evils of sweatshop labor, of which there is a great deal about Hull-House, but a decision of the Illinois Supreme Court, that the hours of labor for women could not be fixed by law in this State, rendered these provisions practically void.

The labor organizations of Chicago warmly assisted in securing this legislation, and have acted with the House on many occasions. The arbitration law of Illinois was enacted as a result of an arbitration congress held in Chicago, in which

House has had a part was that for the establishment of free baths in the city, and the first one built was located a block north of the settlement. The neighborhood need of a public library station, with reading room, was demonstrated by opening one of the Hull-House buildings for use as a station. One large room, with heat and light, was given gratuitously for three years, after which the station was removed to an equally convenient point, one block west, and the library board assumed all expense. All the best forces of the ward have been engaged with Hull-House in a long battle to enforce the proper removal of the garbage of the ward. In 1893 Miss Addams made a bid for the contract for its removal, but her bid was not con-



THE MUSIC ROOM

representatives of employers and of workmen participated, and Miss Addams served as secretary. In the great railroad strike of 1894, Miss Addams was one of the citizens' committee which labored with Mr. Pullman in the vain endeavor to induce him to submit to arbitration the dispute in which the strike originated. The House was headquarters for the garment-workers strike in 1896, and is always open for trades union meetings. At the same time a free platform is offered for the discussion of all phases of the industrial question, and the lectures and debates held under the auspices of the settlement, upon a wide variety of economic and civic topics, have educative value and practical results.

Among civic movements in which Hull-

sidered. She then applied for the position of garbage inspector of the ward, and received the appointment. Later the work was done by another resident of the House, who, when the garbage inspectors were placed under civil service, passed first of the applicants who took the examination. She continued to serve until, early in 1898, the department of alley inspection was abolished, and the work was placed under newly created officials known as "ward foremen." For this position she again took the civil service examination, and became eligible for appointment. There were thirty-four appointments made, but the commissioner of public works passed her over on the ground of sex. Among the temporary defeats of the House in civic matters must be counted its failure to

prevent the reelection of an alderman of the ward against whom it has twice led an organized opposition. This is the more regretted by the residents because they cannot feel that defeat releases them from the unpleasant duty of renewing the attempt.

Several interesting and valuable investigations of an official character have been conducted from Hull-House. In 1892 there was an investigation of the sweating system, for the State Bureau of Labor Statistics. In 1893, when the Department of Labor at Washington conducted an investigation of "The Slums of Great Cities," the work in Chicago was directed by a resident. Three investigations have been conducted in the ward for the Department of Agriculture: one, in 1893, a general dietary investigation; one with special reference to the dietary of the Italian colony, in 1896-97; and one of milk sold in the ward, 1897-98. In 1896 an investigation of the saloons of the ward was made for the "Committee of Fifty on the Liquor Problem."

With all its growing ugliness, its loss of breathing spaces, its decaying houses, the neighborhood of Hull-House has not become "a slum," in the popular understanding of that term. Every crowded tenement-house section of a great city shelters its proportion of the vicious, has its ratio of startling and petty crimes, and the district about Hull-House is not an

exception. Yet it is, on the whole, a law-abiding, workingman's district, and not a refuge for the criminal classes. The men are mainly unskilled laborers; unable, for racial and other reasons, to organize to secure better wages and conditions of work. In industrial crises they are the first laid off, the last put to work, and they are always poorly paid. Day labor for the city and for railroad companies, peddling, and work at the sweated trades, are the unsatisfactory occupations followed by most of the people who live to the east of the House. Those to the west, with command of English and with better trades, are not so often in financial distress.

There is, however, much extreme poverty within visiting distance of Hull-House, and the question of the amount of relief work the settlement should do is a debatable one. If a settlement become a recognized centre for distribution of charity, it tends to drive away the sensitively self-respecting who have no need of that form of help, and who confuse the social and educational opportunities the House offers with its almsgiving. The Associated Charities of Chicago has its west-side bureau about one mile north of Hull-House, and a resident serves on its decision committee, while Miss Addams is on its executive committee. Another resident is filling a second term as member of the Commission of Public Charities

of Illinois, a body appointed by the governor and serving without compensation. During the great out-of-work emergency of January, 1897, food, fuel, clothing, and several thousand dollars in money were distributed from the House, but, as far as possible, all applications for relief are referred to the various organized charities. Yet a friend's need cannot be lightly passed along to any organization; to give financial aid to a neighbor is as natural as to give counsel; and the lending of a dollar should no more demoralize lender or borrower than the lending of a book or picture. On the whole, the administration of relief is



WOMEN'S CLUB ROOM



THE MANUAL TRAINING ROOM

one of the perplexing problems concerning which the settlement exercises the right to be inconsistent.

Educational and social matters interlock at Hull-House in the most natural way. Receptions to class members and their friends constitute a feature of each winter's entertainment; while every club has its literary programme, its lecture evening, as well as its entertainments. Club discipline is in itself educational to young people who make their own rules of government and choose their own officers; and, although a director meets with each club, the duty of the director is mainly to see that the club lives up to its own standard. A purely social evening may not be the club programme more than once in a month, but Hull-House exercises no more useful neighborhood function than this, that its doors are open for such wholesome pleasure, in a ward without other entertainment than those afforded by dance-hall, cheap theatre, and saloon.

A club which has given unflagging assistance in every undertaking of the settlement is the Hull-House Women's Club, which was organized in 1892, and has now one hundred and sixty members. The club programme consists of two afternoon lectures, one afternoon for papers by members, and one for entertaining, with music and refreshments. The guests on social day are usually women's clubs from other settlements, and the club sends delegates to the Cook County League of Women's Clubs, the Illinois Federation, and the General Federation of Women's Clubs. There

is a standing committee on vacation schools, another on enforcement of the compulsory school law, and special committees are frequently appointed to represent the club in civic and educational affairs. The members have given an autotype of Millet's "Knitting Shepherdess" to the nearest public school, have contributed to the vacation school fund, and kindred enterprises.

The children's clubs are directed by kindergarten teachers, and are devoted to story-telling and story-reading, sewing and embroidery, wood-carving and sloyd, and nature study, with kindergarten songs and games interspersed.

The evening classes are for adults, and are not intended to take the place of the evening public school. In the advanced classes German, Latin, French, and Italian are taught; algebra, geometry and trigonometry, psychology, anatomy, physiology and hygiene. There are two evening classes in drawing, and a painting class on Saturday afternoons. For young men and women who are acquiring their first knowledge of English, there are lessons four nights in the week, in reading, grammar, and letter-writing. Composition, theme-work, arithmetic, physical and political geography are other secondary classes. There are three class-terms of ten weeks each, and the students are afforded an opportunity to spend the summer months at Rockford (Ill.) College, the trustees of that institution placing it at the service of Hull-House Summer School every year.

The members of the advanced classes are teachers, bookkeepers, and others fairly-well employed, who seek, by special study, to lift their minds out of the daily routine of work. Those in the secondary classes are usually in their first struggle for maintenance, in this country at least. These often pass to the higher studies in time, and the records of the classes show some students who have attended regularly for eight or nine years. One young lady now teaching in the public school took her first lessons at Hull-House, not so many years ago, while working in a tailor's shop. A young man of the same trade has entered a university this year, having acquired all his education in this country at Hull-House, first in classes, and then by private tutoring given by one of the gentlemen in residence.

Physical development receives careful attention in the gymnastic classes, of which there are nine each week, in charge of a director who has resided in the settlement for six years. In the fall and winter dancing classes are taught on two evenings of the week, a golden opportunity for the inculcation of that knowledge of small courtesies the teaching of which under any other guise might be resented. In the technical classes there are five evenings' work in manual training: instruction in joinery, making of small articles, carving, and general cabinet work. Mechanical

drawing and design, clay modelling, Venetian ironwork, embroidery, millinery, dressmaking, plain sewing, and cooking are also taught. As an illustration of substantial good arising from opportunities here afforded, the story might be told of one young lad who has become proficient and self-supporting in this work. He found himself at sixteen years disabled by partial paralysis, with the prospect of being dependent for life upon parents in very poor circumstances. He took up tools for the first time in the manual training room, and in a few months was able to begin the sale of carved mirror frames and other well-executed handwork, at remunerative prices. From a despondent boy he has become a radiantly happy workman, with a joy in life and in his work that many a factory drudge of sound physique may well envy.

In addition to everything that can be classified, there are also the daily happenings which, in a settlement more than elsewhere perhaps, tend to the unexpected, and without which settlement life might become rigid. Some kindergarten children were playing in their own home a game which the mother did not understand. "That," they explained, "oh, that's playing Hull-House. How do we do it? Oh, we go to the door, and then we go to the telephone, and then we go to the door again. *That's Hull-House.*"



THE KINDERGARTEN

Indeed, the answering of doorbell and telephone, with all that these calls bring, is no unessential part of the daily life of the settlement. To act as interpreter for the non-English speaking man or woman who must converse with doctor, dentist, nurse, school-teacher, landlord; to use knowledge of hospitals and their rules for the distressed family where one has been stricken with illness; later to call up the hospital attendant daily and learn the patient's condition; to guarantee the bill of the funeral director, that the abhorred county burial may be spared the friends of the dead; to interpose between mortgage shark and shyster lawyer and their intended victim; to see that the ailing baby is no longer fed black coffee but gets sterilized milk, that nourishing broth goes to the old grandmother; to lend a patient ear to tales of woe of all imaginable sorts; to give counsel to the man who has been robbed of his wages, to the wife whose husband is drinking up the children's bread, to the mother whose boy or girl is going wrong, to the young man or woman restive under parental restraint; to sit for

a half hour with the chronic invalid whose family are too overworked and tired to remember how much the sick pine to know of the life of the outer world—these are unceasing rounds of daily duties.

Nor is this daily life all sombre. There are favors returned as well as bestowed, and the doorbell rings also for visitors who bring glad tidings. A mother comes with mingled smiles and tears to tell that her boy has been chosen, out of all his class, to be educated for the priesthood. The pretty Neapolitan young ladies call to say "How-do-you-do?" and thus show their mastery of English. The club girl who gave her friends so many anxious hours a few years ago, comes now a staid matron, boasting with innocent pride of husband and child. The letter carrier brings tidings from another State of the well-doing of the young man whose only salvation seemed to lie in that escape from Chicago which the House was able to effect. These rounds of daily pleasures are also unceasing.

ALZINA PARSONS STEVENS.

CHICAGO.

RUBBER-GATHERING

FEW articles are more indispensable to modern life than those into which India-rubber enters as a whole or a part. It touches us from the cradle to the grave, furnishing the nipple for the baby's nursing bottle and the water-bed for the sick man to die on. Intermediately scarcely a day goes by without its use in promoting our comfort or pleasure or in alleviating our necessities. Yet there are people not very old who remember when the substance was more of a curiosity than a useful commodity. In 1844 Charles Goodyear's French patent, and in the next year his United States' patent, for the vulcanization of the gum were issued, and it is since then that the innumerable industrial applications of India-rubber became practical.

At that time the familiar form in which the gum was known in this country was that of heavy ill-shaped overshoes. These were low shoes nearly a quarter of an inch thick and having pointed toes. They were of a leaden hue that turned to yellowish brown when the material was stretched, and consisted entirely of the

gum as it came off the rude moulds of the rubber-gatherers in the Pará province of Brazil. For the boys of that day an old Para overshoe, or even a part of one, was a delightful possession, for they used to cut it into a long strip to be wound tightly together for the core of a ball for the playground. A thick layer of woollen yarn, unravelled from a knit sock of the times, covered the rubber core, and the whole was encased in leather, or with twine sewed on by a chain stitch, and the lad whose ball would bounce highest was the envy of his comrades.

This use of rubber seems to have been that by which it became known to Europeans, for, although the product has an independent origin in Asia and Africa, it first attracted the attention of early Spanish explorers in America. The companions of Columbus on his second voyage observed that the Indians of Hispaniola played with a ball "made from the gum of a tree" which was "lighter and bounced better than the wind-balls of Castile."

It is worthy of note that one of the earliest industrial applications of the gum

made in Great Britain followed the example of the Mexicans, who were known in the seventeenth century to smear the milk of a tree upon their cloaks to render them waterproof. Mackintoshes, as they are still called abroad, began to be made at the close of the last century, but after the fabric was coated with a turpentine solution of caoutchouc, it was necessary to cover it with some flocculent fibre to overcome the stickiness of the vended product. Indeed, it was this stickiness that hindered goods manufactured of rubber from general use, until, seventy years ago, Good-year showed how this adhesiveness could be obviated by the use of nitric acid.

One of the earliest notices of rubber as a useful commercial article was by Dr. Joseph Priestley, when he was at Leeds, a quarter of a century before he immigrated to Pennsylvania. He found it for sale in half-inch cubes and recommended it as a good eraser of pencil marks, and it is from this early use of the gum that it obtained the name it still bears. What Priestley knew was the crude substance as it comes from Pará, but that undergoes many modifications in the modern processes of manufacture.

Caoutchouc is the name given to vegetable products having certain qualities of elasticity; insolubility in water, alcohol, and most acids and alkalies, and obtained from the inspissation of the milk of trees and creepers. It is a word received from Central American Indians, and, in its present large application, covers products from scores of trees and plants not related to each other, and not indigenous to the same continents. Rubber milk-plants, as known to commerce, are scattered over the whole tropic zone, and the best yielders belong to the great natural orders of Apocynaceæ (Dogbane), Asclepiadaceæ (Milkweed), Euphorbiaceæ (Spurges), and Urticaceæ (Nettles). The Lobeliaceæ have a rubber-bearing genus in Central America, and Africa possesses, besides trees, a number of creeping plants of large size, as the *Veheas* of Madagascar, the *Landolphia* and the *Willughbeias*. Of all these the Dogbane family supplies the rubber that comes from Pernambuco (*Hanicornia*) and the Rangoon rubber from the climbing *Urceola*; the Spurges furnish the Para (*Hevea*) and the Ceara (*Manihot*) rubbers; the Nettles the rubbers from Central America and the western slope of the Andes (*Castilleja elastica*), and those from

India and parts of Africa (*Ficus elastica*). The product of these plants, from all meridians of the earth, constitute the caoutchouc or rubber of the market.

The quality of the rubbers differs, probably chiefly from the methods of preparation, though this in turn depends on the rapidity and ease with which the milk may be coagulated. Pará rubber, which is the best and is collected all over the Amazon Valley, even along its remotest confluent, is converted from milk to gum the day it is gathered, by holding films of it, coated on moulds or paddles by dipping, over the smoke produced by certain palm nuts. There are those who think the smoke and the nuts are of no consequence in coagulating the gum, and that a gentle heat would accomplish the same result, were a method of applying it to be found in the dense and distant forests of the Amazon. It was in this way the Para shoes, already spoken of, as well as bottles and rudely shaped animals, were made fifty years ago in Brazil. The moulds were made of clay, and when the gum was sufficiently coated over them, the cores were broken by beating and washed out of the finished article. An improvement in shaping the overshoes was effected in 1825 by a Boston merchant, who sent American lasts to the rubber gatherers to be used as moulds, and eight years later a New Yorker sent boots to South America to have them coated with the *Hevea* gum.

In some instances the milk is allowed to dry and harden as it trickles down the bark from an incision; sometimes, as in Central America, it is poured over mats or received on leaves, and when firm enough, which is a matter of days, the sheet is stripped off. Not dissimilar was an old Mexican practice, in which the milk was smeared on some part of the body, where the natural heat of the person soon gave it consistency enough to permit the film to be peeled away. To this very day, in parts of Africa, the gum-gatherers wound one of their giant creepers and receive the exudation on their arms, whence they roll it off as soon it has due consistency.

Again, the milk is coagulated by the use of alum, of the juice of *Achete* (*Ipomæa*) or *Coasso* plants, of boiling water, as in Assam, and of salt in Borneo. But the use of saline solutions renders the commercial gum porous and wet. The addition of ammonia retards coagulation

until it is evaporated. Several causes impair the quality of the commercial rubber. Foremost among these is dirty and careless preparation. If incisions into a tree are too deep and penetrate the wood, the sap of the wood adds a resinous element that greatly deteriorates the product. Decomposition also injures the gum, but the time which passes from wounding the bark to fermentation varies with different plants. With the Pará tree decomposition begins in a day; with other plants it is delayed from one to two weeks. The best rubbers are produced from milk derived wholly from the bark, and which is coagulated and cured in the cleanliest and quickest way, with the least resort to chemical or other ingredients for separating the gum.

The milk of all rubber-yielding plants is found in what the botanists call the lactiferous vessels, or in veins netted together and lying in the middle layers of the bark. Between them and the wood of the stem is the cambium layer, which is the agency for forming wood-fibre on its inner and bark on its outer surface. If the cambium is left uninjured the growth of the tree is not impaired by tapping it, and the plant will yield during its whole natural life, though probably in gradually decreasing quantities. However, but little opportunity has been given to test this productiveness, for the gathering of gum is still carried on in a reckless and ruinous fashion. Here and there governments have interfered to preserve rubber-forests, to promote plantations, and to distribute seeds and cuttings, but as yet the results are hardly perceptible as affecting the market. The area is so scattered and vast, and is occupied by people so wild, that systematic methods have made little inroad on the industry. A few years ago the tribesmen of the Assam hills were hacking and felling the *Ficus elastica* in a way so injurious as to threaten its entire extirpation. They ruthlessly cut great and deep gashes into every accessible part of this noble tree, and were encouraged in their destructive work by the lessees of the forest, who were eager to get the largest product in the shortest time. To save the trees it became necessary for government officials to take control of the forests and establish plantations in them. But no important commercial result can be expected, because, while in its prime the *Ficus* will yield forty pounds of gum

every three years, the tree is not suitable for tapping until it is twenty-five years of age and upward.

In Borneo the climbing *Urceola*, a heavy yielder, is hacked into pieces two or three feet long and the milk drained from them, the flow being hastened by the application of heat. Nor is it uncommon in the Central American states for the collectors to lop down the stately *Castilloa* simply to incise the stem and branches as much as possible. From the numerous wounds the milk oozes out and drips upon broad leaves placed on the ground, or into shallow pits. The wantonness of these methods, though happily not universal, is the greater because no pains are taken to replace one plant with another.

Where more respect is paid to the future life of the tree much injury is done by making the incisions too deep and too frequent. If a cut enters the wood beneath the bark, the strength of the tree must go to repair the wound; and if the latter is very large or deep, decay is sure to set in before the injury is healed. As the *Castilloa* has a soft, spongy wood the mischief of deep cutting is irreparable. All rubber-trees suffer from this cause, for the scar that repairs the injury is full of contorted and indurated fibres that arrest the flow of the milk. The forests of the Amazon and Central America are full of rubber trees that, after a very few years of tapping, are so scarified that the gum-gatherers abandon them.

There are several methods of tapping employed. On the Amazon the Indian collector penetrates the overflowed land of the forests when the water has subsided and there builds his camp. Thence he goes to find his *Hevea* trees, a low-branching tree that attains a height of sixty feet. These do not grow in clumps, but are sporadically scattered. It is said that certain birds are fond of the fruit and devour it as soon as it falls, so that seedlings are unusual. Having chosen his ground, the collector slashes out a path through the dense undergrowth from tree to tree. Then, with a collection of clay cups, he goes the round, making two or three incisions on the stem of the tree as far up as he can reach, and under each gash he lutes on a cup with a moist kneaded clay. Again he makes the round and empties the cups, which will contain an average of a tablespoonful, into a gourd, for the milk does not flow long. He then

takes his gourd to camp to smoke and dry the contents. The next day the round is repeated, only new incisions are made a few inches below those of previous days, and the process is kept up until the base of the stem is reached. It is necessary that this work be done in the dry season, and in the morning early, before the rain falls, for water injures the milk.

Or the collector may smooth away a ring of bark around the tree and twist about the ring, in a sloping direction, a stem of some climber, in which the forest abounds. Then, with soft clay, he stops the interstices between the band and the bark, fastening his cup at the most depressed point. Incisions are now made above the band, and the exudations from them flow along the clay luting and drip into the cup.

Again, as in Ceara, where the Manihot, or Manicoba, somewhat resembles an apple tree in form and size, the collector brushes away the ground at the base of the plant and covers it with palm leaves. He then proceeds to strip off the outer layers of the bark of the tree to a height of five or six feet. The exudations trickle down the exposed surfaces and make their way to the leaves. After several days the hardened sap is stripped away and collected. In Central America a common process with the *Castilloa* is to make slanting incisions opposite each other for some distance up the stem, like the barbs on a feather, and to connect them with a groove, or wedge-shaped channel, at the bottom of which a spout is fixed to conduct the milk into a calabash or pail.

All these operations are conducted in a rude way with only a hatchet and the clay and plants furnished by the immediate forests. The collectors who are Indians, negroes, and half-breeds, are ill-paid and much defrauded. They work for some contractor or lessee who pays them in merchandise at exorbitant rates, especially in rum, and locates them in flimsy camps in remote forests far from the lines of travel. As the sole aim of these middlemen is to obtain as much gum as possible as soon as possible, they encourage the devastation of the forests. Through their methods they have made the Assam hills well nigh profitless working, driven the collectors from the once famous forests near Pará literally thousands of miles up the affluents of the Amazon, as the Madeira, the Negro, and the Purus rivers, while those

of Central America go year by year farther into the interior.

Of course the Amazon is the great source of rubber supply for the world, not only because the product is the best, but because the region is so uniform and immense. Here are thousands of miles of lowlands, covered with forests, intersected by wide and enormous rivers from the Atlantic to Peru, which overflow their banks for miles every year, and cut by thousands of interlacing navigable channels, so that every part is accessible by steamers and rude boats of considerable dimensions, though usually called canoes. In that vast basin rubber-gathering is the universal and exciting business, so that "all former agriculturalists have devoted themselves to the India-rubber extraction industry." The social effect is the same as was the discovery of gold in California or on the Yukon, and the rubber-traders are inveterate gamblers. The gum is collected at the several camps and in canoes floated down some *igariapé*, or back channel, or down the river to a steamboat landing. In the journey the original purchaser is likely to lose all his interest in the cargo on some game of chance, and on the steamboat, during its monotonous trip of days to Pará, a like fortune of cards may transfer the ownership several times.

Considering the ease with which rubber-plants may be propagated from seeds and cuttings, and their adaptation to a large variety of soils and climates, it is a matter of surprise that the supply of the gum is not better artificially provided for. The process of acclimation in India, with the exception of the Ceara, or Manihot tree, has not been very promising; but in its own habitat almost any caoutchouc yielder is readily cultivated. The Pará or Hevea tree loves lands subject to overflow, a rich alluvial soil, and a humid, shaded locality. If the birds eat up its seeds as fast as they ripen, cuttings or layers grow freely. In three years they will reach a height of thirty feet and a circumference of a foot, and then they will blossom. This is about half the dimensions of a full-grown tree, and soon after, tapping may be begun and continued for a score of years.

The Ceara or Manihot tree, which has given good results in transplanting, is allied to the manioc or cassava plant, from the roots of which tapioca, or the commercial farina of the Amazon, is made. It has nodules or tubers on its roots. It

grows on stony, sterile soil, well-removed from marshes or lowlands, and will thrive from sea level to an elevation of 3,000 feet. In less than two years a cutting will form a branching tree about thirty feet high, and in six years it is mature, and milk extracting may begin.

Pernambuco or *Hanicornia* rubber-trees have answered well to the stimulation of Brazilian interference. By distribution of seeds and the granting of subsidies, the cultivation of this tree has been widely extended, even to the interior of the state of Sao Paulo, which is in a latitude corresponding to Georgia. It is also called Mangabeira, and the fruit is edible, for which it has been widely cultivated. While not thriving on the coast, where the air is salt, it will grow at altitudes of from 3,000 to 5,000 feet, is hardy and attains a size and appearance of the weeping birch. The fruit resembles a yellow plum; the tree grows rapidly and yields well. Its cultivation is spreading rapidly from Ceara to the southern boundary of Brazil.

The *Castilloa* is the monarch of Central American forests, and it is also found on the Pacific slope of the Andes as far as Peru. It prefers the well-drained bank of some clear tropical stream, and a humid climate, where it will attain a height of from 160 to 180 feet, and a girth of more than twelve feet. The seeds are too soft for long transportation, but cuttings grow rapidly, and from them considerable plantations have been successfully established in Southern India. In Ceylon a tree has attained the height of twenty-three feet in two years. Tapping may begin in from five to seven years from the cutting. It is said that from a full-grown tree 150 pounds of rubber may be collected in a single season, though the operation ought not to be repeated every year. This superb and generous tree is allied to that bearing breadfruit, the gum of which the South-Sea islanders use for caulking their boats, and to the cow tree, which yields a sap taken by Brazilians as a beverage, and also a glue suitable for a joiner's use.

Superb creepers, like the *Urceola* of Malay lands and the African *Landolphia*, grow to the size of a man's body, and in two or three years are fit to tap. They will twine about any tree in a moist, secluded, and rocky place, gradually smothering the life out of their host, and cover-

ing its dead branches with alien verdure and blossoms.

Most remarkable of all the rubber-trees is the *Ficus elastica* of Asia and Africa, which, as its name implies, belongs to the fig family. Among its cousins are the notable banyan-tree and the sacred Bo or peepul-tree, under which Gautama Buddha rested and taught. It is one of the parasitical wonders of the vegetable world, although it may grow from a seed planted in the ground. In cultivation, a mound of rock and wood is made to receive the seed. It will take root in the fork of a tree, and thence send down aerial roots, which, on reaching the ground, ramify and spread through the soil. From this perch these roots descend in numbers like flying buttresses, until the host is enveloped and ultimately destroyed. One such tree was measured in Assam. It was at the time "112 feet high, the diameter of the crown measured 140 feet, the circumference of the central mass of aerial roots surrounding the stem was seventy feet, and it had over 100 aerial roots, the largest of which measured six feet in girth." Although this interesting tree is widely distributed over tropical Asia and Africa, its slow habit of growth lowers its importance for the purposes of economic cultivation.

The facts now narrated show the present state of the rubber-collecting industry and the possibilities of increasing the supply by organized and systematic culture. The ever-increasing and enormous demand for the gum and its high price in the market, have filled the forests of the whole tropical zone with wild natives, bent on their devastating work of rubber-gathering. The time has now come to reduce the business to a system of method and conservation by means of cultivation, and ere long rubber-plantations must become as common as those of the cocoa and coffee, or of the orange and banana. D. O. KELLOGG.

★

PROFESSOR DEAN C. WORCESTER, of the University of Michigan, who has just been appointed a member of the special commission to visit the Philippine Islands, is the author of an important book on "The Philippine Islands and Their People" (The Macmillan Co., New York). The work comprises the record of three years' wanderings and observations on the islands, and exhaustively discusses, at first hand, the natural features and economic resources of our new possessions. The book is attractively illustrated.

THE GERMAN ARMY AND ITS ORGANIZATION

THE German Kaiser's recent pilgrimage to Jerusalem has created a distinctly new sensation in Europe and set diplomats to thinking harder than ever. He travelled, in part, as the Sultan's guest, was greeted by him with gracious homage, and received from him the traditional site of the abode of the Virgin Mary, which he in turn has entrusted to the possession and protection of his Catholic subjects there.

The reasons why William II was the Sultan's guest may be set forth as follows: In the complicated game of international politics these two sovereigns are partners; Turkey's army is officered by German commanders; German capital has built and is operating Turkey's railways; Turkish bazaars are stocked with German wares and merchandise; and even the Turkish mail is ready to fall under German management. Why should not they be cronies? But the great "war lord" has deeper projects in Palestine than appear on the surface, and his visit to the Holy Land has a great political and commercial significance, more vital and far-reaching than "his professed and immediate object to be present at the consecration of the Lutheran Church of the Redeemer in the Holy City." Syria, in which, by the way, France occupies a dominant position, is being rapidly colonized by Germans, who now largely own and control its railroads. It is believed that the Emperor has been looking over this promising field for further occupancy. The possession of this land will be to him of incalculable importance in view of the probable construction of two enormous trunk lines of railway, one running southward from Cairo through Africa to the Cape;* the other from Constantinople eastward through Persia and India to Hong Kong. Branch lines connecting these two continental systems would meet at Jerusalem. Thus, Palestine, in the case of one of these two great highways, would become the strategic key of the world; the colossal enterprise would be a stepping-stone for Germany, as it would enable her to gain a strong commercial foothold in the Orient

and find a market for her steadily increasing manufactures. According to a prominent Russian official, "the centre of gravity of the Eastern question has shifted from Constantinople to Peking." The most formidable rival of Germany in the East to-day is England, because their aims are almost identical; and should Germany persist in an aggressive policy in China, it is more than likely that she will at no distant day be facing a coalition of four great Powers. A graphic writer has said: "With one sweep of the knife William II cut out a province comprising one of the richest portions of China, with its ten millions of people, and virtually annexed it to his own empire. Startled by the unexpected move, instantly the Russian bear put its huge paw down upon Manchuria and holds it as its share of the spoil. Next England thrust its powerful hand up through the great Yang-tse Valley and virtually seized China by the heart. Simultaneously, France experienced a fresh attack of 'earth hunger,' and became clamorous for a larger and richer slice in the southwest. Thus, where the carcass of China lies, thither are the eagles gathered together. The dismemberment is more cruel than the dissection of the dead, for China is undergoing a process of vivisection that cuts down through the throbbing artery and quivering nerves."

William has been more vilified than any man in Europe; he has been characterized as "a military *poseur*, itching for war." But the Powers are keeping a close eye on him, and are wondering what he will do next. It is pretty well understood, however, that, despite his impetuosity, the Kaiser possesses a clear head and a trained judgment. He is bound not only to be abreast of the times in which he lives, but to forestall events of the future that are certain to happen. And the pertinent questions here arise: Is Germany prepared for a protracted war? How is she at present constituted as to military strength? It is the purpose of this article to answer these questions.

Next to Russia, Germany expends annually more on her army than any other nation, and the military taxes are a tremendous drain on the people. In 1897 the expenditure for the army was \$119,768,500. There was a saving of \$1,093,000

*The Hon. Cecil Rhodes is in England now, endeavoring to obtain concessions and franchises from the British Government and the aid of English capitalists to construct this railway immediately.



Copyright, 1899, The Werner Company

THE GERMAN EMPEROR AND HIS STAFF

in the estimated expense of the army and of \$909,250 in the amount required for the public debt, which, less the sinking fund, according to the most recent available statistics, is \$77,577,719. These figures show that the German Government retrenched its army expenditures in 1897, previous to which year, for a considerable period, they had averaged \$145,000,000 annually. Yet even \$120,000,000 — in round numbers — makes a heavy burden for the nation to carry.

A well-known authority says: "Though Germany's wealth is by no means equal to her strength, nor to be compared with that of England or the United States or even France, yet so considerable have been the national savings, so relatively light is the burden of her public debt, and so elastic is her financial situation, that she may be described as fully prepared for even a protracted war. As the nucleus of a military chest, Germany has the so-called *kriegsschatz* or war treasure of \$30,000,000 lying in gold coin in the Julius Tower at Spandau. It is less generally known that there is another resource which is available in a national emergency. After the war of 1870-71 there was set apart a fund of some \$140,000,000 in high-class bonds, the interest of which has been used for the payment of military pensions. In case of need these bonds could easily be turned into ready money, while the pensions could be transferred to the budget charges. . . . There is, moreover, a net profit of more than \$16,000,000 a year from state domains, forests, mines, and iron and salt works. So, too, in the Bavarian budget of some \$82,000,000, there figures, on the credit side, a net income of \$15,000,000 from public property. The empire itself has property in the railways of Alsace-Lorraine which yields a net income of \$5,500,000, and also in the earnings of the imperial banks." Nine nations own over three-fourths of the world, of which Germany comes last, with an area of 1,228,900 square miles; but she is anxious to gain more territory, as we have intimated.

In his recently issued book on "Military Europe," General Miles speaks of having witnessed last year the autumn military manœuvres of the three great Continental Powers — France, Germany, and England. In Germany, General Miles saw 117,000 men engaged in three vast camps, — a body which was divided for practical work

into two great divisions, an invading and a defending army. On the last day of the manœuvres, the Emperor himself took direct command, in which his army of defence, of six army corps, was pitted against a force of supposed invaders of four army corps. It was interesting, we read, to watch the collisions between the two by reason of the use of smokeless powder. One of the most interesting spectacles was the charge by a force of 12,000 cavalry led by the Emperor. The General observes that he was much impressed with the excellent and thorough training of the German soldiers. The extensive use, for observation purposes, of military balloons, and of bicycle corps, were facts that arrested his attention.

Although the German army is, to some extent, undergoing reorganization, the military system of Germany will probably never be radically changed from what it is at present. It is a system whose complexities and peculiarities are little known to the majority of Americans, and the following particulars regarding it may not be amiss at this time.

Twenty-six dependencies, more specifically known as duchies, grand duchies, principalities, and kingdoms, and including Alsace-Lorraine and the old free cities of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, form the confederation of the German empire, placed under the sceptre of Prussia. Each of these dependencies furnishes its quota of troops. The population of the empire in December, 1895, was 52,279,901, out of which a large annual recruitment of conscripts is drawn. Inclusive of persons engaged in the general and local civil administration and on railroads, the necessary tillers of the soil, and others who would not be spared to the field except as a last resort, Germany claims a population of 12,000,000 who are capable of bearing arms. Great Britain claims the same number, while France has but 9,550,000. Of this class Russia can boast of 22,000,000, and yet, with all his military prowess, the Tsar would have the world believe that his remarkable proposition for the disarmament of the great nations was issued in good faith and the result of sincere conviction.

Throughout Germany military service is compulsory. No man able to bear arms, unless he succeeds in running away — to the United States, for instance — can escape two years' service in the active

army. He then has a leave of absence for five years, during which time he is called out for two trainings of eight weeks each. He then goes for five years in the first ban of the *landwehr* (militia), where he is called out annually for two trainings of two weeks each. He then passes into the second ban of the *landwehr*, where he serves for five years. The rest of his time is passed in the *landsturm* (levied forces), which admits all sound men, under the age of forty-five, who are not actively connected with the army, the *landwehr*, or the marine.

Every year the young men who attain the age in which they are available for military service are enrolled, in advance, in every European country. These ages run generally from 21 to 45, and this time is divided up by service; first, in the active army, which answers to our regular establishment; second, in the reserve to the active army; third, in the *landwehr*; fourth, in the *landsturm*, in which they are never called out except in time of war, and then only for the defence of the fatherland.

In Germany the liability to draft commences at the end of the seventeenth year and ends with the beginning of the forty-fifth year. It is termed *wehrpflicht*, and is divided into two classes—*dienstpflicht* and *landsturmpflicht*; or, as nearly as it may be translated, "service liability" and "landsturm liability."

There are annually about 360,000 able-bodied young men in Germany who reach their twentieth year, and of these the required number are drawn by lot for active service, etc. The registered number of young men for 1896 was 437,800; the number required to fill the annual contingent was 242,000. There were also in addition 9,400 one-year volunteers.

The peace strength of the regular army for 1897 was 22,687 officers and 562,207 men,* with 97,378 horses. As for the maritime population, it is exempt from these obligations, but in other ways it is directly affected by the marine service.

Usually a German makes his *début* as a soldier in his twentieth year, the incorporation of recruits taking place every year between the 5th and 10th of October. Each territorial division of the empire is

subject to the same military regulations, the army *en masse* being under the orders of the Emperor, to whom all soldiers give the oath of fidelity. Every seven years the Prussian Parliament fixes the number of the infantry force, the ratio of men held in active service being one in every one hundred of the population.

The German recruitment unceasingly increases in the ratio of the increase of births, so that each year the authorities in charge of the recruiting bureau, after eliminating those unfit for service by reason of physical or moral disabilities, still have a large number of young men to deal with. It should be said that these authorities perform their duties with a single eye to the welfare of the army, into whose ranks they are careful to admit only vigorous and well-formed men.

Not infrequently it happens that the time of admission of recruits is postponed, in consequence of which the young men convoked for the first time, or those in their first year of competition (those of 20 years of age), furnish only half of the annual levy. The other half, in nearly equal parts, is composed of young men of 21 and 22 years of age. This delay in the incorporation of men does not effect a corresponding diminution in the duration of their active service. Those who are incorporated between the ages of 21 and 23 are required to spend two years in active service. In the third year of the so-called competition many remain unenrolled, in addition to those whom it is impossible to enroll. But even this class are not altogether free from service. They compose what is known as the recruit-reserve, forming the following category:—

(1) Those recognized as good for service, but temporarily dispensed with on account of the high number of the tickets which, as recruits, they have drawn. It should be explained that in conformity to German military regulations each recruit must draw what would on this side be termed a lottery ticket. He is generally not admitted into the army until the series of which he holds one comes under consideration.

(2) Those well constituted, but excused from active service in consideration of certain family or professional conditions.

(3) Those expelled as temporarily unfit for service after the third year of competition.

(4) Those having some physical imperfection, but still qualified for service to a certain degree.

*The Kaiser lately made public his wish to add 27,000 additional men to the army. This doubtless will be accomplished by an enactment or vote of the Reichstag.

The annual incorporation of men from the recruit contingent is always in excess of the number determined upon for the budgetary effective, and in order to obviate this a certain number of soldiers, chosen from among those who have completed two years of service, are dismissed on a leave of absence for a term of five years, the latter being called "Congés of the Emperor."

As the recruit corps is maintained during the whole year, the men recognized as fit for active service, but who have not been incorporated on account of the high number of their lottery ticket, may be chosen up to the first of February succeeding the previous time of competition, to replace the losses occurring in the corps, not only among the postponed class, but even among the veteran soldiers. These constitute what is termed the complementary recruitment. After the first of February the vacancies occurring in the effective forces are filled by the men on furlough. Thus it will be seen that, by this rather intricate system, the Germans are enabled to maintain throughout each year the effective forces of the different provinces of the empire at a constant level, thereby rendering easier the method of military instruction and discipline. For the army of the first rank the reserve forces number 2,790,708 men, exclusive of the reserve troops belonging to the second rank.

According to budgetary requirements the recruit-reserve is summoned each year to four drills, lasting ten weeks for those in the first year of their service, four weeks for those serving the second year, and two weeks for those serving the third, fourth, and fifth years. Entirely new men are generally subjected to a drill lasting for six weeks. The recruits are allowed a vacation extending from the end of the autumn manoeuvres until the arrival of the new recruits.

In the distribution of the effectives the infantry comes first, then the cavalry and artillery; the additional service being reduced to a minimum. Where mobilization is not deemed essential the civil element, as far as possible, obtains. In time of peace the artillerymen and their retinue of assistants, pyrotechnists, and bridge engineers, have little or nothing to do. The service in the hospitals is performed principally by civil nurses. Though a division of military bakers is constantly employed, the rations are prepared almost

entirely by civil servants. Invalid under-officers usually assume the duties of staff secretaries. The firemen's corps is made up of civilians, except at Metz, where certain detachments of the troops are appointed for this service under command of a captain of pioneers.

Germany maintains seven schools of under-officers which gratuitously receive young men from 17 to 20 years of age, who, without pretensions to the epaulet, wish to dedicate their lives to military service. They remain three years at school, two of which are devoted to special studies, and they engage to serve in the active army for four years—reckoning from the day of their sortie. Every young man between 17 and 20 years of age, fit for service, of irreproachable character, possessing the requisite means to provide for his own wants, and proving himself capable of determinate instruction, may enter the army as a volunteer for one year. He is entitled to choose his regiment, but his choice is subject to the sanction of the chief of corps. Clothing, lodging, and boarding themselves, these volunteers appear only at barracks for duty. Arms and equipments are furnished them by the regulations for a nominal sum. The exclusive aim of these seven institutions is to supply officers and under-officers to the reserve, who in time of war are capable of assuming subsidiary command. But these young men are not counted in the number represented as the effective force of the German army.

At the end of the year each volunteer receives a certificate detailing the duties he is able to perform. Any volunteer to whom no certificate is given is registered as a "reserve unranked." After their liberation those designated as competent to be officers of the reserve fulfil a supplementary period of service of eight weeks. During the first four they serve as under-officers; during the last four they perform officer's duties and live with the officers of the regiment. They do not receive their brevet until they are accepted by the officers of the regiment they desire to enter.

In a subsequent article we will proceed to consider the ORGANIZATION OF THE ARMY, taking as a proper authority on the facts here presented, the distinguished military writer, Lieutenant Dally.

LEON MEAD.

THE FATE OF THE AMERICAN FARMER

THAT the American farmer should be the object of no small degree of solicitude on the part of the student of political economy is not at all strange when we consider his place in the great scheme of supply and demand. It cannot be denied, when it comes to the question of caring for the needs of the world, that those who are occupied in agricultural pursuits in the United States hold a position not attained by farmers in any other country.

This vantage-ground has been won by the American farmer in consequence of the fact that he not only feeds the people of his own nation, but contributes very materially toward the support of the people of other countries. One needs only to read the eloquent story told from time to time by the bureau of statistics to know just what our farmer is doing. In addition to supplying the wants of our own seventy-odd million of inhabitants, he sent abroad in the twelve months ending December 31, 1897, in breadstuffs, \$252,536,188 worth. In horses, cattle, and mules his fields turned off in the same period \$45,816,411 worth. In cotton he exported 7,457,367 bales, valued at \$225,798,143; while the dairy and other farm products exported in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1898, amounted to \$154,454,074.

These are large figures. We need to do more than simply read them over lightly to understand just what they mean.

But it is not alone in the work of his hands that the peculiarly important position occupied by the farmer is shown. With the farmer lies the political and moral destiny of this Republic. The elections of the various States, and of the nation itself, are determined by the rural voters of the country. Will this fountain of the nation's morals continue to be pure? The condition of the spring determines the sweetness of the water below. Hence, it may well be a matter for careful thought whether the farmer is to retain his relative importance among the nations of the earth, or whether his star is already beginning to grow dim, with the prospect that it may finally cease to shine altogether.

Certain exceedingly significant facts present themselves at the outset in the consideration of this question. Foremost

among these is the truth that our cities are constantly reaching out after and taking to themselves vast numbers of men from the country. We have to face the fact that while the city population of this country increased, in the census period ending with 1890, sixty-one per cent, the country showed a gain of only fourteen per cent. Not only this. In many instances there was an actual loss on the part of the rural population. The country did not hold its own numerically. More people died and moved away than were born into, or otherwise added to, the population. Following this a little further we find that while at the beginning of the present century the percentage of rural population to urban population was ninety-six to four, in 1890 it was only seventy-one to twenty-nine. There has been a steady decline from decade to decade, amounting, in the ten years from 1880 to 1890, in 25,746 townships, to 10,063 inhabitants. These figures leave no room for doubt that we are becoming more and more a people which delights to dwell in cities. And this is not altogether strange when we reflect upon the fact that man is by nature a social being, and that in the city he finds means to gratify his desire in this respect. In the city the current of life runs more swiftly. Here it is easier to keep in touch with the great world of thought. Here the isolation which was so marked a characteristic of our country in its early days entirely vanishes, and men come more and more into close and vital relationship one with another.

With these great facts as a groundwork for their reasoning, some have gone on to draw a picture of what will be the final result of this tendency on the part of the people to drift into the cities; and quite forbidding indeed is that picture. These students conclude that just in proportion to the loss in rural population will be the deterioration morally and intellectually of the country. They try to show that because some men move away to the city, those who are left will constitute a class which will not interest itself in schools, churches, or politics. They hold that as fast as population falls off in the country property will depreciate in value, poverty will increase, and, finally, that there will be a swift tendency downward physically,

socially, and morally. A dismal outlook, surely; but is it warranted?

Statistics furnished by mortuary and insurance tables prove that as a whole our people are not physically degenerating. Men live longer than they used to do. It was remarked that in the time of the War of the Rebellion the proportion of wounded men who recovered was larger than in the European armies, and we cannot pass by unnoticed the fact just brought to light by the Spanish-American War that comparatively few fatalities resulted from wounds or injuries received in battle. The power to withstand even the modern implements of warfare is very remarkable. This may, of course, be due in part to greater skill on the part of the surgeons who have had the care of our wounded; but we know beyond dispute that we are more than holding our own physically. As the death rate per thousand for the cities of the United States is not far from twenty-three, while that for the country is a little less than fifteen, we are warranted in concluding that from the standpoint of physique the farmer has the advantage of his urban neighbor; and from this we shall make the deduction that the country is not deteriorating morally. A sound body indicates a sound mind. The man or the nation that maintains a high moral standard will be able to cope with disease or accident with far better chances for success than one that holds lax ideas of religion.

Never was there a time when the church and schoolhouse were nearer to the farmer than now. These powerful agencies for good are pushing year by year farther and farther into the territory which was once given over to evil. Never were a greater proportion of our young people actively engaged in school and allied work. The Secretary of the Interior points out in his recently published report that sixteen and a quarter million of the rising generation are now at school. Of these, one million are in the academies, the colleges, and the universities. He also shows that in the last quarter of a century the number attending college has doubled, and the number following the highest courses of original research has been multiplied by twenty-five. The farmer is contributing his full share to this splendid result. While it is true that for a time we have seen a falling off in the membership and finances of the rural church, a

decided reaction has set in. Under its friendly impetus, the wealth of the city is flowing back to supplement the newly awakened efforts of those who attend the weak country churches. The missionary and the schoolmaster go hand in hand into the most secluded mountain districts of the South and the West. And although it is true that no census can accurately determine the relative moral strength of the rural population, we do know that the home of good morals is unquestionably in the country. Here the family relation is purest and most helpful. Here men have more time to study and to think. Here men live with their ear very close to nature and to nature's God. There is the best of reasons for believing that this will continue to be true through all time.

It has been held that the vast influx of people from foreign lands will ultimately be the cause of our downfall, morally and politically. Those who hold this opinion say that the immigrants who find their way to our shores are as a body ignorant, not only of the language of our country, but also of that of the land of their birth; that they know nothing about the civil or political institutions of our nation, and care less; that whatever ideas they bring with them are so absolutely incompatible with those which actuate Americans that it is only a question of time when we shall be swept away by the tide of anarchy and socialism which is rising in our republic. This is the gloomy foreboding we are led to contemplate.

Those who advance such theories as this forget the marvellous power of assimilation which has always been manifested by this country. From the beginning we have had to deal with peoples more heterogeneous than have vexed any other nation. They have come from the uttermost parts of the earth and taken up their abode with us, for the most part locating in the rural districts. Here they have lived side by side with us and with each other. We have seen them come empty-handed, unable to speak a word of our language, and wholly unacquainted with our laws and customs. We have watched them as they settled upon the lands so equally acquired in this great western republic and set themselves about the task of carving out homes for their families. Step by step they have advanced until they have lost their identity, swallowed up in the grand flood of American citizen-

ship. The State has felt no jar, either from their coming or from the process of amalgamation. The men who came a quarter of a century ago are to-day the farmers, the mechanics, and the professional men. They are honored and respected as citizens. We trust them, because they have proven themselves worthy of our confidence. They have put away the crude notions which they at first entertained, and now, recognizing the fact that their interests are identical with ours, they admit that our government is grounded on the very bedrock of sound principle. Not unmindful of the privileges which our country offers to all men alike, they have accepted the terms laid upon them, of steadfast allegiance to our republican form of government, and have entered with pride upon the work of maintaining the doctrines so dear to every true American heart. What is true of these men will be true of those coming now. The process of amalgamation will go on. We have no way of forecasting the future save by the light of the past; and experience shows that as the nations of the old world give up their citizens one after another, they will come here to adopt our manners and our customs.

Sometimes we speak of life in the country as lonely, and calculated to make men self-absorbed and narrow-minded. It is true that the love of aggregation is strong in the hearts of men, driving them to seek companionship somewhere. It is true also that the isolation which once marked the life of our rural communities is fast disappearing. The time when it was a day's journey from neighbor to neighbor has long gone by, even in localities farthest remote from the centres of civilization. We no longer go to mill with a little grist of corn thrown over the back of a horse. The stage coach has made its last trip as a means of reaching distant parts of the country. If the country is crowding into the city, the city is also pushing its way out into the country. Steam and electric railways send out a vast shuttle-system threading the valleys and bringing urban and rural people into more intimate relationship than ever before. This is having its effect for the better upon the rural communities. It is easy now to ship the products of the farms into the city market. Better prices rule in consequence of rapid transit. Our children attend the city schools, returning at night. Busi-

ness men go far out into the country to make their homes, preferring its quiet, after the cares of the day are over, to the distracting thunder of the city.

Laws are being enacted by the States for the improvement of the public highways. Our country roads show a marked improvement over those of any other period of our history. The national government is interesting itself more and more in the problem of good roads; and it is fair to presume that the time is not far in the future when the great country thoroughfares of our nation will compare favorably with those of any other part of the world. The central government is also earnestly considering other questions which immediately concern the farmer. Great progress has been made in recent years in this respect. Through the active interest of the Secretary of Agriculture, our farm products have reached a standing they have not previously enjoyed in the markets of the old world.

The Post Office Department is also constantly trying to devise means to facilitate early delivery of the mails to the outlying districts. As the department becomes more nearly self-sustaining, the postal deliveries are made more and more frequent; new routes are established and old ones expedited, so that we have the mails almost at our very doors. The daily paper lies upon the table of the farmer almost as soon as it does upon the desk of the city subscriber. Into almost every household the latest periodicals now find their way immediately after publication. The farmer is no whit behind his city neighbor in the enjoyment of these privileges. They are perhaps turned by him to greater profit than they can be by the city resident.

Machinery lightens the labor of the farmer to a greater and greater extent with the passing of every year. He is now "the gentleman farmer" in a sense not possible at any period in the past. New and scientific methods enable him to produce larger results than were known previously. The cost of production has been reduced so that he is able to compete with the poorly paid labor of the world. Farming is being reduced to an art. It is no longer looked upon as a life of drudgery, but as an employment to which the most highly favored may well aspire. Many of our most wealthy and cultured citizens are proud to say that they are the

owners of farms which receive their constant attention, and which afford them no slight degree of happiness.

The home of the American farmer is becoming more and more comfortable. The log cabin is fast losing its picturesque place in America. In its stead, is rising the convenient modern house, furnished with the latest improved methods of heating and sanitary arrangements. In the near future the electric wire will furnish light for the farmer's home and power for driving his stationary machinery. This is already an accomplished fact in some of the older parts of the country.

It is also an encouraging fact that while in the cities of this country, numbering 100,000 or more, only twenty-three per cent. of the families own their homes, in the country sixty-six per cent. lie down to rest every night under their own roof-tree.

In the face of these statements, which are well reinforced by facts, why should

the fate of the American farmer be a matter for speculation? If his star is to fade into darkness, the cause of its eclipse has not yet made its appearance above the horizon. While no mortal eye can accurately foresee, and no finite mind can unmistakably prophecy, what the destiny of a nation or of any part of it will be, we are just as safe in saying that the farmer will continue to hold the high place he has thus far occupied in America as that the manufacturer, the tradesman, or the lawyer will. The chances are, as a matter of fact, that he will more than retain his place, and that long after the city inhabitant has become the weak and effeminate person thoughtful men are inclined to think he is destined to be, the American farmer will be a very bulwark of strength, not only to his own immediate locality, but to the nation itself.

EDGAR L. VINCENT.

MAINE, N. Y.

THE CULTIVATION OF LITERARY STYLE

STYLE is the manner of writing. As no two individuals are alike in mental constitution, style must be characterized by individuality. There must also be nationality in style. In general, the French, for instance, is distinguished by vivacity, lucidity, brilliancy; the German by profundity, obscurity, stolidity. There is a sense in which style is no more susceptible of cultivation than stature. Indeed, an improper method of rhetorical training may produce an artificial style, differing as much from the natural style as artificial manners differ from the true expression of nobility. But there is another sense in which writing may as readily be cultivated as any other art. A good literary composition, like a good painting or a good musical composition, has certain distinguishing qualities. The artist may learn to appreciate those qualities and, by faithful practice wisely directed, may conform his own work toward the ideal standard without losing his individuality.

The first and most important quality of style is clearness. If one have something to say that is worth saying he should say it. He should say it not merely so that the reader may, but that he must, understand. Now, the first requirement for clear writing is clear thinking; for no one

can make another understand what he does not understand himself. Hence, careful writing is a means of cultivating careful thinking. But one may have a very clear idea of what he wants to say and yet be unable to say it well: command of language is necessary.

Samuel Johnson says that "he who would cultivate a good English style must give his days and nights to Addison." Addison's essays are undoubtedly worthy of careful study; but there is perhaps no better model of clearness than Bacon's essays. Compare the essay "On Studies" with one of those learned disquisitions to be found in any educational journal or heard on College Commencement Day. No effort is needed to understand Bacon — except perhaps where the meaning of words has changed. He does not try to impress the reader with the profundity of his wisdom or his command of fine language. He has something important to say, and he is careful that he shall not be misunderstood. Words may be used to conceal thought as well as to express it. Herbert Spencer, in his work on "The Philosophy of Style," shows that the more energy is required to get the writer's meaning from his words, the less will be left for the thought, and that the writer

should, therefore, aim to economize the reader's energy by making the expression as transparent as possible. Freeman, the historian, acknowledged that Macaulay taught him how to write clearly. He advises everyone to learn to write such a style as Macaulay would have approved.

Nice discrimination in the choice of words is a mark of good writing. Perhaps no two words in the language convey exactly the same meaning. A careful writer will wait long for an inspiration which shall give him the word or phrase which seems to elude his search. This high standard of excellence is one of the distinguishing characteristics of the true artist. A proverb has been defined as "the wisdom of many and the wit of one." It is a happy expression of the thought that gives it its peculiar value and its permanency. Thought is the jewel, but style is the setting that makes it available.

In ordinary reading the object is to get the writer's thought. In reading for the purpose of improving one's style, the chief aim should be to appreciate the expression of the thought. An excellent exercise is to read a paragraph carefully, express the same thought, and then compare the writing critically with the original.

Indignation—indeed all strong feeling—is always expressed in as clear and forcible language as the speaker or writer is capable of. The writer who is in earnest will, other things being equal, be less likely to obscure his meaning than one who has no object beyond writing a given number of words. The practice of writing long compositions on subjects in which one has little or no interest is decidedly objectionable.

The liability of saying what one does not mean must be constantly kept in mind. The danger of being misunderstood, even when one says clearly what he does mean, must also be recognized.

Herbert Spencer points out in his work on "Education" that in all ages adornment has been more highly esteemed than utility. The savage is more anxious to have feathers and paint than a blanket to protect him from the cold. For the same reason the ordinary elocutionist uses too many gestures and the ordinary writer too much elaboration. The editor of a well-known college journal announces that his paper is "the recipient of a sub-

scription from Mrs. L." He would naturally have said, "received a subscription"; but he was anxious to write "fine English." The writer's object was not to say that his paper was a journal or a recipient, or anything else, but to tell his readers that he had received a subscription. Neither long words nor "glittering generalities" can take the place of thought appropriately expressed. The purpose of writing is not to convey words but thoughts. Over-worded writing is like over-colored painting. Whatever is worth saying is worth saying briefly.

Grace is the quality of style which makes it pleasing. Many compositions are read chiefly on account of the beauties of their style. Addison's "Vision of Mirza" and "Sir Roger de Coverley," and Irving's "Westminster Abbey" and "Sorrow for the Dead," are among the best models of grace in the language. The two shorter essays should be memorized, so that they may make a lasting impression on the mind. The student of style must learn to admire the beautiful in composition in order that the taste, thus cultivated, may influence his own writing. This does not mean that one should try to write exactly as Addison or Irving wrote. The tendency to mere copying can be avoided by using several models, by regular practice in writing, and by constantly watching for defects to be avoided. Blair, in his work on Rhetoric, makes a critical analysis of one of Addison's best-known essays. A similar analysis, showing that Addison's writing is by no means perfect, may be found in Richard Grant White's "Words and Their Uses."

Force makes writing effective. To write forcibly one must be in earnest. Lord Macaulay's writing is perhaps the most forcible in the language. The reader of those brilliant essays is never left in doubt as to the writer's meaning. Every sentence is a thunderbolt. Read his essay on "The Royal Society of Literature." Would it not be useless to say a word in reply to that withering criticism? Macaulay's style is deficient in grace and variety, but it is none the less valuable as a model of clearness and force.

The practice of argumentative composition tends to cultivate forceful writing. Competition, similar to that of the ordinary debating contest, is a desirable

condition. It is well for the writer to keep the object, conviction, constantly before him.

"Unity in variety" is an essential characteristic of good writing. As in the architect's plan, every line should have its place in the formation of the perfect whole. Without diverting the reader's attention from the thought to the plan, it should proceed systematically from "firstly" to "lastly." Perhaps Macaulay's Essays furnish as good models of unity as can be found.

It is often asserted that "all a rhetorician's rules teach nothing but to name his tools," and that the only way to learn to write is by writing. A complete set of rules for painting would not make a painter; nor would practice alone produce the best results. In the teaching of all the arts much harm is no doubt often done by destroying individuality and by cultivating an unnatural style. Yet no one can afford to rediscover entirely the principles of an art, nor to learn by costly experience what may readily be learned from a master of the art. A good style is to be acquired neither by giving one's days and nights to the study of theoretical rhetoric, nor by unceasing practice; both should be judiciously combined, if possible, under the guidance of a master of the science and art of writing. But let us hear what some of our most successful writers say about this:—

Philip G. Hamerton, the well-known writer and artist, remarks that "Good writing is as much a fine art as painting or musical composition. I would not recommend anyone to try for style by imitation of some great master; neither would I advise him to strive in a conscious manner to be original. He should seek to express himself clearly, without affectation of any kind, and then pay attention to the sound, to the music of the language, which is part of every style, even when it seems quite artless."

Professor Huxley states that "The business of a young writer is not to ape Addison or Defoe, but to make his style himself as they made their styles themselves. They were great writers, in the first place, because, by dint of learning and thinking, they had acquired clear and vivid conceptions about one or other of the many aspects of men and things. In the second place, because they took infinite pains to embody these conceptions in language ex-

actly adapted to convey them to other minds. In the third place, because they possessed that purely artistic sense of rhythm and proportion which enabled them to add grace to force, and, while loyal to truth, made exactness subservient to beauty. If there is any merit in my English now it is due to the fact that I have by degrees become awake to the importance of the three conditions of good writing which I have mentioned."

Edward Eggleston says: "I read Blair's Rhetoric and Kramer on Criticism, but the good I got from these books was not in their rules, but in the habit of analyzing my own sentences, and of criticising my own style. It is generally forgotten by students that clear thinking is back of all clear expression. As I grow older I work more and more patiently upon the details of expression."

Oliver Wendell Holmes admits that he never learned how to write by training. "I think I learned how not to write," he remarks, "from the teaching of Professor Channing. You will find it a safe rule never to write except when you have something worth saying, and then say it simply."

Style is not to be cultivated for its own sake; it is not an end but a means. In all writing the essential object should be the effective conveyance of thought. As the painter and the musician must devote much time to study and practice before seeking public attention, so must the literary artist give years to preparation before he can expect a hearing. But even if it should ultimately appear that he has no special talent for writing—or rather that he has no special message to convey to the public or to any class—his labor will by no means have been lost. "Writing," observes Lord Bacon, "maketh an exact man." The practice of literary composition is one of the best means of mental development. One may talk much without saying anything; but to write one must think and must be prepared to meet criticism. Nevertheless it is advisable for the young writer to have some of his work published early; for this will give him a new point of view and stimulate him to greater effort. But whether one is to write for publication or not, the cultivation of a good style is important; for everyone must write, whether well or ill.

THOMAS J. ALLEN.

AURORA COLLEGE, ILL.

WRITING AS A MEANS OF IMPROVEMENT

WRITING is thought of chiefly as a means of conveying thought. The important fact that it is one of the greatest means of improvement to the writer himself is not so much realized. We need to understand it better. Of course a writer may be actuated by bad motives, and therefore not be morally improved by his writing, however much he may increase his skill in construction. But what I wish to consider now is the writing from good motives.

In many cases persons who are at the present time honored with wide circulation of their writings have won the attention of editors and of the public only through a long course of careful writing, a great part of which was without the reward and satisfaction of editorial recognition. And it is safe to say that every such person knows that his success is attributable largely to the improvement of his own powers by the persistent and courageous efforts expended upon writings which, contrary to his hopes, were destined to be buried almost as soon and as quietly as they were born. As they were in earnest, and had good motives, every production of their pens had in it something that was worthy to live, in some form, and which only waited to have, at a later time, a new and presentable embodiment, the first body being forever dissolved.

But one's success in writing, so far as self-improvement is concerned, cannot properly be measured by the attention received from editors or from the public. One may get as much benefit from something written for only one person to read, or even without the intention that anyone shall read it, as from work that is widely published. A motive in writing is, admittedly, a proper stimulant. It may be that nothing else is equal to writing as a means of communing with one's self, or as a help in study of some kinds.

Perhaps our most useful knowledge is that of our own qualities and powers. What better way is there for one to examine the workings of his own mind than to exercise himself privately in giving visible expression to his thoughts? What purer or more satisfying joys are there than those of feeling and seeing harmonious action of our faculties developing mental impressions, and choosing for

them the forms of accurate, forceful, and pleasant diction? What nobler work is there than constructing a form of expression that fits, and pictures clearly, a valuable thought—working in words, and moulding them into forms of use and beauty? One does not know, and cannot conceive, all that may be developed within himself by such exercise of the mind.

It is not merely a matter of expressing what already lies clearly defined in the mind. Many ideas are developed out of dim consciousness, and many inventions and discoveries are brought to light after beginning the composition. To choose a subject and set out to write about it, is to enter upon a course of inquiry, of study, of discovery, of development, of invention. At every step something new is presented; and every acquisition affords additional means for further pursuit and investigation.

Keeping the subject in view, and holding a steady aim, serves to bring things into line, to cause comparison, classification, combination, of things naturally related to each other, and discernment, division, and separation of incongruous or discordant elements. The analytical and constructive powers of the mind have in such activity their most strengthening and developing exercise.

To understand words and their proper uses is to be acquainted with their sources in human feeling. To use words skilfully and successfully is to bring them into the proper relations, to effectuate good impulses by plain and forcible representation. Such use of language must bring great reward to the writer, in the consciousness of growing power.

They who are moved to strong feeling yearn for suitable expression. But they cannot have facility of expression without practice. Conversation is an important aid toward such facility, but writing is often more so, as in writing one is at liberty to expend more time and effort in choosing suitable words, and in the arrangement of phrases and sentences; while one is free from disturbances that prevent concentration of the mind.

Written language is a social invention, and a consequence of that other social invention, spoken language. Both came into existence to meet the demand for

communication, a demand which would not have existed if there were no society, even though separate individuals existed. It follows that, so far as mental development is due to language, it is a result of social relations. How far could mental development proceed without language? How far could it proceed without the art of writing? In writing we make use of one of the greatest helps to mental culture, a means supplied by our relations with society, and by the use of which each one may increase both his own mental property and the common possessions of the community.

It is understood that the intellectual advancement of a community is measured by its proficiency in the use of language. Can we not properly apply the same gauge to the advancement of each person? Is not the intellectual development of a person usually in proportion to his power to use language, in his thinking, at least, if not in communicating with others?

Epistolary writing, like ordinary conversation, is usually desultory, and lacks the rigid discipline of the composition that is steadily directed toward the presentation of one definite subject. Writing of the latter sort is therefore much more beneficial in some respects than letter-writing. But one cannot write letters carefully and conscientiously without deriving much benefit therefrom. Such writing probably has some advantages over all other kinds of literary composition.

It is to be observed that care is necessary to improvement in writing, as in all other kinds of effort. Those who improve are those who really desire to improve, and are willing to take pains. Very much hasty and careless writing is done. Those who habitually write in this way do not regard writing as a fine art, and have not

a proper conception of the dignity of the art, or of its important reflex upon their own characters. Can such persons be expected to improve much by it? Those who reach the highest success in this art take a profound interest in it, and regard it as not inferior in dignity and usefulness to any other. To such artists we are indebted for the masterpieces of literature, the works into which are wrought the best of human life, and which are cherished as the best of silent companions. In these are stored the literary honey that was busily gathered from innumerable blooms in garden and field and wilderness, and carefully deposited in the clean cells of delicate composition.

But our improvement by writing does not depend upon a prospect or hope of attaining distinction as artists. Immeasurable good is accomplished by the humble efforts of people who do not think of calling themselves artists. One of the best uses of writing is for private study of important subjects upon which we desire to fix our attention, and to become well informed. The good attained in this way is not to be estimated by the fitness of the writing for publication. In studying the various problems of life one must have many thoughts that are not suitable to present to others. It is only after a process of refinement and adaptation that one's thoughts are in suitable form for communication. But we have important uses for our thoughts "in the rough," and for the written representations of them, formed with an obedient and unhesitating pencil or pen. Writing is not enough used for the purpose of study—for the purpose of forming ideas in our own minds, reasoning with ourselves, and cultivating our own powers.

B. F. COCHRAN.

OMAHA, NEB.

THE PHYSICAL BASIS OF LIFE

THAT there is a "physical basis of life," taken in a literal as well as a scientific sense, seems utterly absurd to the unscientific and very questionable to the scientist who still holds to the old monotheistic theory. But, the modern scientist, who has worked with the simplest forms of animals and plants, and discovered a unity between them, has little doubt that there is a physical basis of all life.

Before proceeding further let us see just what we mean by a "physical basis" of life. If we replace the word "physical" by the word "natural" our definition is complete. In other words, the "physical" basis is a natural basis in distinction from a supernatural. By this we do not mean to assert that there is not something above the natural concerned in life, but rather that the natural is merely a means through

which the supernatural acts. What we wish to say is, that there is one simple material through which the supernatural can alone act. This material is the physical basis of life and is called protoplasm. Indeed, the scientists have found that protoplasm is the one living material in nature; how else then can the "above natural" act so to give all animals, as well as plants, that one unexplainable thing, "life." The very fact that life arises in all cases from this seemingly inert mass, "protoplasm," is sufficient evidence that there is one controlling power acting through living material, which gives it the power it has.

All the endless diversities of this life, so the scientists have discovered, are bound by a common physical as well as an ideal or controlling Unity. How the controlling Unity acts for the blessing of mankind is above the natural, but there is all the more reason to believe that there is One who has the power of life and death over us, since the physical basis of life has both life and death. It is not my object, therefore, to discuss the controlling Unity, but the one common physical Unity of Life.

What truly can seem more seriously different in form, in structure, and in material composition than the various forms of plants and animals? However, that there are bonds uniting the two kingdoms and each individual of the same kingdom I will endeavor to show. What common faculty can one perceive in the homely toadstool of the forest and the scientist who seeks the specimen to make complete his collection of fungi? What common form can one perceive in the grayish, mineral-like substance growing on the old oaken bucket and the pretty maid who reaches over to take a refreshing drink therefrom?

Again, what common structure do we perceive in the oval-shaped microscopic animalculæ which multiplies by the millions in our own bodies and the beautiful rose which adorns the fair head of a second Venus? Finally, what hidden bond in substance or material composition can unite the dense resistant mass of the oak with the "glassy rubber" which waves with every billow of the sea? Indeed, what common substance may be found in any one of these which gives them the unity of faculty, the unity of form, and the unity of substantial composition?

The powers or faculties of all mankind

may be classified under but three heads, namely, maintenance of body, growth, and reproducing of kind. Feeding, growing, and reproducing of kind are therefore the essential activities of all animals as well as of all plants. The faculties are not substantially different in kind, but in degree, and no matter how much we generalize, we find it is the same.

The question might be asked to what class do the higher faculties belong, *viz.*, the intellect, will, and feeling? To that question I would say that had Aristotle sought the truths, the laws of the less complex sciences than logic and psychology, we would perhaps know more of these subtle powers which are developed to the greatest extent in mankind. However, recently these phenomena have been termed a form of human action and resolved into muscular movement. Whether they are some form of molecular movement or not, we are not able to say; neither can we prove that other living animals or even plants do not have the higher faculties.

The next question which concerns us is the matter of structure, which I have already illustrated by a generalized comparison between the moss of the bucket and the maid.

If we were to take a more simple plant, as the *Nitella*, we would perceive a constant circulation carried on back and forth throughout the whole organism; the circulation of each branch being carried on back and forth with the main plant and connected with it. Cannot this method of distribution of the protoplasm be compared with the circulation of blood in the veins of the maid? Is there not a constant breaking down and building up in the circulation of each? Surely we would not compare the outlines of *nitella* with that of the human being, but what we do wish to compare is the method of distributing living material. The structure of the human being is due to an extraordinary modification in the depositing of non-living matter by the living. We could not attempt to explain how this process is brought about, for then we would have to explain the whole theory of evolution. But the point to be emphasized is the fact that the "*modus operandi*" in lower animals and in plants is essentially the same as in higher animals, the only difference being that in the higher animals there has been a great modification in the cells, resulting in a division of labor.

Finally, the question which concerns us is the unity of substantial composition. If we were to study the lowest forms of plants and animals for the purpose of examining into the structure of the living matter, we would perhaps have a good specimen in the *amœba*. Studying the *amœba* under the microscope we find it to be a jelly-like mass, with no distinct ectoderm, but having a nucleus. As we see it move and thrust out its pseudopodia an interesting question arises in our minds. What property has this protoplasm, of which the *amœba* is made up, that it can move?

Does this extremely simple mass possess all the properties of the living material in much higher animals, or do the properties of living matter increase the higher we ascend the ladder? Is it a simple contraction and expansion of the jelly-like mass, due to the temperature or some physical disturbance in the surrounding water, that the *amœba* thrusts out its pseudopodia? Unfortunately we cannot answer this question, as we have not yet been able to explain life or death. We will, therefore, leave it to Him who has the power of life and death. But there is something more. If we were to examine some freshly drawn blood of an individual we would notice a very striking resemblance between the cells in it and the *amœba*. Indeed, the only living material in our body is the protoplasm, and this protoplasm comes from the blood. These protoplasmic cells are very similar to the individual *amœba*, though they are much more sensitive and can live only at the temperature of the body. But the most peculiar fact is that the embryo of nearly all the higher animals, including mankind, is but an aggregation of such corpuscles, and every organ of the body has arisen therefrom. What a peculiar relation exists, therefore, between the highest and lowest forms of animal life, and this all resulting in a differentiation in cells producing a division of labor.

What has been said of animals may also be said of plants, for they also have this same protoplasm, and what is much more important is that we get our protoplasm from them either directly or indirectly. Traced back to its earliest state, the plant, as the man, arises from a mass of nucleated protoplasm. But, in the plant, the protoplasm or living matter has an extraordinary chemical power, namely,

the building up of complex compounds from simple ones, while in the animal the protoplasm is all destructive. The plant takes the carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen from the air and earth and builds up complex substances, while the animal breaks them down into the simple elements again. In other words, the plant cannot take in solid food, but lives on that which man has cast from his body.

The question might be asked, since plant and animal have the same common source, how do we distinguish plant from animal in the lowest forms? To this question, the scientist would say that we have no definite means at hand to distinguish them. We have no distinguishing feature which holds good in every case, for there have been no links discovered between the animal and vegetable kingdom except in the lowest forms. We would say, therefore, that in the lowest forms in which there exists this physical basis of life, we have no distinction of plant and animal.

The physical basis of life or all living material is made by the plant. That it may get into the blood of man, either the plant or animal which lives upon the plant must be taken into the man's body. In the body of man, it seems to reach its highest development, for it builds and repairs all the vital organs of man and even the brain, which furnishes a basis of all reason. Thus we see that there is a natural basis of all life and that this basis is the same in form, in structure, and in faculty, the only difference being one of degree — and not of kind.

ROLLIN H. BURR.

WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY,
MIDDLETOWN, CONN.

★

THE Tsar's peace proposals, says a contemporary, are assuming a definite shape, and they show that whatever may come of the discussion about the suspension of armaments for a fixed term of years, the Tsar hopes to get an agreement on other points. He suggests, for example, that the Powers shall bind themselves not to adopt any more destructive weapons than they now possess. A Frenchman has invented a new submarine torpedo boat, and France will probably make haste to adopt this invention before she appears at the Peace Conference. The submarine boat is intended for use in daylight, and is a most formidable engine. But it is said that the Tsar proposes expressly to veto this very thing. If this be true, what will they say in France about Russian friendship?

BETWEEN THE COVERS OF THE "POSTAL GUIDE"*

THE fast-fading Indian leaves his most enduring mark upon history's pages through our American place-names. Now he is to be found only in scattered tribes and far-away reservations. Once he was ubiquitous. All over the land, from Maine's most eastern port to California's most westward limit, and from the Red River of the North to the Mexican boundary on the south, 6,000 Indian names commemorate the fact that he was once the sole possessor and conqueror. The names of his chiefs and of his tribes are forever fixed in memory. Indian traditions are perpetuated, and musical Indian words are incorporated into our tongue, a legacy of poetry and romance even in this practical age.

The names of Powhatan and Pocahontas stir again our pulses over the old, old story of Captain Smith's rescue from death by the dusky maiden who shielded his life at the threatened expense of her own. The names of treacherous Brant, revengeful Pontiac, brave Tecumseh, and unfortunate Osceola, bring back to us the memory of those fierce warriors who so desperately resisted step by step the encroachments of the invading pale-faces. The dreaded war chiefs, Black Hawk, Red Jacket, Red Cloud, and White Cloud, form not only a name-group of color, but an aggregation of rugged characters whose bravery was tinged by the lurid colors of treachery and fierce cruelty. It is a relief to turn from Chief, Warrior, and Brave, Warrior's Stand and Warrior's Mark, from Tomahawk and Spears, Bow and Arrow, to a more peaceful phase of the red man's character, and that is his happy vein of story-telling, and his quaint genius for description, realistic often, yet always and ever illumined by his quick imagination.

Every name the Indian gave meant something. He left to his pale-faced brother the absurdities of prefixing to 2,700 different towns and settlements the stale descriptive terms of East and West, North and South; he left to the white man the confusion of thirty-three Springfields in one Union, not a fifth of which were ever built in a field or by a spring; of Pinevilles without a pine, Oakdales without an oak, Weymouths and Plymouths

that are not at the mouths of the Wey, the Plym or any other river; of Mount Vernons twenty-five strong, many of them without even a hill to their credit, and of 1,100 New Havens, New Yorks, Newtowns, and New-everything-else, all of which have long since ceased to be new.

Not so with the Indian. He pitched his wigwam beside the stream. Through the curling waters the long, dark stones on the river's bed looked like otters at play, and forthwith the camping place received the name it bears to-day — Kalamazoo, "stones-like-otters" in the Indian tongue. Again, he saw on a river bank a pine tree wreathed in flames; for hours it threw its torchlike glare over the landscape, as would have beamed the glow of some council-fire fed by attendant warriors, and Potomac that region became, a literal translation of which is "the place of the burning pine, that resembles a council-fire." Poughkeepsie is "a safe harbor for small boats"; Norridgewock, "the place of deer"; Ontario, "the village on the mountain"; Saranac, "the river that flows under rock"; and Saratoga, "the place of the miraculous waters in a rock."

Similarly, Schenectady is "the river valley beyond the pine trees"; Schoharie is "the tributary that throws its waters strong over and across the main stream"; the Wabash is "a cloud blown forward by an equinoctial wind"; Monongahela is "the falling-in-bank river"; Rappahannock, "the river of quick-rising water"; and Toronto, "oak trees rising from the lake." Such words show a wondrous skill in the art of word-painting, and, much as we look down upon the aborigines, their expressive Indian tongue reflects their impressions with a vivid minuteness impossible to our boasted but cumbersome English.

There is no commonplace in Indian names. All of his terms are picturesque, because alive and full of meaning to him. A thousand examples could be given. Once, before the white man's day, a caving-in of a river bank revealed the huge fossil tusk of some prehistoric monster. At once the river received the name Chemung ("Big Horn"), and generations of squaws told to generations of papooses the traditions of the big bones and wide jaws that had once been found there. In 1675

*Continued from SELF CULTURE for January, 1899, Vol. VIII, No. 5, page 544.

a portion of Maine was visited by a most devastating fire. The Indians at once gave the region the name of Schoodic, "the great burnt lands," perpetuating forever the memory of the terrible disaster. Orinoco is "coiling snake," possibly a reference to the crooked course of the stream, but more probably marking the notable killing of some venomous reptile.

Sometimes it was the physical features that was name-reflected. Thus, Wetumpka is "tumbling water"; Sandusky, the "cold spring"; Katahdin, the "highest place"; Tioga, the "swift current"; Niagara, the "neck of water"; Nahant is "at the point"; Passumpsick is "much clear water"; and Chautauqua is "the foggy place." Sometimes the Indian's names reflected his superstitions. Thus, Manito is "spirit," Montauk is "a manito or spirit tree," and Minnewaukon means "the Devil's lake." Sometimes his names celebrate his hunting or fishing exploits. Mackinaw is an abbreviation of a longer word meaning "the great turtle place." Quinsigamond means "the fishing place for pickerel." There are several Ammons, which, as the government has a peculiar penchant for lopping off the terminative syllables of Indian words, may not unreasonably be taken to represent Ammonoosuc, an expressive Indian word meaning "fish-story river," a proof positive that the red man, as well as ourselves, was given to telling tall stories about his luck in fishing.

Even the Indian hates and hereditary feuds find expression in names. The members of a certain Indian tribe, despised for their peacefulness, were in contemptuous parlance Ottawas, "traders," while a fiercely fighting tribe were admirably termed Eries, or "wild-cats," by their enemies. Our Iowas are a corruption of a derisive word signifying "drowsy or sleepy ones," a term given by the warlike Sioux of the North to his quieter red brethren of the Plains. The scornful Iroquois called each Algonquin of the New York mountains an "Adirondack," signifying "he eats bark." The latter retorted by dubbing each Iroquois a "Mohawk," or "man-eater," a grim testimonial in its way to the fierce and relentless Iroquois character. The family of the Sioux, the famous fighters of the Northwest, divided as they were into eight great branches or sub-tribes, gave to themselves the comprehensive name of Dakotas, "allied together in friendly compact"; but their Indian

foemen called them by the bitter term of Sioux, "cut-throats." The impartial Postal Guide, with its seven Sioux place-names to but five Dakotas, bears testimony that the cruelty of this tribe sank more deeply into men's memories than did their undoubted valor.

The Indian was a born story-teller. Every lake and river, every rock and every plain had its story, its incident, its legend. The Indian gave ever those names that recalled these legends to his mind. If the Indian names of the United States were taken one by one, and the traditions connected with them collected from the fast-forgetting white inhabitants, a wealth of legend and romance would be secured. Such a compilation would be a most important contribution to folklore, and a treasure trove to poets and novelists for all ages. As the idler picks up some shining shell from a shell-strewn seashore, so we give a few of these Indian traditions:—

Winona, Minnesota, has a beautiful legend. Winona, "firstborn daughter," was the child of a stern warrior. He bade her marry one of the notable braves of his people. She loved another. Rather than marry the brave that she hated, she threw herself from the lovely cliff of the Maiden's Leap, that overlooks the point where the Mississippi's waters flow through Lake Pepin, and beneath the river's turbulent waters found the peace that was denied her on earth. Another Minnesota legend that of Minnehaha, recalls to most minds Longfellow's famous poem. He, however, took the usual poet's license in the matter. In the real legend Minnehaha, "laughing water," did not become the bride of Hiawatha, but was crossed in love. In her despair she sought the Falls of Minnehaha, after which she had been named. Here, where the rippling, laughing waters plunge in foaming cascade over a sheer precipice sixty feet high, she took the fatal leap. And thus,

"Minnehaha, Laughing Water,
Handsome of all the women
In the land of the Dakotas,"

with her

"Moods of shade and sunshine,
Eyes that smiled and frowned alternate,
Feet as rapid as the river,
Tresses flowing like the water,
And as musical a laughter,"

died to earth to live forever in song and story.

All Indian traditions are not sorrowful. Quite the reverse in many cases, as wit-

ness the story of the naming of Wakarusa, Kansas. Once a party of Indians on the trail were stopped in their progress by a swollen and angry looking stream. "Deep water! bad bottom!" grunted the braves, hesitating at the brink of the river, unwilling to turn back, doubting that they could cross. At length an Indian crept up behind his squaw, who was seated on a small Indian pony, and deliberately pushed pony, squaw, and all over the bank into the rapid, muddy current, meanwhile looking stoically on to see whether she would gain the opposite bank in safety, or drown before his eyes. The astonished and enraged squaw struck out for mid-stream, and lo! the waters had but spread over a shallow basin, and the danger had been but apparent, not real. Derisively the squaw rose in her stirrups and scornfully shrieked at her liege lord, who had been so willing to have been summarily rid of her: "Wakarusa! Wakarusa!" ("Thigh-deep! thigh-deep!"). And Wakarusa the region has remained until this day.

In the early settlement of Lagrange County, Indiana, the pioneers found an Indian village that was called Mongoquenon in the Pottawattomie Indian tongue. As usual, our postal authorities have shorn the word of its final syllables, leaving only Mongo to appear in the Guide's pages, but Mongoquenon, "the white squaw," it was at first, and by right ought to be now. An aunt of the writer once paid a visit to the village and asked to see the "white squaw." She was taken into an Indian wigwam, and there, seated upon a skin spread upon the ground, sat an old and wrinkled woman, her gray hair plaited in long braids down her back, her feet in moccasins, and her body clothed in Indian garments. An aged Pottawattomie was her husband, and half a dozen stalwart braves were her sons. But in spite of age, and in spite of exposure to wind and weather, the face that looked up to our aunt was all but as fair as her own, and the eyes were as blue as the summer skies.

Not a word of English did the white squaw know, not a thrill of fellow-feeling ran through her veins as she looked up at her pale-faced visitor. She was metamorphosed into an Indian, all but her fair skin and blue eyes that told of Anglo-Saxon parentage. In some border foray, but when, and where, and how, the inter-

preter did not know, her parents had been massacred and the infant saved. She had been brought up in the tribe, knew no other home, no other religion. The tribe seemed proud of the honor of having a "white squaw" in its midst, and she was treated with more than the usual consideration that the Indian squaw receives. A pathetic story condensed into one comprehensive word, Mongoquenon, or "white squaw."

Poor Lo! he has all but passed away. Teepee City, Squaw Valley, and Sachem's Head, show that he was once among us, as do also Indianola, and Indianapolis, Indian Bay, and Indian Bayou, Indian Bottom, Camp, and Creek, Indian Diggings, Falls, Gap, Gulch, and Head, Indian Mound, Neck, Ridge, and River, Indian Rock, Run, Springs, and Town, Indian Trail, and Indian Valley. He has left behind him his Kinnikinnick that he used to smoke, his Moccasin that he used to wear, Medicine Lodge that he used to visit, and the Wampum for which he bartered his pony or his beaver skins. He has left behind him also the Indian names of many familiar objects, though the memory of these meanings have all but been forgotten. Mondamin means corn; Wawa, wild goose; Opeechee, the robin; Dahinda, the frog; Roanoke, a seashell; Chicago, the wild onion; Omeeme, a pigeon; Wawbeek, a rock; etc.

The Indian has left behind him hundreds of musical alliterative names, in which the consonant or vowel sounds are doubled. Good examples are Wawaka, Wawasee, Kankakee, and Kennekuk, Tuscaloosa, and Tallahassee, Ocklocknee, Ohooppee, and Oshkosh, Minnetonka, and Massabesic, Contoocook, Loogootee, and Hatchechubbee. We like to roll his Kennebunk and Cuttyhunk, his Nantucket and Wachusett, his Kickapoo and Tetonka over our tongues, for the mountain breezes and breath of the prairie are in them, and ill indeed could we spare them.

The next historical landmarks are the place-names that preserve the memory of the early missionaries and explorers, and of the first pioneers, sturdy men of the wilderness, every one of them inured to hardship, skilful in expedient, and literally taking their lives in their hand as they ventured forth among hostile redskins in an unknown land. The names of De Soto, Ponce de Leon, Hudson, Champlain, and La Salle, and of Fathers Hennepin and

Marquette, are interwoven with the very beginnings of our history, just as the names of Fremont, Lewis and Clark, are indissolubly linked with the early days of the Far West. Now and then a name brings back a bit of this venturesome era with vivid distinctness. Thus, La Salle in the bitter winter of 1680 found the Illinois closed by ice; Indians surrounded him; six of his own little band had deserted him; and, worst of all, his bark *le Griffon*, loaded with all his provision and earthly possessions, was a total loss. Sick at heart, he threw up the palisades of a fort, and called it *Crève Cœur*, French for heart-sore.

Again, Council Bluffs marks the great gathering of the chiefs of the trans-Mississippi tribes in 1804, at the time of the Lewis and Clark expedition. Here the council fire was built, the peace pipe smoked, and the envoys of the "Great Father" (President Jefferson), given peaceful permission to journey onward through the tribe's possessions. Troublesome times were these, but these men of daring knew not the meaning of cowardice or of discouragement.

Equally intrepid were the pioneers. Daniel Boone was easily the greatest of all pioneers, as testify thirty-three Boones and Boone-derivatives in the Western, Middle, and Southern States alone. Several Whet-zels keep alive the memory of the two brothers, the famous Indian-fighters who avenged their father's massacre by the killing of more than a hundred Indians, picking them off one by one as they would a deer or a turkey, and with as little remorse. Kenton of Kenton County, Kentucky, is named in honor of Colonel Kenton, who on Kentucky soil endured fiendish torture at the gauntlet and stake, and was rescued at last by Simon Girty, the Indian leader and renegade white. Kenton had once shown Girty a kindness, and Girty, for perhaps the only time in his life, acted like a human being instead of a devil incarnate. Strange to say, this same Girty, than whom no redskin was more dreaded, who could himself pile the fagots around the white captive and grin at the tortured one's shrieks of agony, is himself name-remembered in a Pennsylvania town.

Crawford, Ohio, marks the death of Colonel Crawford at the stake, after his ears had been cut off, his body powder-burned, and his head scalped, then live

coals heaped upon it. It was said that Colonel Crawford called upon Simon Girty to shoot him, and end his sufferings, but the latter only responded by a hearty laugh, as though enjoying the horrid sight. These are terrible things to look back upon. The pioneer's path was blood-bestrewn. Those old Indian wars have filled our land with Battle Creeks and Grounds, Battle Hills, Lakes, and Mountains. And they have left the darkly suggestive names of Block-house, Palisades, and Forts, Burnt Cabins, Scalp Level, and Massacre. Small wonder that the early settlers hated the Indians as they did rattlesnakes or poison. In their place we should have done the same.

We sometimes boast that, in spite of our nation's vastness, we are a homogeneous whole. So we are in language and patriotism, though the impartial testimony of the Guide would indicate that we are a nation of provincials. Every section of our country has its own traits that are sure to be reflected in characteristic names. The Eastern States show the most conventionality and the least originality. There are more of those endless Fair-views, Litchfields, Cambridges, Lowells, etc., more villes, tons, burgs, centers, and corners, than in any other part of the Union. The North has the most poetical and picturesque terms, more Lakes and Rivers, more Sun Prairies, Beaver Dams, Silver Bows, and Lost Rivers. The West has more slang and cowboy expressions, and a general breezy, free-and-easy style of name-ology. The South has more downright oddity, more quaint, unexpected terms and comical comparisons, than all the rest of the United States put together.

It may seem like downright heresy to say so, but New England leads all for dulness and wearisome repetition. When she has used up all the Falmouths, Pembrokes, Roxburys, and Weymouths, she tacks a North or South, East or West on to them as needs be, and starts out anew. She has enough Manchesters, Bristols, Sheffields, Greenwicks, Lancasters, and Nottinghams, and enough New Londons, New Ipswichs, New Bedfords, and New Gloucesters, to start a miniature England of her own. There is a touch of pathos in the grim old Pilgrim Fathers setting up these old home altars in their new-world home. In the light of history, however, it is surprising that this intense loyalty should have been followed by their

descendants one hundred and fifty years later in pitching mother England's tea into Boston Harbor, and rallying against her at Concord and Lexington.

In strong contrast to this are the place-names of Tennessee. Other States show curious and unexpected designations, but a record of these peculiar names shows that Tennessee leads any other State three to one in this respect. Some of our popular novelists have given us Tennessee mountain romances, in which the most original characters say and do most original things. We had always thought these sketches overdrawn until the duty of name-transcriber fell upon us. Now we are ready to believe that the half has not been told. If the Guide's record bears true witness, Tennessee's people are a law unto themselves. They look through Tennessee spectacles, and are withal the most versatile in their originality of any known class of people.

In Tennessee there are 350 names that can only be classed as odd ones. Here are a few specimens: Mouth of Wolf, Bald Hornet, Wild Goose, Parch Corn, Sawdust Valley, Darkey Springs, and Hurricane Switch; Bell-buckle, Peanut, and Mouse-tail; there are a Nettle Carrier and a Calf-killer, Noah and the Ark, Kangaroo, and Rattlesnake, a Miser and his Dollar, a Bride and Sweetlips. There are Gum and Yum-Yum, Boy and Scoot, Necessity, Half-pony, and Barefoot, Castoria, Bucksnort, etc. In fact this State has but twenty-three towns in all bearing the commonplace prefixes of East, West, North, and South, while Massachusetts alone has 256, and New York 427 of them.

New York State has one little affectation of her own, there being but few names of this class outside of her borders. That is for a much-hyphenated name descriptive of locality. Thus, she has Barstow-on-the-Sound, Fishkill-on-the-Hudson, etc. These fanciful on-the-Bay and by-the-Waters always reminds us of the Irishman who stopped at the sign-board, "Manchester-by-the-Sea, 7 Miles"; spelling it out, rehyphenating, and letter-substituting, son-of-Erin like, he read: "Man-chased-her-by-the-Sea, 7 Miles — and, begorra! I hope he kissed her after he caught her!"

Florida and California reflect the real-estate boomer's skill. In these States the name-sponsors have been too shrewd to give such names as Poverty Hill, Barren

Plain, or Muddy Lane. Your true real estate man — and nowhere does he flourish more than in the lands of sunshine — never names anything Muddy, Stony, Hard, or Poor. He knows no emigrant would think of settling at Clay Banks, Dry Branch, or Thickety; no summer boarder would be drawn toward Frog Pond or Bug Hill; no capitalist toward Starve-out or No Business. The wily advertisers of these two States have left all such names to franker States, while they expatiate upon the balmy winter climate and tropical vegetation of their regions. How seductive to one in the frost-bound North is Christmas in Orange County, Florida!

Florida has Frost-proof, Tropic, Winter Haven, Winter Garden, Winter Park, Orange Park, and a half a dozen other parks; she has Orange and Port Orange, Orange Heights, and Orange Bend, and eight other Orange compounds, beside special varieties of orange by name, Satsuma, Mandarin, and Otaheite; she has Coconut Grove, Palmetto, and Palm Beach, Rosehill, Rosewood, Lemon City, Olive, Mango, and Citronelle; she has the fragrant Cassia and Magnolia, the Jessamine and Myrtle, the Lily and Orchid; she claims both Eden and Paradise, her modesty stopping short of only Heaven itself.

California, not to be outdone, has eight Parks of her own, and more than twenty Ocean Views, Diamond Springs, Pacific Beaches, etc. She too has Evergreen and Summerland, Sunland and Sundale, Green Valley and Palmdale; the flowers Lotus, Oleander, etc.; the fruits, Apricot, Citrus, Olive, and Orange; Grapeland, and Strawberry Valley. She also claims Paradise and Mount Eden, and, not content with these, adds Angel Island and New Jerusalem.

Nevada and Colorado names show that the mining industry ranks high in their States' resources. One in every baker's dozen of Nevada names is a Gold Hill, Ruby Valley, Bullion, or something of that sort. Wyoming's names give a hint of lonesome mountain fastnesses. Iron Mountain, Black Buttes, Granite Cañon, Lone Tree, and Lost Cabin are some of these typical Wyoming names. Arizona and Tennessee furnish most of the Devil-may-care expressions of the Union. Tombstone, Tip Top, Number One, Big Bug, Bumblebee, Chuckaluck, Gassaway, and Ripshin are among these names.

The rapid pace at which we Americans live is illustrated by our post-names. Suggestive, indeed, are Competition, and Combination, Option, Trade, and Exchange, Fair Dealing, and Trickem. Fully as much so are Bank, Shop, Store, Factory, and Mill, Deposit, Pay Down, and Payup, Spot Cash, and Rock Bottom, Ledger, and Day Book, Payment, and Settlement, Profit, and Increase, Bond, Coupon, and Greenback, Coins, Dollars, Quarter, and Dime, Nickel, and Penny. Again, there are Money, Mint, and Million, Bill, Check, and Bonus. All too plainly these names point to the fever of money-getting that consumes us.

There is yet one class of names remaining,—the humorous one. The class is distinctively American. No other nation so bubbles over with gaiety and good-nature that even in its matter-of-fact names reflect mirth and jollity. Even staid old Massachusetts confesses to a Gay Head, and stately Virginia to a Lightfoot—probably caused by her dancing too many Virginia reels. This humorous side of our character finds expression in various ways. The rougher element please themselves in slang, never elegant, but forcible. Thus we find O. K., U Bet, Walkchalk, Getup, Shoo-fly, Gilt-edge, Pulltight, and Blowout. There are Ino, Uno, and Weno; All-right, Tip-top, Halfway, and Ditto. Stamping Ground is expressive, as is also Red Eye, the vile stuff that enables a set of toughs to "paint a town red." The drinking habits of men have also given us Jug-town, Spreeland, Slaptown, and Jamboree, and their smoking habits Bac, Baca, Tobax, and Tobaccoville.

Leaving slang behind us, we have the quaintest expressions of that form of humor that is called dry fun. The disappointed prospector has named his town Don't or Stuck, expressing his feelings so plainly that he who runs may read. Not or Nix, Igo and Getaway are as full of meat. Sucker, Starveout, 'Nough, Sodom, Tophet, and Hell's Gate express strong disgust. This droll humor gives us Whynot, Wakeup, Ourtown, Hoonex (a spelling worthy of Josh Billings himself), Tryus, Catchall, Nicetown, Goforth, and Smith's Turnout. This same dry fun takes evident delight in perversity or contradiction of terms. Thus, the high-flown name, Star of the West, belongs to an Arkansas town of the smallest size. The author was once journeying among the White River hills

in that same State, a region scarcely more than an unbroken wilderness. According to the map we carried we should have been close to Dodd City. At last we came to a small opening in the timber wherein three or four rudely constructed buildings were clustered. Fearing we had lost our way, our driver accosted the only man in sight and asked him if he could tell us where Dodd City was. With a peculiar grin the man turned and said, pointing at the same time with his finger:—"Do you see that house—that barn—that saw-mill—that blacksmith's shop? Well, that's Dodd City, and I'm Dodd!"

The familiarity of early border life gives us such *bonhomie* names as Deaf Smith County, Big Isaac, Yankee Jim, John's Creek, etc. The perennial jokes about love and lovers have given us Love, Lover, Love's Level, Caress, Beau-kiss, and Kissemee. Smackover, very appropriately, is in Arkansas, where they can have the *sub rosa* opportunity dear to lovers, probably meeting by the Gum Log or Marked Tree in the Green Forest in the same State. Castoria, Tulu, and Hostetter are tributes paid to the tireless advertisers that paint every fence panel and barn door in flaming "ads" of their particular wares. Snow and Ice are found in the Southern States, and Magnolia and Olive in the frost-bound North.

There are several Big Foots, but none in Chicago or Illinois; Beans, but none in Boston or Massachusetts, the great baked-bean country. Tradewater is found in Kentucky, where it is popularly supposed that something stronger than water is trafficked in. Quite as strangely, Bitter Creek is in Sweetwater County, Wyoming. Wind-swept Kansas naively confesses to having Air, and Michigan, from between its chain of cold northern lakes, deprecatingly admits that she has Frost and a single Snowflake!

We close the Guide. We have delved into its dusty mines and found treasure. We have groped in its dark corners and found forgotten legacies. Never again will we call this official roster a list of dull, dry, dead names, for in it, as in a mirror, are reflected the history, the hopes, the aspirations, of seventy millions of people. May our numbers expand and increase until they become seven-fold greater than they are now.

LORA S. LA MANCE.

PINEVILLE, MO.

THE WORLD AND ITS DOINGS : EDITORIAL COMMENT

Ratification of the Peace Treaty

The Senate has at length ratified the treaty of peace with Spain, and all that is now awaited is legislative concurrence by the Spanish Cortes and the signature of the Queen-Regent. The passing of the treaty in the chamber, by only a single vote over the number necessary to make ratification legal is indicative of the strength of the opposition to territorial expansion and the perils and burdens of imperialism. Whether a plebiscite on the issue would have been proportionately more decisive, it is difficult to say; but there is little reason to question the existence of grave doubt in the public mind as to a "forward policy" in the far East and the incorporation into the national system of hordes of semi-civilized Asiatics. Even the assumption of responsibility involved in the occupation of the country, not to speak of its administration when we can obtain unresisted possession of it, has been earnestly, and even hotly, objected to, as an unwise departure from American precedent and fraught with grave peril to the nation. We may admit that the hostility of parties in the Senate is largely responsible for opposition to the treaty, for the smallness of the affirming vote, and for delay in ratifying the instrument. But, aside from this, there was surely reason for deliberation, and even for hesitating concurrence, when we think of what is involved in taking over the Philippines, not to speak of the good round sum we are to pay for their cession. But while there was need to be deliberative and circumspect, the Senate would have been foolish had it rejected the treaty and thrown everything into confusion, with the calamitous prospect of a renewal of the war. Ratification does not commit us to the retention of the Philippines, even if we pay Spain heavily for them and have to fight the Tagals long for their peaceable possession. The prospect, we admit, is slight of withdrawing from our responsibilities, now that we have so energetically embraced them and have been put on our mettle militantly to fulfil them. It

may indeed be good for us to have our fighting capacities put further to the test, and in the end even good for the Filipinos, whatever destiny is before them, that they should know and feel our power. The lesson, doubtless, may be of profit to both sides, though unhappily it is likely to cost much in both life and treasure.

Relief will undoubtedly be felt that the treaty is ratified and the tension removed from the administration and the country. The disposal of the matter will enable us to resume friendly relations with Spain, and to free from active service all the militia not wanted for protective purposes in the Antilles and the Philippines.

★

The War Investigation Commission

If quarrels and dissensions in the army and all sorts of scandals arising out of the late war are to be the themes daily served up to the nation by the press, there will be few subjects that one will wish more to consign to oblivion than the military exploits of the past year. Still less shall we be disposed to boast of the conquest of our arms over poor Spain, if, in addition to all the ineptitude, the political favoritism, and professional incompetence that have marked the administration and executive of the army and its bureaus, we are now offered the greater offence of a whitewashing report by the Commission charged with the inquiry into the conduct of the war. Even before there was talk of "embalmed beef" and the summoning of the commissary-general to give evidence before the commission, there was urgent need for a national inquest. The mishaps and narrow escapes of the war, the haphazard manner in which we went into it, the inadequacy of supplies when our troops took the field, and the wretched plight our sick and wounded found themselves in on their way north to the camps when the fighting in Cuba was over, called urgently for a searching investigation. The inquiry was doubly necessary when it came out, on what appears to be trustworthy testimony, that our soldiers were fed on rancid messes of beef, chemically treated in the

hope of keeping it from spoiling in a hot climate. Regard for public decency, aside from national honor, demanded rigid scrutiny into the loose methods and preventable calamities of the war and its political as well as military administration. It is this, and nothing short of this, that we expected from the Investigation Commission. Has it conscientiously met this imperative demand of the nation? Has it probed everything to the bottom, and, without fear or favor, has it impartially reported the facts elicited and rendered an honest and unpartisan judgment? We write on the eve of the Commission's placing the report in the hands of the President and are as yet without knowledge of the verdict and deliverance. We therefore shall not prejudice public opinion by anticipating or forestalling the judgment,—an unfair, indeed a dishonest, thing to do; still less shall we venture to criticise it merely on the strength of newspaper rumor. We shall only repeat what we said in dealing with the matter in an earlier issue of SELF CULTURE, that while we do not doubt that the Commission will render an independent and non-partisan verdict, we foresee that the investigation will come to little, save to show that we undertook a colossal task in taking the field against Spain without due preparation, in so far as the military branch of the war service was concerned, and were the victims, in our soldiery, of climatic conditions in Cuba with which they and the nation were unaccustomed to contend. On this the Commission will probably rest its case, without arraigning the head of the War Department or inveighing against Congress for neglecting, when war was imminent, to put the army on a proper and effective footing; while the results of the war are so pleasing to the nation and gratifying to the prowess of its arms that shortcomings may very well be glossed over and criticisms of its defects and failures be silenced.

On one subject we cannot shirk a public duty by refraining from comment and censure. We allude to the scandal which has deservedly retired from the service—though we regret the occurrence of the misdemeanor which entailed the penalty—the chief of the nation's commissary staff. General Eagan's conduct before the Commission in giving the lie so foully to the commanding general of the army as to his asseverations concerning the tainted

meat, merited the punishment that has been measured out to him; and we trust that the example will not be lost or the admonition be unheeded by others in any way connected with official and departmental life, or with the varied branches of the war service.

It is charitable, of course, to believe, as was subsequently advanced in General Eagan's defence, that his mental condition was such when he appeared before the court as to make him irresponsible for his foul and unsoldierly utterance. This does not exempt from blame the Commission itself in suffering the diatribe to go on, or in permitting a subordinate to insult and revile a superior officer who is at once the head of, and the titular fount of honor in, the army. In this matter we are pained to say that the members of the Commission showed themselves to be wanting in the manners and instincts of gentlemen.

★

The Battle with Aguinaldo's Forces The situation we dreaded in the Philippines has unhappily been realized, and the nation has experience of what expansion means and what it is likely to cost us. Aguinaldo, having protested against American intrusion, and refused for himself and his people to be "benevolently assimilated," has proceeded to show us that he was in earnest and had no idea of recognizing American sovereignty as a substitute for that of Spain, which he had already disowned. On Sunday, February 5, he precipitated a conflict with the United States troops in the vicinity of Manila, in which the loss was considerable on one side, and, from all accounts—the fleet being able to participate—was disastrous to the insurgents. The resort to arms in dealing with the Filipinos is an extremely regrettable circumstance, as it destroys the illusion in the native mind that we are in the country to liberate them from a deadly yoke, and must make more difficult the subjection of the islands and the conciliation of their heterogeneous peoples.

On the other hand, though coercion must now be resorted to—the ratification of the peace treaty having established our legal ownership and control of the islands—one can hardly sympathize with the insurgents, still less with the defiant attitude of Aguinaldo, whose ambition in bringing on the conflict is discredited by the motives that on two occasions heretofore have induced him to sell himself and

the Filipinos' cause for gold. Nor could he have any justification for fighting our troops in Luzon, still less at Manila, where we had won the right to establish our rule through conquest and the purposes that have led our forces to remain in possession of the place. We must not forget, however, that the Filipinos have themselves some show of right to be armed in their own country, and to be zealous for the independence they had fought and bled for ere we thought of coming upon the scene. Nor, to their minds, was our coming acceptable, even though we had relieved them of the incubus of hated Spain, when they understood that our intention was not to hold the Philippines provisionally, as we are holding Cuba, with the idea, ultimately, of preparing its people for self-government. The twenty millions we had agreed to pay Spain for possession, they naturally concluded, moreover, involved their own sale as part of the bargain. They were doubtless hasty in their conclusions, and had the misfortune to be too well advised by the intriguing agents of Aguinaldo in this country; while there is reason to apprehend that they were not uninfluenced by unscrupulous representatives of some foreign Power, which has supplied them with arms, ammunition, field-pieces, and perhaps even money.

The whole circumstance of their case and ours is an unhappy one. We at least could have shaped matters otherwise had we, as we said last month, withdrawn from Manila when, in our war with Spain, we had destroyed her fleet and prevented it from being a menace to our western coasts; or, while remaining at Manila with only a humanitarian motive in view, we had not suffered ourselves to be beguiled by imperialist notions. It is easy to say that Aguinaldo has had his head turned, and that the Filipinos are reckless and misguided and therefore must now be treated as rebels and outlaws. But has glory not intoxicated us and made us forget our own past and the traditions and counsels of wisdom?

★

*Transition
in Cuba*

The situation is happily more promising in Cuba than in the Philippines, ugly though it looked for awhile. There is still reason to be mindful, however, lest the national optimism betray us, or some difficulty arise in the local military or civil administration which may lead to trouble. Pre-

posterous, of course, was the Cuban demand for back pay for the insurgent army; yet even this menace has passed. Gomez appears to be content with the distribution of three million dollars; and the late insurgents have gone back to their little holdings and presumably to a tranquil career. After the turmoil of recent years it can hardly be hoped that they will all take contentedly to civil life. Yet it is this, more than anything else, that Cuba now needs, with the protection to life and property and the encouragement of native industry, which our occupation and administration will no doubt secure. The proximity of the island to our shores, its fertility, and value as a field for economic exploitings and commercial undertakings of all kinds, have already begun to attract capital and the presence of enterprising Americans. We should, however, be careful not to encourage premature "booms" or the spirit of reckless speculation, which can only retard true progress and give an ill direction to the development of the island. The problems of government in Cuba are already sufficiently complicated, and the wise policy to pursue is to lighten and simplify them rather than to add to them. The first necessities are railway communication throughout the island and the sanitation of the capital. The latter task is well under way, and the results—one of which is a decline of forty per cent in the death-rate—show most markedly the advantages of the change of rule, which has committed us to responsibilities which we must ever bear in mind, if we would acquit ourselves well in carrying out the avowed purpose of our intervention.

★

*Canada and
the Joint
High Commission*

Little is as yet known of what the Anglo-American Joint High Commission has accomplished. It has had repeated and prolonged sessions, both at Quebec and at Washington; yet, though the times are favorable for the amicable settlement of international disputes and for extended trade relations with Canada on a reciprocal footing, nothing has so far transpired as to what has been done or of the progress made in reaching satisfactory conclusions. We must not, however, be impatient, for the difficulties the commissioners have to adjust are, we know, many and of long standing, apart from those relating to the tariff on both sides of the

line, the mining and alien labor laws, and the bonding privilege. Back of these topics—important as they are, and vexing as they have been in seeking a solution of them—are the matters connected with the fisheries and the Bering Sea seal grounds, together with the boundary question in Alaska, and other historic international irritants. Time must be allowed for discussing and seeking a solution of these difficult matters, which have long worried the diplomacy of both countries and embarrassed the respective Governments. We can only trust that the present negotiators will at length crown their deliberations by arriving at a wise and statesmanlike compromise, which may be accepted by the ratifying bodies in both countries and contribute to mutual advantage and the promotion of hearty good feeling.

★

*The Roosevelt
Regime*

Governor Roosevelt has assumed the duties of his office at a time which affords him an excellent opportunity to put into operation the principles which he has hitherto consistently preached, and, in more limited fields than that he now occupies, as consistently practised. He knows politics and politicians from the A B C of the primary to the legislative chambers; his work on the Civil Service Commission has given him a familiarity with this important branch of government; and in his present office his former experience in the presidency of the New York Police Commission will be of the greatest value from its revelations of the foul side of popular government when permitted to fall into the hands of the unscrupulous and self-seeking. The vigor with which he has heretofore attacked every task before him, whether in the legislature or in the bureaus of municipal and federal government, on the battlefield, or in the arduous labors of an exciting political campaign, can be brought into full play in dealing with the problems of state legislation that now confront him. True, the governor alone cannot produce good legislation; nor can he personally see that the laws of the State are enforced; but he begins his term of office with a preponderance of his own party in both chambers,—twenty-seven Republicans in the Senate and eighty-six in the Assembly, against twenty-three and sixty-three Democrats in each respectively. He has exercised care in

his appointments so far, examining the qualifications of the candidates for office with an eye single to the public weal.

The tasks before the governor and legislature include the much discussed investigation of canal frauds,—a subject, by the way, almost as old as the canals themselves; National Guard problems; the regulation and organization of matters concerning labor, charities, prisons, and civil service; and the adjustment of new questions that will constantly arise under the working and development of the New York city charter, not the least of which will be the reformation of election laws and methods and the purification of the police department. (Already a loud complaint is going up from the patrolmen that, by means of systematic transfers and retransfers to posts far from their homes, they are being blackmailed for the benefit of the district leaders of the political party now controlling the municipal government of New York.) The protean forms assumed by the liquor question will, as usual, have to be dealt with, and as usual with the positive assurance that in no event will more than one party be pleased with the results attained. Neither the implacable Prohibitionists, the grasping brewers and liquor dealers, the Continental Sunday party, nor the friends of Sabbath closing, can be satisfied; but whether in this question or in any other, the people of New York may be sure of one thing. Legislation will be fostered or otherwise according as its object appears to the governor to be a matter of public welfare or not; but an act once passed, its enforcement may be regarded as a certainty as far as it lies within the power of the Executive.

★

*The Situation
in France*

The linchpin would seem to be dropping out of the creaking chariot of the French Republic. The vehicle rumbles along with its noisy load, and over as rough a causeway as was ever encountered by the tumbrels of the Terror on the way to the guillotine. But, depressing as is the situation, we hardly look for another *coup* and the establishment of a new empire. There is, however, a perceptible revival of Napoleonic glorification and in many quarters hope of the restoration of a Bonapartist throne. The nation will have to be speedily steadied if it is to escape serious trouble, though from what source sobering

and elevating influences are to come does not as yet appear. The army chiefs continue to menace the civil power, and to humiliate the nation by their attitude toward the unfortunate Dreyfus. The Dupuy ministry, on the other hand, acts as a wholesome check on the army's sinister designs, and is sincere in its determination, despite the resignation of the partisan De Beaurepaire, to see justice done in the Court of Cassation to the prisoner at Devil's Island. As the prospect brightens for Dreyfus public feeling in Paris will no doubt become more hostile to the tribunal entrusted with revision. Already the press, which truckles to the army generals, is frenzied in its denunciation of M. Loew, the president of the court, and rancorous toward all who have doubts of Dreyfus's guilt and question the fairness of his trial. Its hatred for the Jews leads to the vilest excesses of language and to threats of a new St. Bartholomew. Under the circumstances, the triumph of the Dreyfusards is hardly to be looked for, though should they fail the nation will be eternally disgraced. Fortunately for France, in the threatened overturning of everything, she has escaped one folly. She has come to her senses in her diplomatic relations with England and so averted foreign war.

★

*Affairs in
England*

The opening of the British Parliament on the 7th of February will concentrate political thought on matters of practical legislation, varied by the diversions of the party game. The Queen's speech referred with approval to the forthcoming peace conference, to the success of the recent military operations in the Sudan, to the settlement of the Crete difficulty, and to the pacific relations happily existing between Great Britain and foreign countries. The apprehended war with France over the Fashoda matter has given place, for the time being, to a cordial understanding, perhaps soon, however, to be set aside if France should fall heir to Belgium's interest in the Congo Free State, now understood to be in the market.

The Liberal Opposition in the House has closed its slim ranks by uniting on a leader, in the person of Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman, a rich man, who was Secretary for War under Gladstone, and is a politician without angularities. We do not expect great things from the new

nominee of the party, though we shall be curious to see in what respect he practically supplants Sir Wm. Harcourt, and how the latter will bear himself toward Government measures now that he has extricated himself from the embarrassments of the leadership. One advantage he will possess, in throwing off the trammels of his late thankless office, will be to give himself more leisure to pursue his crusade against the Ritualistic violators of the canon law of the Established Church. In his vigorous action against Romanizers in the Church, he has commended himself to the Protestant element in the nation that looks with apprehension on the illegal practices of the High Church clergy and is impatient with the bishops for not putting a stop to the infractions of the Church law. Referring to the crusade, we find the well-known and thoughtful publicist, "Bystander," thus commenting on Sir William Harcourt's success, and pointing to Disestablishment if Ritualism is to prevail. In a recent issue of the *Toronto Weekly Sun*, the writer observes:—

Sir William Harcourt has won his battle against the Ritualists and forced the bishops to put on the brakes. Legally he has won, and nobody who knew anything about the law and history of the Established Church could doubt that he had both upon his side. Not only was the Mass, which the Ritualists are struggling to revive, distinctly repudiated and condemned by the framers of the Anglican Liturgy and Articles; it was at that time forbidden by the criminal law, and to perform it was a capital offence. But law, however certain, while it may determine temporal rights or duties, can never determine spiritual convictions. A church of which the faith and worship are regulated by a political assembly composed of men of all creeds and none, without deference to the beliefs or aspirations of its members, is spiritually dead. The Ritualists are perfectly right in refusing to conform to a Parliamentary religion. But their remedy is not defiance of the law under which they hold their endowments and their privileges; their remedy is Disestablishment, which will give them lawful freedom.

The ministerial ranks continue compact, and in these jingo times are in hearty mood. The Tory and Liberal-Unionist party is ably led by Mr. Balfour in the Commons and by the Premier in the House of Peers. Against its combined forces radicalism and anti-imperialism expend their strength in vain, while the Irish have been given a sop by the Commons Tory leader in his proposed Catholic university at Dublin, to be endowed by the state,

similarly to the Protestant university which it is designed to found at Belfast. In this projected legislation Mr. Balfour, however, has the country largely against him, since public opinion in England seems to be strongly averse to the anomaly of state endowed universities and to further Government efforts to conciliate the Irish vote.

★

*Samoa**in Revolt*

The volcanoes of Samoa are quiescent, but politics on these beautiful islands of Polynesia are at present actively disturbed. Sudden interest in this remote quarter of the globe has been excited by news of a renewed outbreak at Apia among the factions of the rival monarchs for the throne, incited by European intrigue. A battle of the crows has been going on for some years back in these Edens of the southern Pacific, as readers of Robert Louis Stevenson's "Eight Years of Trouble in Samoa" will not need to be told. The strife had its origin in the rivalry of two claimants for the Samoan crown, the partisans of both rejecting interference by the European residents and choosing Mataafa as their king. This native action was particularly resented by the German element on the chief island of the group, and to promote peace and security a tripartite treaty was negotiated in 1889, under which government has since been maintained jointly by the United States, Germany, and Great Britain. In August last the ruling king, Malietoa, died, and the natives thrust Mataafa forward as his successor. For some reason, however, this potentate was deemed ineligible by the American chief justice, who, by the treaty, was empowered to decide questions of disputed succession, and Mataafa was supplanted by the deceased ruler's nephew, Malietoa Tanus. This deposition was naturally not agreeable to the natives, who clung to Mataafa, and, it appears, were encouraged in their predilection by the German consul and his resident countrymen. In support of the native choice there was an ominous demonstration, and our chief justice had to fly the scene, whereupon the German president of the Municipal Court of the international port of Apia usurped the post. To this action the British and American consuls objected, as being a violation of the treaty and with the aid of a body of marines they regained possession of the

court and expelled the German nominee and his adherents. This incident in the "gentle art of making enemies" has just become a subject of reference to the Governments representing the treaty Powers, and a tempest meanwhile rages in the international teapot. The United States' interest in the contention cannot be much, so long as our rights are not encroached upon; nevertheless, a treaty is a treaty, and if Germany has in this matter aggraved she ought to be made to respect the international agreement.

★

Friction between Norway and Sweden

The relations of Norway and Sweden have for some time been strained, and the tie which binds them in a rather uneasy wedlock looks as if it might some day be rudely snapped. Friction has mainly come from Norway, the weaker power, which wants, among other things, a foreign and consular service apart from Sweden, and a greater measure of national freedom. Russia, it is said, abets Norway in her design to sever the tie that since 1814 has united her with her consort, and watches with interest the constitutional struggles of the Norse to resist the veto power lodged in King Oscar, who rules over the federated kingdom. The price of Muscovite alliance is understood to be an ice-free port on the Norwegian sea, which would be more useful to her than Archangel, and which one day might be connected with her trans-Siberian railroad across northern Europe and Asia. Under this influence and the rising wave of nationalism fostered by the Norse Liberal party, Norwegian aspirations are giving increased uneasiness to Sweden. A further sign of coming separation is seen in the recent clamor in the Storting (the Norse parliament) for a separate flag, which should not bear the hated symbol of union. What will be the issue of the present friction between the two sections of the kingdom it would be difficult to say. As things are, Sweden exercises the dominant influence, and while King Oscar lives there may be no violent rupture of relations. Should he, however, pass from the scene, and the Swedish Crown Prince, to whom power has already been delegated by his father, attain the throne, an upheaval is almost certain to occur, especially as he is known to be bitterly opposed to secession and to the Norse hope of separate national existence.

The Pacification of Crete The Turk, our readers will know, accepted the collective note of the Powers and agreed to evacuate Crete, though not without utilizing the artifices of diplomacy in the hope of devising another mode of escape from a humiliating submission. The withdrawal from the island of the power of the Sultan has relieved the European situation, as well as brought hope alike to Christian and Mussulman. The sovereign rights of Turkey are, of course, to be respected, and the Porte made it a point in withdrawing the Turkish troops that Mussulman interests shall not unduly be interfered with; while the four guaranteeing Powers may be trusted to see that protection shall be extended alike to the lives and property of all creeds. A new era has begun, under the rule of Prince George of Greece, who has been appointed governor by the European Concert, and the protecting war ships have departed from Canea. The credit for the change is due more to the foreign admirals on the station than to diplomacy, which had become paralyzed by international rivalry and had reached a deadlock. The harassed inhabitants of the island will now be free to turn their attention in safety to its material development and to the promotion of their own material interests. In the past, Crete was the seat of considerable industry and trade, for which it is favorably situated, and there is no reason why these activities should not be revived, and the island, now consecrated to the arts of peace, made to yield abundantly. With the door shut on the face of the official Turk, the last, we trust, has been heard of Mussulman outrage and Ottoman cupidity. The opportunity for young Prince George is a great one, and it will be the greater if he shows his capacity for tactful rule at the head of his autonomist government.

★

The Omdurman Slaughter Charges Until the comparatively recent advent of the Sirdar, the Sudan has been looked upon as a hopeless loss to Egypt and civilization. We have seen, however, what Lord Kitchener has accomplished, and how decisive as well as thorough has been his work. Since the victory at Omdurman he has nevertheless been the object of opprobrious censure in some ultra-humanitarian quarters, owing to the great slaughter of the Dervishes in the battle and a so-called lack of humanity in caring for

the wounded followers of the fanatical Khalifa. The charge is a serious one and has not been confined to mere newspaper rumor, but has appeared even in an English review giving an account of the Anglo-Egyptian campaign. The aspersion on the character of Lord Kitchener has, however, proved false, for many reputable eye-witnesses of the battle have come forward and given the lie to the accusation. The casualties at Omdurman, it is not denied, were great and bore heavily upon the enemy, whose fanatical valor incited them to the most desperate encounters at the risk of being mowed down in masses by lyddite shells and rapid-fire guns. In some instances, it appears, the wounded were bayoneted, but only where they vengefully sought to take life after the battle and put in peril the hospital corps engaged in removing the English dead from the field. The most explicit and authentic statements have been made touching this matter, and it is further said that numbers of the enemy received humane succor and even surgical treatment on the morrow of the battle, much to the surprise as well as to the relief of the wounded tribesmen of the desert. We all know, of course, that "war is hell," and when the sword is taken up on behalf of civilization, and especially against semi-savages, humanity has occasionally to wince in presence of the horrors of the battlefield.

★

The New Steamship "Oceanic" The launching from a Belfast shipyard of the "Oceanic," by far the largest vessel afloat, is a signal triumph of mechanical and constructive skill. For many years the "Great Eastern" has held the record for size and weight, but she has had little to be proud of in the fact, since she was built before her time and on a radically false model. The "Oceanic," on the other hand, has been gradually evolved as the science of naval architecture has advanced, and thus her designers and builders have produced something far other than a marine freak. The monster vessel is more than an eighth of a mile in length, being twenty-five feet longer than Brunel's "Leviathan," and with her full complement of passengers and crew will accommodate over two thousand persons. The "Oceanic" is intended for the Atlantic trade of the White Star Company, and though she has not been designed for great speed, it is hoped that

her immense engine power may enable her to cross the Atlantic within six days. Her size and plan, it is said, will ensure that the roughest seas will have little retarding effect upon her speed and she is riveted through with steel so as to reduce vibration. Passage to Europe is now a days a matter lightly undertaken, and without the forebodings which troubled our forefathers. On the "Oceanic," as on her sister ships the "Teutonic" and the "Majestic," the crossing of the ocean may well be a pleasant holiday jaunt.

★

*Combating the
Scourge of
Consumption*

Those who are interested—and we surely all are—in the healthfulness of the race, will look with favor on the crusade, initiated in England a few months ago under the auspices of the Prince of Wales, against the fell scourge of phthisis and the various forms of tuberculous disease. On the 20th of December last a meeting was held at Marlborough House to further the objects of the "National Association for the Prevention of Consumption." The meeting was addressed not only by the Prince of Wales, the Marquis of Salisbury, Lord Rosebery, and the Directors-General of the Army and Navy Medical Departments, but by the eminent surgeon, Sir William Broadbent, chairman of the organization, by the presidents of the British Medical Association and the Royal College of Physicians, and by several of the most notable men of the medical profession in England. The design of the new organization is to make a strenuous national effort to check the ravages of consumption in the United Kingdom, where the deaths from the disease are said to be over 60,000 per annum, chiefly occurring in the densely populated and poorer districts of the larger cities and towns. This mortality, it has long been felt, is appalling, and with the recent strides in medical science and our increasing knowledge of germ diseases it is now determined that the mortality shall be checked and largely prevented. This consummation is at length happily possible, since consumption is now known to be largely a preventible and even curable disease if the proper precautions are taken, and resort had to a strictly out-of-door life under favorable conditions, or to curative treatment in sanatoria under skilled medical supervision.

What the national organization seeks

especially to do is to educate public opinion, under the most influential auspices, with regard to the scourge, and to incite communities within the kingdom to take all available means to arrest the progress of the disease and diminish the frightful death rate which it unhappily occasions. This the association seeks to do, not by compulsory legislative acts, but by the force of well-informed professional opinion, which shall arouse the nation to a sense of its danger and lead communities to take such precautions as shall tend to the isolation of its victims, so as to prevent the spreading of the disease, and to avail themselves of certain sanatoria to be provided for the open-air treatment of tuberculosis. It is also designed to stamp out, as far as possible, tuberculosis in cows, one of the chief breeders of the giant evil. The main thing relied upon is to strike at the ignorance or carelessness of communities hived in congested districts in large towns, which is responsible for the alarming spread of phthisis and the contamination of increasing numbers who daily fall victims to its fell sway. Already steps are being taken to increase the number of sanatoria in healthful districts throughout the British islands, where sufferers can be treated under the most skilled methods and with positive hope of cure.

In this connection attention may be called to a remarkable article in the January issue of the English "Nineteenth Century," which narrates some astonishing results of the out-of-door treatment of tuberculous ailment at Nordrach, in the Baden Black Forest, Germany. There Dr. Otto Walther, the head of the Sanatorium at Nordrach, has, it appears, had wonderful success in the treatment of consumption, attained wholly by good nourishment, rest, and fresh air. The proportion of permanent cures reached by Dr. Walther is affirmed to be ninety per cent., a most gratifying result, especially when it is known that he dispenses altogether with medicines, and trusts entirely to good food, pure air, and other antistrumous remedies. The influential crusade in the motherland against consumption is a noble one, and we in this country, with our medical skill and advantages in the way of range and purity of climate, may well be more active than we are in combating the ravages and arresting the progress of this fell disease.

CHRONICLE OF THE MONTH

THURSDAY, JANUARY 5.—The Filipino insurgent Government was reconstructed at Malolos; Aguinaldo is still president.... The official text of the treaty of peace with Spain was made public.... The Anglo-American joint high commission resumed its sessions in Washington.... Governor Mount, in his message to the Indiana legislature, called for the enactment of laws to suppress lynchings.... It is said that the Russian representative in Peking has been ordered to support French interests in China as though they were Russian.... Colonel Lewis, commanding an Anglo-Egyptian force, has routed a Dervish emir with heavy loss on the Blue Nile.... The Bundesrath has settled the question of the Lippe-Detmold succession in favor of Prince Adolf, of Schaumbourg-Lippe, brother-in-law of the Kaiser.... The foundation stone of the Gordon Memorial College at Khartum was laid by Viscount Cromer.

FRIDAY, JANUARY 6.—Advices received in Washington from General Otis indicate that he had notified Aguinaldo that unless he ordered his forces to submit to American rule he would arrest him and the members of his cabinet.... The Secretary of War issued stringent regulations for weekly and monthly sanitary inspections of all military camps and hospitals.... The American minister at Peking protested against the extension of the French or any other Power's exclusive concession at Shanghai, but urged extension of existing settlements on an international basis; the British minister made a similar protest, and the Chinese Government refused the French demand.... Lord Salisbury's reply to the Tsar's proposal for a disarmament conference promised the cordial coöperation of the British Government.... Lord Curzon was formally installed as viceroy of India at Calcutta.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 7.—Agents of Aguinaldo billed Manila with a manifesto from the revolutionary president, answering General Otis's proclamation, a few hours after the latter was issued.... A synopsis of the report of the late Colonel George E. Waring, on the sanitary condition of Havana, was made public.... The hospital ship "Solace" is to be sent to Manila with supplies for Admiral Dewey's fleet.... Two more gunboats, the "Princeton" and the "Yorktown," have been ordered to Manila.... Señor Silvela made a declaration in Madrid of the Conservative policy and predicted the downfall of the Sagasta ministry.... China has satisfied the German claims growing out of the outrages on a German missionary.... A Congo

Free State force has been defeated with heavy loss by rebels.

SUNDAY, JANUARY 8.—The insurgents at Iloilo threatened to burn the business portion of that city at the first shot of bombardment fired by the American fleet; natives attacked two American guards, injuring one fatally.... The first Sunday under American control in Havana was the freest experienced in the city in years.... The mayor of Santiago declares that the people there want provincial and municipal autonomy.... Secretary Alger decided to send four regiments of regular infantry to the Philippines.... A Paris paper reports that the Court of Cassation is convinced that Dreyfus was justly condemned; one judge of the court has resigned in consequence of a disagreement regarding the inquiry with his colleagues.... The German Government is to pay a subsidy of over \$1,000,000 a year to a steamship company to run a line of vessels from German ports to China, Japan, and Australia.... Colonel Julian San Martin, who abandoned Ponce to General Miles without resistance, has been sentenced in Spain to imprisonment for life.

MONDAY, JANUARY 9.—The situation at Manila approaches a climax; American troops are held in quarters under arms; Aguinaldo has issued another manifesto.... President and Mrs. McKinley gave a dinner in honor of the peace commissioners.... The Anglo-American joint high commission considered the fisheries and bonding questions.... The reply of Dreyfus to the questions of the court of cassation has been received in Paris, protesting his innocence; the court is said to be divided into fiercely opposed factions over the inquiry.... The German consul at Samoa has gone to the Tonga Islands and threatened to seize Savoa, the most fertile of the group, unless the Government pays private debts owed by the natives to a German company.

TUESDAY, JANUARY 10.—The President sent to the Senate the name of Charlemagne Tower to be minister to Russia, and of Addison C. Harris to be minister to Austria-Hungary.... The petition in behalf of Senator Quay to remove the trial of the indictment against him and his associates from the court of quarter sessions in Philadelphia to the supreme court was dismissed, with costs to petitioners.... Senator Henry Cabot Lodge was renominated for reelection at a joint conference of the Republican members of the Massachusetts legislature.... Señor Sagasta said, after an audience with the Queen, that there was no cabinet crisis.

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 11.—General Rios sent a dispatch to Madrid saying that a serious state of affairs existed in the Philippines. . . . Prominent Cubans were appointed to offices in Havana. . . . Joseph H. Choate was nominated by the President for ambassador to Great Britain. . . . The President decided that it would not be compatible with the public interests to send the instructions to the peace commissioners to the Senate. . . . B. F. Field declined the appointment as United States Senator from Vermont, succeeding Justin S. Morrill, and Judge Jonathan Ross was appointed and accepted. . . . The British Government extended the term of service of Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador, one year. . . . It is reported that in a conference between Emperor William and the Marquis de Noailles an alliance of Germany, France, and Russia was proposed.

THURSDAY, JANUARY 12.—American soldiers tried to land at Quimares Island, near Iloilo, but were driven back by armed natives. . . . It is reported that the Filipino Government is willing to agree to the establishment of an American protectorate, provided independence in a stipulated time is guaranteed. . . . Commissary-General Eagan, in denying, before the War Department investigating commission, the charges that bad beef was furnished to the army, made a bitter personal attack on General Miles. . . . Chauncey M. Depew was nominated by acclamation by the Republican caucus at Albany for United States Senator. . . . Turkish troops won a victory over Arabian forces at Shanai; six thousand men were killed and wounded. . . . Stormy scenes took place in the French chamber, growing out of De Beaurepaire's charges regarding the court of cassation. . . . The steamer "Bourgoyne" was held responsible for the collision which resulted in her sinking on July 4th, and damages were awarded to the "Cromartyshire". . . . The German minister of war introduced the army bill in the Reichstag.

FRIDAY, JANUARY 13.—The situation at Manila is critical, but General Otis has avoided a conflict so far. . . . Representative Nelson Dingley, of Maine, chairman of the ways and means committee, and Republican leader in the House, died. . . . The War Department investigation commission returned General Eagan's statement to him for revision; the matter was discussed at the cabinet meeting. . . . Premier Sagasta has decided to convene the Cortes January 30th and demand ratification of the peace treaty. . . . Official denials were made in Berlin that the German Government was lending aid to the Filipinos. . . . It is reported that the Russian Government has formed a treaty of alliance with Afghanistan, despite the strenuous opposition of Great Britain.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 14.—The new Cuban local officials in Havana were formally installed in office; the North American syndicate which has obtained control of the street railways of

Havana paid over the purchase price, \$293,000. . . . It is reported that President McKinley intends to send President Schurman, of Cornell University, on an important mission to the Philippines. . . . The War Department received a dispatch from General Otis denying alarming reports regarding the situation in the Philippines. . . . The White Star line steamer "Oceanic," the largest ship ever built, was launched at Belfast, Ireland. . . . A public meeting of Uitlanders in Johannesburg was broken up by burghers and Afrikanders.

SUNDAY, JANUARY 15.—Advices from Iloilo report the disposition of the natives more friendly. . . . Both the Quay and anti-Quay forces are still claiming a victory in the Pennsylvania senatorship contest. . . . The builders of the battle-ships "Kearsarge" and "Kentucky," at Newport News, promise that those vessels will be ready to go into commission on July 1st. . . . As soon as the Cortes is convened the Spanish Government will ask authority to sell the Ladrões, Carolines, and Pelew Islands, in the Pacific. . . . The French court of cassation has made arrangements to grant a safe conduct to the fugitive Count Esterhazy, permitting him to visit Paris and testify in the Dreyfus inquiry. . . . The Transvaal has expended nearly £800,000 since 1894 trying to defeat the lease of Delagoa Bay to Great Britain.

MONDAY, JANUARY 16.—A plan for a school system in Cuba has been prepared, at the request of the President, by the superintendent of the bureau of education. A house to house sanitary inspection of Havana was begun. . . . The War Department has decided to try Commissary-General Eagan by court-marshal for his attack on General Miles; General Eagan returned his statement to the investigating commission with the abusive language stricken out. . . . President Schurman, of Cornell University, accepted an appointment on the commission to visit the Philippines. . . . By a vote of 422 to 74, the French chamber of deputies shelved for a month the Dreyfus-Picquart discussion. . . . The Rev. Dr. Charles Chiniquy, anti-Romanist lecturer, died in Montreal.

TUESDAY, JANUARY 17.—General Otis reports affairs quiet throughout the Philippines; there are no signs of trouble at Iloilo. . . . President McKinley ordered the trial by court-martial of Commissary-General Eagan for his attack on General Miles; General Eagan's revised statement was made public by the investigating commission. . . . John Russell Young, librarian of Congress, died in Washington. . . . Both houses of the legislature at Albany voted to send Chauncey M. Depew to the United States Senate. . . . The new Prussian budget shows a larger revenue and calls for increased expenditures. . . . The Reichsrath reassembled at Vienna and a motion was made to impeach the Austro-Hungarian ministry. . . . Rt. Hon. John Morley announces that he intends to retire from active

participation in the councils of the Liberal party.... Bolivia's president is reported to be awaiting reinforcements preparatory to attacking La Paz, the capital.

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 18.—In a battle in Samoa Chief Mataafa defeated Malietoa Tanus, who had been declared elected king; the German consul acted in opposition to the American and British representatives.... General Wood, military governor of Santiago, appeared before a Senate committee and stated that 50,000 soldiers would be required to maintain order in Cuba.... General Eagan was relieved from duty.... The Dervish force of Ahmed Fedil, numbering about two thousand men, surrendered to the British.... The Swedish parliament opened, and plans were proposed to strengthen the country's defensive power.

THURSDAY, JANUARY 19.—The charges and specifications against Commissary-General Eagan were placed in President McKinley's hands.... The cruiser "Newark" was ordered to Samoa.... The Russian Government is reported to have ordered six new warships.... The German federal council agreed upon a measure raising the capital of the imperial bank to \$33,700,000.... A convention between Great Britain and Egypt as to the government of the reconquered provinces of the Sudan was signed at Cairo.... The French chamber of deputies voted confidence in the court of cassation.

FRIDAY, JANUARY 20.—The President signed a new tariff for Porto Rico, to go into operation on February 1st.... The War Department issued an invitation for bids for transportation of the Spanish prisoners in the Philippines from Manila to Spain.... Enlisted men discharged in Cuba, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines will be provided subsistence and free transportation to the United States on Government transports.... The army hospital ship "Relief," now at New York, has been ordered to Manila.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 21.—Plans have been perfected for practice marches by the American troops throughout Havana province.... Secretary Hay held conferences with the British and German ambassadors in regard to the trouble in Samoa; it was announced that an amicable settlement would be reached.... Further arrangements were made for the trial by court-martial of Commissary-General Eagan.... The German foreign office reiterated its intention to disavow any illegal excesses of the German consul in Samoa.... Violent storms have swept over England and Wales.... The Pope's health is completely restored.

SUNDAY, JANUARY 22.—It is stated in Madrid that the Washington Government has given notice to Spain of its intention to endeavor to secure the release of the Spanish prisoners in the Philippines.... Dr. Brunner's report on the health conditions at Havana showed that there was a large decrease in the death rate.... Com-

missioner Robert P. Porter's report on a new tariff for Porto Rico was made public.... General Michael Annenkoff, the distinguished Russian engineer, who constructed the Trans-Caspian railway, is dead.... The British third-class warship "Royalist" has been dispatched from Wellington, N. Z., to Samoa.

MONDAY, JANUARY 23.—A colonial commission has been appointed by the Secretary of War to aid in the administration of affairs in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines.... Aguinaldo has authorized the release of the Spanish prisoners in the Philippines, it is said in Madrid, on condition that Spain recognize the Filipino Republic.... King Oscar, of Sweden, has retired in favor of his son Gustaf.... The foreign affairs of France were discussed in the chamber of deputies by M. Delcassé, who declared the French were anxious to settle all disputes with England and other countries harmoniously.

TUESDAY, JANUARY 24.—General Rios reported that the Filipinos had released the sick and wounded Spanish captives.... The Navy Department has decided to blow up the wreck of the "Merrimac" at Santiago.... Agoncillo, Aguinaldo's representative in Washington, sent a third request for recognition of the Filipino republic to Secretary Hay.... The Belgian premier has resigned and King Leopold has appointed M. Liebaert to succeed him.... The Greek earthquakes continue, but are of lighter force.... Bolivian rebels defeated the government troops in a battle at Curi Bay.

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 25.—Dispatches received in Madrid state that the movement of the Filipinos against American rule is growing.... The trial of Commissary-General Eagan before a court-martial began in Washington; he pleaded not guilty of the offences charged, but did not deny using abusive language regarding General Miles.... The Reichstag passed two readings of the measure repealing the anti-Jesuit laws.... It is proposed to establish two universities in Ireland, a Protestant institution at Belfast, and a Catholic one at Dublin.... German exports to the United States fell off \$15,000,000 during 1898, the chief decrease being in sugar.

THURSDAY, JANUARY 26.—The Filipino congress at Malolos authorized Aguinaldo to declare war whenever he considered it advisable.... The shooting of two Filipinos by Americans at an outpost near Manila adds to the critical nature of the situation there.... Cubans are disappointed that the United States will advance no more than \$3,000,000 with which to pay Gomez's soldiers.... Commissary-General Eagan testified in his own defence before the court-martial.... Augustus H. Garland, formerly Attorney-General of the United States, died.... At least 500 natives of the South Sea Islands are reported to have been killed by recent hurricanes.... The civil governorship of

Jamaica is to be abolished and the control of the island is to be vested in a general.

FRIDAY, JANUARY 27.—It was reported that the commission of the Cuban assembly was unsuccessful in obtaining assurances in Washington regarding the pay of Cuban troops. . . . The trial of Commissary-General Eagan ended; the court-martial rendered a verdict, which was not made public. . . . There is great excitement in Madrid over the court-martial of Jaudenes, late governor-general of the Philippines. . . . The German Emperor celebrated his 40th birthday in Berlin.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 28.—The agitation over the question of the payment of the Cuban insurgent troops before they disband continues persistent in Cuba. . . . The Iowa regiment at Iloilo has been ordered back to Manila. . . . The French Government will introduce a bill in the chamber requiring the united sections of the Court of Cassation to decide the Dreyfus application for a retrial; this is considered a blow to the revisionists. . . . The Spanish Cortes will be convoked on February 20th and will debate the Philippine and Cuban wars.

SUNDAY, JANUARY 29.—Better news comes from Iloilo, where a Visayan president has been elected friendly to the Americans. . . . The President has appointed Representative Sereno E. Payne, of New York, a member of the joint high Canadian commission. . . . The president of Mexico has appointed Manuel Aspiraz, assistant secretary of foreign relations, to be ambassador at Washington. . . . A wild Bonapartist demonstration took place at the Nouveau Theatre, Paris. . . . The Dreyfus agitation is again acute in Paris, because of the Government's proposed bill.

MONDAY, JANUARY 30.—Brigadier-General Thaddeus H. Stanton, paymaster-general of the army, was retired. . . . It is said that the Dowager Empress of China has selected the successor to the throne, but his identity is not divulged. The Emperor is still strictly guarded in the island palace. . . . The steamer "Chateau Lafitte" arrived at Barcelona from Cienfuegos with 350 repatriated soldiers, all seriously ill; there were fifty-six deaths during the passage.

TUESDAY, JANUARY 31.—The Filipino junta at Hong Kong has issued a manifesto, criticising the new American commission appointed to study problems in the Philippines. . . . The War Department has given orders for 7,000 reinforcements to proceed to Manila. . . . A mass-meeting in London, attended by 10,000 persons, sent a telegram to the queen asking that steps be taken to suppress Ritualistic tendencies in the Church of England.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 1.—Spanish troops upon the Island of Negros, in the Philippines, have been released by the insurgents. . . . The twenty-second United States infantry sailed for the Philippines from San Francisco. . . . The

War Department issued orders for the muster out of nearly 15,000 volunteers. . . . M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire, who resigned from the French Court of Cassation, charges that judges of the Court decided to declare Dreyfus innocent before examining the documents in the case. . . . The Reichstag at Berlin has passed the third reading of the motion to repeal the anti-Jesuit law. . . . The rebellion in the province of Anhoni, China, is increasing, and 10,000 rebels besiege Shu Chau.

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 2.—General Gomez gave satisfactory assurances that he would co-operate with the President and General Brooke for the disbandment of the Cuban army on a payment of \$3,000,000. . . . The United States transport "Buffalo" having on board men for Dewey's fleet, reached Manila. . . . The record of the court-martial which tried General Eagan was placed in the hands of President McKinley for final review. . . . Australian colonial premiers have reached a unanimous agreement, which seems to assure the success of the projected Australian federation; there is to be a federal capital like Washington or Ottawa, Can.

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 3.—The Anglo-American joint high commission has nearly completed a treaty covering questions at issue between the United States and Canada. . . . The French embassy at Constantinople made a protest to the Porte against the acquisition by Germany of a station on the sea of Marmora.

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 4.—The Filipinos attacked the American line at Manila, the battle lasting an hour, the insurgents being driven back; Admiral Dewey's warships shelled the enemy's position. . . . Turkey is making military preparations to repress an expected uprising in Macedonia; there is feverish excitement over the matter in Bulgaria. . . . The anti-Ritualistic agitation is dwarfing all other political matters in Great Britain. . . . A post on the upper Nile, held by a Belgian garrison, has been captured by Dervishes.

SUNDAY, FEBRUARY 5.—The fighting at Manila was renewed; the Americans were again successful, but their loss was heavy; dispatches were received from Admiral Dewey announcing the victory, and a later dispatch from General Otis said that matters were quiet in the neighborhood of the city. . . . The members of the insular cabinet of Porto Rico tendered their resignations to General Henry, the military governor of the island. . . . Colonel J. A. Sexton, commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, died in Washington.

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 6.—The senate ratified the peace treaty by a vote of 57 to 27. . . . Further details of the battles at Manila show that the fighting was fierce in character; the loss of the Filipinos is estimated at 1,900 killed and wounded; the rebels were driven back ten miles by the Americans.

CORRESPONDENCE — INQUIRIES ANSWERED

"THE SEAMY SIDE OF EMPIRE"

INFERIOR AND SUPERIOR RACES

The Editor of SELF CULTURE. Sir—

I WAS particularly interested in the article "The Seamy Side of Empire," by Professor Goldwin Smith, in the December issue of your very excellent magazine. Mr. Goldwin Smith has presented in this article some very impressive pictures from England's experience in India, and from them draws in suggestive outline a sketch for our careful consideration. His major proposition, though not stated in so many words, is that nature abhors a union of inferior and superior races under a common government,—a proposition well worthy of the consideration of all patriotic citizens who would see our Government administered so as to secure the greatest happiness of the governed. To apply the text to our discourse it may be stated in the plain language of the ploughman: "The white man and the nigger wont work in double team."

The proposition is true, and the examples cited by Mr. Smith are as forcible as words can make them, but the sociologist need not go so far to study the evil effects of such an unnatural and forced union of incompatible racial elements. Our own country will afford as convincing proofs of the futility of the effort and the failure of well-meant philanthropy, which would raise an inferior race by governmental edict to equal rights in free republican institutions and equal enjoyment of laws designed for a superior race.

A fair trial having been made in this matter under circumstances which could not but afford most peculiar advantages for the success of the experiment, our Government would, but for the wilful perversion of evidence and a determined blindness to the most potent facts, have acquired a wisdom that would save it from many blunders and serious errors in its present doubtful and dangerous toying with the togery of threadbare powers which, since the birth of this nation, have been to every student of philosophical government only an example of what we of America should not be. The investing of the negro in the United States with political liberty, and the attempt to use him in the economy of the government, have been failures. The philanthropic negrophile, whose sympathies are more strongly moved in inverse ratio to the distance of the affecting object, if he or she would ever admit mistake, would be obliged, after a review of the field, to

admit that the effect of the experiment has not been anything like what was expected or desired. But for the inherent strength and wonderful resources of self-preservation possessed by the American people, the error would have been a fatal one to the white race in this country. The people of the South, on whom the burden fell, are particularly strong in power of adaptation to circumstances and the maintenance of their equilibrium, and they have for thirty odd years been working out a problem as difficult as making a square peg fit a round hole. They have had to maintain a free government and harmonize incompatible elements of citizenship, keep in reasonable bounds a class of people brutal in their instincts, and to recognize them as political equals and to educate them and protect them. This had all to be done in the face of inimical forces from without, and even with threatening swords over their heads and bayonets at their breasts. They have not finished their task yet, and eternal vigilance is the price of peace to-day in the South.

Undisturbed by these outside forces, the water and the oil so carefully separated would have flowed on together in the same stream in different currents. This unnatural condition of affairs was met and adjusted in an unstable manner by having nominally a set of laws for all men and all women, while in fact there was and is in the South a code of unwritten laws, the real law of the land, springing from the necessities of the people and the will of the dominant element, which provides one law for the white man and one for the black. It is no injustice to the negro, for he cannot live up to the laws of the white man. I would that we were allowed to discard all speciousness and deception, but there is an authority higher than the people of this little corner of the world, which, though it has often been blind to departures from that instrument called the "bulwark of our liberties" when those departures suit New England, always, in its overweening conceit, presumptuously assuming and asserting itself to be the Union,—that power is always ready with the lash to enforce to the utmost the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution. Yet we are finding ways around these obstructions to civilization as surely as a stream of water will find its way around the mud banks that dam its course. So will natural justice in time find the light

among a people whom defeat could neither conquer nor cow. When we can freely say to the negro, "This is a government for and by the white man. All the fundamental rights of personal liberty and the enjoyment of private property will be given to you and be protected, but political rights are neither necessary for your earthly happiness nor essential to your soul's salvation and you need not expect them,"—then and then only will we have succeeded in solving the problem of keeping two races in harmony under the same government. Then there will be less of lynchings in this country, and the philanthropists may experiment to their heart's content in the development of pure and honorable moral qualities in the savage breast. But now, when we flatter ourselves that we have established an equilibrium between the contending forces, a foreign hand rolls the apple of discord among our people, and evils innumerable follow in its wake, while our by-standing neighbors on New England's barren, rock-bound coast find it easy to make remarks and to hold up their hands in pharasaical horror.

Mr. Smith touches a pregnant spring when he refers to the distrust and fear which is begotten in a superior race from forced association with an inferior one, and the mad excesses that flow when the foul stream of abhorrence is opened. We need not look to the history of the Sepoy rebellion for instances of horror. Unfortunately, nearly every state in the Union has afforded examples enough to teach the lesson which we would impress on your readers. Under the old condition of things there was love and a certain confidence between the two races in this country, protection on the one side and fidelity on the other, authority and respect, the watchful care of the owner and the willing service of the slave. *Ante bellum* times afford few examples of trouble and strife, and the few that are to be found may be said to have been the result, without exception, of outside agitation. It is well to remember that all that is said and written of those times to excite the sympathy of the class of philanthropists before referred to is not true. A liar occasionally gets into print, and because his lie is interesting, it does not follow that it is true. There were no jim-crow cars in those days. No signs "for whites only" met the traveller's gaze. There were no troubles incident to attempts at social equality and no lynchings. There is much said to-day of growing good feeling between the races in the South, but it is not true. Each day sees new causes of aggravation, new jealousies, new fears, new threats, and often new outbursts. The deluded philanthropist may hug his empty phantom of hope, but the great day of the millennium will come before he has a reality in his grasp.

The present administration is responsible for more trouble, present and to come, between the two races than all other administrations at the

Capital since the war. Glance over your newspaper files for the past two years and count the instances of crime and horrible tragedies directly traceable to the blind, vicious, and wickedly oppressive course of the present administration. Nor do your newspapers tell the whole story. Each little hamlet has its own part of the history to tell, of the outbursts of indignation and wrath over the presumptions of poor brutes intoxicated with a little empty bauble of power,—a few crumbs thrown them from the table of the "great."

There has been one very fruitful source of trouble, and it ought to be called forcibly to the attention of every citizen, and that is the very unwise course of the military authorities in arming and making soldiers of negroes. Especially marked have been the evil effects of this policy with respect to the volunteer army. These negro regiments have given endless trouble in nearly every camp and more or less in every one. The effect of the evil policy has, however, been more far reaching. The patronage of the administration had already paved the way for the devil to enter the race, when guns were put in negroes' hands and swords buckled by their sides. A devil like unto that which, finding his house swept and garnished after a period of tranquillity and peace, went out and got seven devils worse than himself to occupy the frail tenement of clay with him. It will require years of patience and many applications of strong counter-irritant to reduce this inflammation. The Government ought to have learned lessons enough from this late war never to put a gun or sword into the hands of a negro soldier. Let them war with the pick and shovel if they would serve their country—such service is badly needed when there is an army to be moved about.

In this country the conflict of the two races is between the opposite ends of the pole, the highest and the lowest development of the human family, where clashing might naturally be supposed to be less liable to occur and jealousies less prevalent. It is the attempt to forcibly lift the lowest into the same estate with the highest, and the unfortunate tendency of the depraved elements of the higher to sink to the level of the lower race, that has caused, and is causing, our trouble. In order to create a level between the two, according to the dreams of the fanatical philanthropists, the higher must be sunk to meet the lower.

Now I do believe that, though probably very unworthy tools, we of America are the instruments of a divine providence to teach the world liberty,—liberty of thought, liberty of action, liberty to worship God according to conscience, and liberty to rise nearer to the ideal of humanity which is but little lower than the angels. I think that our history proves it. Such conceptions of man's estate were begotten with this nation and came into the world at its birth. From America has radiated the blessed light

of liberty into all the world. It has crossed unmeasured plains, climbed inaccessible mountains whose peaks touched the sky, made broad paths across the trackless waters and wakened into life the most God-like of the attributes of humanity, and removed the restricting barriers to the perfect development of man. We have but lately touched with the genial beams of this light the last stronghold of the spirit of darkness and the horrid spectre of the Inquisition, in whose thralldom millions of human souls were held in bondage, and dissolved the heavy chains that bound them. The blood-stained throne of the last tyrant of the dark ages has been made to tremble, and the torture chambers of the iniquitous Spaniard will soon be cleansed of their horrors by the sun of human liberty.

We have followed no set plan in this work, we have been blind and often unwilling instruments in a divine hand, and however much we may now attempt to pervert our victory and blot our own escutcheon, the fact will soon be plain in history that our last war was a new crusade, and untold millions of posterity will bless us for what we have done.

Now as to the negro's place in this picture. Have we done aught to give these blessings to this perpetual infant of the human family? Did not our sanctimonious and puritanical New England friends, certainly as a blind, though history does not lead us to believe as an unwilling, agent, bring the negro into our civilization in spite of our protests, and sell him here for the gold that laid the foundations of the fortunes of that section? Where but around "ole massa's" fireside and in "ole massa's" church, and in company with "young boss and young miss," did they learn the A B C's of a spiritual and moral existence. Time came when that condition ought no longer, according to Divine plan, to exist, and our good friends from those same cold and barren shores, set to work to rob us of that which they had sold to us, because, forsooth, we were doing an evil in the sight of the peculiar god that they worshipped. Upon whom did the burden of guiding the wayward feet of an irresponsible people in the untried paths of freedom fall? Who had to teach them the difference between liberty and licence? For thirty odd years the negro has been the burden on our shoulders; a burden that has often proved almost too heavy for us to bear and we have staggered and faltered frequently under our load. We might have done better had our path been left open to us to tread, but agitation and aggravation have been like Pelion on Ossa piled.

Now we think we have done our part; we would like to see the Government stop experimenting at our expense with this unnatural and unholy yoking of races. We would like to be less hardly judged when we stumble and fall under our burden. We would like to be more perfectly understood by our own countrymen, but

we would like best of all to have forty acres and a mule given to every negro in America who could be gotten off to the far-away isles of the Pacific, there to establish a government of their own, to fight their own battles, be responsible for their own course in the world, and either develop into a higher order of humanity or fall back into the savage estate from which misdirected activities attempted to snatch them.

HARTWELL M. AYER.

OLAR, S. C.

★

I should be glad if SELF CULTURE would indicate how I may know a real from a spurious diamond.

The following three tests are made use of by amateurs in distinguishing a diamond from a crystal:—

(1) First boil the stone in boracic acid to preserve the polish on the surface of the stone. Heat the jewel in a gas flame and dip it in cold water while hot. If it is a diamond it will stand the test without cracking to pieces. If crystal, it will shatter and crumble into little balls.

(2) Take a cup of water (a black cup, gutta percha or any dark stone cup is best) and drop two stones into the water, the one a diamond or supposed diamond, and the other which is known to be ordinary crystal. The diamond, if a true one, will shine a clear white through the water and will be clearly visible while the other stone will blend with the water in such a way as to be almost imperceptible in the water.

(3) Take a surface of striped cloth or paper—red and white stripes are the best—and pass the stone slowly over the surface. If the colors show through the stone it is crystal. A diamond will not show the varieties of color but will look the same over the red as over the white stripes. Of course these tests are only for amateurs. There are numerous chemical tests made use of by expert diamond dealers, but these could not be used by anyone not an expert on the subject.

★

Kindly inform a reader how Carbide is manufactured.

Carbide is manufactured in the electric furnaces from ground lime and coke. The manufacturers of carbide have a patented process by which they produce it in the form in which it is found on the market, and this is about all that is known concerning its composition outside of the trade. The gas is produced afterward by the application of water to the carbide. It is a pure hydro-carbon gas, clear, colorless, lighter than air and is chemically described as C. H. If you visit the exhibiting rooms of Walmsley & Co., 732 Marquette Bldg., Chicago, where acetylene gas is generated, you may obtain further information on this subject.

Will you kindly inform me through what movements (called dancing) the Chorus in the Greek drama of "Electra," by Sophocles, should pass? Do they, in this, remain in one position or move about the altar? I am unable to find definite information as to the exact movement, and apply to SELF CULTURE.

If you will turn to any good classical dictionary you will find what were the functions and duties of the chorus in Greek plays and what is said in general of its place and movements. Of the chorus, the following is said by Professor Henry Nettleship in his edition of Dr. Oskar Seyffert's Classical Dictionary (Macmillan & Co.), and similar statements appear in Professor Harry Thurston Peck's (Harper & Brothers) Dictionary of Classical Antiquities.

The function of the chorus represented by its leader was to act as an ideal public, more or less connected with the dramatis personæ. It might consist of old men and women or of maidens. It took an interest in the occurrences of the drama, watched the action with quiet sympathy, and sometimes interfered, if not to act, at least to advise, comfort, exhort, or give warning. At the critical points of the action, as we should say in the *entr'actes*, it performed long lyrical pieces with suitable action of dance and gesture. The proper place of the chorus was on the orchestra, on different parts of which—after a solemn march—it remained until the end of the piece, drawn up standing in a square. During the action it seldom left the orchestra to reappear, and it was quite exceptional for it to appear on the stage. As the performance went on, the chorus would change its place on the orchestra; as the piece required it would divide into semi-choruses and perform a variety of artistic movements and dances. The name of *Emmeleia* was given to the tragic dance, which, though not lacking animation, had a solemn and measured character. There is no chorus in the Roman comedy, which is an imitation of the New Comedy of the Greeks. In their tragedies, however, imitated from Greek originals, the Romans retained the chorus, which, as the Roman theatre had no orchestra, was placed on the stage, and as a rule performed between the acts, but sometimes during the performance as well.

★

I am a studious reader of SELF CULTURE, and read its pages with much interest each month. I have an essay to prepare on Dante, and beg you to inform me on the following points:—

(1) Show by quotation that the "Divine Comedy" is a mirror of the age in which Dante lived,

(2) What is the form of the poem? Any information you may give me about the poem will be gratefully received.

We call your attention to the published "Note to Correspondents," which governs communications with the Magazine. If you will consult the librarian of your public library, he will be sure to put you on the track of getting the information you seek by referring you to some of the many works on Dante and his "Divine Comedy." Meantime, see the article on Dante which appeared in SELF CULTURE for September last.

The "Divina Commedia" was the first poem of note ever written in the Italian language. It is in the form of an epic, and is divided into three parts, entitled respectively: Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise. Dante called the poem a *comedy* because the ending is happy; and his countrymen added the word *divine* from admiration of the poem. The poet depicts a vision in which he is conducted first by Virgil (Human Reason) through hell and purgatory; and then by Beatrice (Revelation), the heroine of the poem, and finally by St. Bernard, through the several heavens, where he beholds the Triune God.

For your other matters, see the introductions to any of the varied English translations of the poem.

★

Will you please answer the following question: Which is considered the best character, passage, and quotation in Shakespeare's "Hamlet"?

Though you do not enclose stamp for reply, which our rule calls for, we answer your inquiry. Hamlet himself is not only the chief, but by far the best, character in the play. The soliloquy, though it is hackneyed,—

"To be or not to be,"

—may be said to be the most notable passage. The quotable briefer passages are many, such as that in act 5, scene 2:—

"There's a special providence
in the fall of a sparrow,"

or that in act 1, scene 2:—

"He was a man, take him for all in all,
I shall not look upon his like again;"

and in the same act and scene:—

"All that lives must die,
Passing through nature to eternity."

See also act 2, scene 2, Hamlet to Rosencrantz and Guildenstern, the finest passage, perhaps, of all:—

"What a piece of work is man! How noble in reason."

★

NOTE—Contributors of articles to SELF CULTURE will please observe that the magazine publishes neither fiction nor verse. Inquiries designed for this department must bear the writer's name and address, though not necessarily for publication.

SOCIOLOGY, CIVICS, AND ECONOMICS.

THE STUDY OF THE FUTURE IN THE LIGHT OF THE PAST AND PRESENT*

III.—THE APPROACHING AGE

THE tendency of progress must be, of course, to correct the evils which have been described in the preceding article as incidental to the second sub-era of the Commercial age. To determine how rapidly and by what means this tendency will be fulfilled, what will be the details of the process, and by what (if any) periods of retrogression it may be interrupted, would require, for the purpose of detailed analogy, much research into the past. And, as the process must differ in different countries, we should have to confine ourselves to one. For this purpose the United States affords the best example. In the earlier sub-era of the Commercial age the social conditions of this country were too new, its classes too intermingled, and its accumulated capital too small, to afford a normal example of progress. England is generally admitted to afford the best example of that sub-era. But the student of the future will find richer materials here. Here the older social forces, which are slowly dying elsewhere, never gained an entrance; while those which have their source in Commercialism are exceptionally active; and their action is more plainly discernible than elsewhere, because, owing to the political and legal equality of the people, and the absence of any dominating power not derived from them, each class endeavors to force its views upon the rest, and rivalries and struggles of all kinds are more bitter and determined. Besides this, the great variety and quantity of the country's products enable it to preserve, approximately, an economic isolation; and its strength is sufficient to protect it against any forcible foreign interference. These facts, combined with the great number of the races inhabiting it, its great extent, its localized and federalized system of government, and the great number of theories, social, economic, and theological, which have been tested by experiment within its limits, make it almost a world in itself. But deductions founded on the facts of history cannot be applied in this manner until we have a theoretical standard with which to compare them,—an ideal sketch of the course of future progress as it may be deduced from larger generalizations than any single nation supplies; and

such a sketch, as a necessary preliminary to any more specific forecast or policy, is all that can be offered in this article.

All progress tends toward an equilibrium; but at the present day every class possesses so large a share, not merely of constitutional power (for that might be altered by force), but of the education and inherited thought of the time, that an equilibrium of dominance is no longer possible. The new equilibrium must therefore be one of equipoise. It follows that every class will push its endeavors to maintain or improve its condition to the point at which either the benefit derived is no longer felt to compensate for the effort, or the class opposed to it is able to persuade it that further efforts must be fruitless. We have to consider where that point is.

The strifes of former eras, so far as they have been important to progress, have been between *social* classes. Such antagonisms also distinguish the present era. But they are not now the *only* important ones. The derangement of the social fabric caused by the introduction of machine-power is so general that the antagonism of classes separated by other than social lines is also important. Still, interest centres *chiefly* around the struggle of *social* classes.

In the Commercial Age mankind fall normally into two social classes, and two only. Of these the enterpriser and the wage-earner are the best-defined types. The social and professional affiliations and inherited sympathies of almost every man are with the one or the other. Landed proprietors, as a distinct class socially higher than either of these, are a survival from an earlier era, and have long been tending to amalgamate with the former. Yet the degrees of wealth are so various, and social coteries so numerous, that we are sometimes tempted to think that the social classes are numerous also; while the rises and falls of fortune are so much more frequent than formerly, and so easily followed by a corresponding change in social position consummated in the next generation, that we are tempted to think there is, after all, but one, and to regard all differences as individual. Class sympathies, especially on questions of politics and economics, and class feeling in regard to intermarriage, afford the real test, and show that the line is still there. But the tendency is distinctly

* Continued from SELF CULTURE for February, 1899, Vol. VIII, No. 6, p. 738.

toward its obliteration. And the theories of the Revolution as to the rights of man, though originally framed as a bulwark against the old aristocracy, give, nevertheless, an ethical support to this tendency toward amalgamation. But to any genuine amalgamation of social classes an approximate equalization of wealth is essential. Without this there can be neither class sympathy, nor approved intermarriage, nor equality of education and refinement, nor considerable social intercourse.

Wealth is either earned or unearned. We must consider the equalization of each separately.

With respect to earned incomes there is already a tendency toward equalization. The magnitude of earned incomes depends mainly on the ratio of the supply of efficient labor-power to the demand for it. It also depends largely on the various forms of influence. The efficiency of labor-power depends partly on natural aptitudes, and partly on technical education. In the higher callings a power of waiting some years without remuneration, while giving the whole time to professional work, is generally necessary. To equalize income, therefore, there must be: (1) A fitting of the calling to the man rather than of the man to the calling; for natural aptitudes are fixed, while callings are alterable. (2) Sufficient capital to defray the cost of preparation, the cost of subsequent outgoings, the cost (when necessary) of waiting, and the cost of establishing those personal or political relations which are often necessary to success. If, however, the first condition were fulfilled, and the fact known, the cost of the late items would be greatly diminished. The result is that if preliminary education were so moulded as to test the natural aptitudes of boys, and if a free technical education were given to each in the calling best suited to his nature, the ratio of the efficient supply of labor-power in each calling to the demand for it would be about equalized, the remuneration of the votaries of one calling as compared with that of another would be about equalized also, and there would be but little unemployment. No greater mistake can be made than to suppose that the fact that rare talent or expensive training is necessary to the prosecution of a calling will, of itself, make the remuneration of that calling high. It is only when, by reason of that requirement or otherwise, the supply of efficient labor-power is too small to meet the demand for it, that the remuneration is high.

It is true that, if efficiency varies among individuals in one and the same calling, the higher efficiency will command the higher return, except when influence is sufficiently strong to counteract it. But the higher remuneration of one individual than another in the same calling does not tend to perpetuate social distinctions to the same extent as the higher remuneration of the votaries of one calling

than those of another does. It does tend to perpetuate them, *in some degree*, and that for two reasons: First, because there is an element of heredity in it; for, though talent is not hereditary, good-will (*i.e. clientèle* or business connection) is; and secondly, because, owing to the existence of a great mass of wealth in individuals who give employment to exceptionally efficient men, larger fees are paid to them than would be possible if wealth were more equalized. But any approximation toward such equalization will check this tendency. As regards the incomes earned in manufacturing and commercial establishments, I am not sufficiently acquainted with their usages to know whether or not the way to the higher positions is generally open to those filling the lower. Whether they are or not, there must be many possessing aptitude for business enterprise who never have any connection with it even in its lower grades. Whether, if the educational system were so improved as to afford a test of capacity for such work also, there would be few or many found capable of such positions, it is idle to speculate; but if there should, under such an educational system, be found to be too few to supply the demand, then the remuneration of those few would continue very high, while if there should be too many it would fall to the level of ordinary skilled labor. The same principle would apply as in the case of professional men; but, in the case of salaried managers, though not in that of enterprisers personally conducting their enterprises, the hereditary element would be lacking; and, in the case of enterprises dealing in such goods as are used by men of small means, the profits, and therefore the managers' salaries, would not be diminished by the diminution of the incomes of the wealthy. But other reforms might prevent the accession to profit which results from the reduction of wages arising from the competition of efficient unemployed; and possibly that which results from the supplanting of workmen by machinery; and, consequently, the increase of managers' and enterprisers' remuneration which results from such accessions to profit. The result is, that in proportion as the movement toward the equalization of earned incomes progresses, it also gains in force; and, if unearned wealth were to become public property, an equalization of wealth, and therefore of refinement and social position, would be very closely approximated.

This brings us to unearned incomes. The equalization of wealth, so far as it consists of earned incomes, is to be effected by equalizing them; but, so far as it depends on unearned incomes it must be effected by vesting them in the public,—some in the nation, some in the state, some in the county, and some in the city. The public interest is here more diffused and less felt than in the former case, while the classes to whose interests it is opposed are powerful and

intelligent, and not likely to permit any injustice to be done them. But the public stands in great need of a fund for the advancement of civilization. It is therefore likely that, by slow and often indirect means, great changes will take place in the laws relative to unearned wealth.

Before that can take place, however, the theory of the subject must be well understood; and it is at present very badly understood, even by the advocates of the public claims. I have tried to elucidate it in the "*American Journal of Politics*," Vol. IV, p. 302, and will try to express myself concisely here.

Let us take first the simplest case, — that of land not producing by nature either game, timber, pasturage, minerals, or anything valuable; and let us avoid all question of confiscation by assuming that the land is still public property, so that when it is patented to an individual any rights the public may have can be reserved. Such land has no value (except anticipatory value) until labor has been bestowed upon it. A man who expects that labor will be bestowed upon it is willing to pay something for it; but what he pays is merely a discounting of part of the value which labor is expected to impart. An appropriation by the public of this anticipatory value, or of interest thereon, followed, after the bestowal of labor, by an appropriation of the whole of nature's share of the value resulting from labor, or of interest thereon, would amount to an appropriation of the same value twice. These anticipatory values may therefore be left out of consideration. The value conferred by labor is due partly to nature and partly to labor; but, as neither could alone produce any part of it, so no one can determine how much is due to each. Ricardo attempted to solve this difficulty substantially as follows: So long as all land in use yields equal returns to similar and equal labor, no part of the value is to be credited to nature; but if any piece of land yields more than another to similar and equal labor, then the difference between the value yielded by the piece under consideration and the piece which yields least value is nature's share of the former. This may be so; but unless we can ascertain the exact return which each separate piece of land in use would yield, we cannot tell which would yield the least value; and, until we know that, we cannot apply Ricardo's rule; and, if we could, we should have to revise our data every year, because the value of land and its products is continually changing, from causes independent of the labor bestowed. Ricardo's principle, therefore, owing to lack of data, cannot be applied. The use he made of it was to explain the considerations which influence landlord and tenant in fixing rents; and of course the principle would equally apply to the case of vendor and purchaser fixing price, if anticipatory values be left out of account. Ricardo cannot have supposed that landlord and tenant could really as-

certain the data, but his meaning was that they would make the best guess they could, and that their bargaining would be guided by that. And he did not attempt to separate the share of value produced by permanent improvements from that produced by nature, but classed both together, as the landlord's share, over against the value produced by annual labor, as the tenant's. When the question arises between the public and the individual the element of bargain is absent, and consequently the principle can only be applied when the data can be ascertained; and, besides, the value given by permanent improvements has to be separated from that given by nature. It is true the question might, each year, be arbitrated; but the arbitrator would generally make a guess very wide of the truth. The State might, indeed, make a bargain with the landlord to the effect that a specified price or rent should compound for all subsequent unearned increment; but this would be simply a sale or a fee farm grant, and would not substantially differ from present arrangements. Or, again, the State might stipulate that a fresh bargain should be struck every year, and that if ever the parties should disagree the State might resume the land. But that would be simply a yearly tenancy. The result is, that the only way in which the public can retain the unearned increment is by retaining the land itself, either utilizing it and selling the products, or letting it at fixed rents for short periods. I have examined the blue-book on the Irish fair-rent statute, but find that no attempt has been made there to apply Ricardo's or any other theory.

If the State, before parting with the land, improved it, the public would have the same claim on value accruing from the improvements as on value accruing from the land. If the improved land was confiscated in former times the same principle would apply, subject to any moral claim by the representatives of the confiscatees.

Natural products, such as game, timber, pasturage, and minerals, have a value in themselves, to which the labor of taking them adds very little; and the State ought to sell them at a price proportional to the quantity taken and fixed by demand.

If land is already in private ownership, and the owner sells it before the State has laid claim to the unearned increment, the value of the latter is partially or wholly compensated in the price. The public claim, therefore, becomes transferred to the purchase-money, and follows it into every investment by which it may be from time to time represented; and the purchaser of the land is discharged from so much of the State's claim as is fairly equivalent to the purchase-money. This is a fundamental principle of equity jurisprudence, and is founded on natural justice. The neglect of it by the Singletaxers is the foundation of the ethical

denunciations of their system. But from the same principle it follows that almost all wealth of considerable amount is, scientifically speaking, a form of unearned increment. For riches originated in this way: Land was confiscated or occupied, and its increment, together with the labor of slaves and serfs, was appropriated. It then became possible for the appropriators to pay high prices for rarities, and this enabled merchants to gain high profits. The merchants did *something* to earn these profits, but the desire for rarities did *more*, and the difference was simply a transfer of part of the fund representing unearned increment to the merchants. Then came professional men. Some were exceptionally skilful, and their skill commanded a rarity price which never could have been paid but for the unearned fund in the hands of the landlords and merchants and their representatives. The greater part of this rarity price, therefore, is a transfer of part of the same fund to them. The difference between the salary of an English judge and that of a German judge is a share of unearned increment. Then came manufacturers. The fact of their possessing or borrowing a part of this fund enabled them to make profits far in excess of what the "masterman" who worked among his journeymen could gain. The introduction of machinery, and other causes (especially the Irish evictions), so increased the ratio of the supply of laborers to the demand for them as to enable the employer to levy a "fleecing" upon each; which fleecing is unearned by the employer, and occupies, in his hands, the same position, scientifically speaking, as if it had been derived from the unearned increment of land. Its fruits, with the other unearned fund and its fruits, constitute the riches of the present day. The result is that all income above the average earnings of a skilled workman is, scientifically speaking, unearned; and the position of the Socialist is more logical than that of the Singletaxer. In saying this it is not meant to suggest that the steps by which riches accumulated can be retraced, but merely to set the theory of unearned increment in its true light.

What course may be actually taken on these questions it is hard to determine; but we may safely say that, if single tax should ever be attempted, it will, before long, be discredited by experiment. When the true theory comes to be realized, the first step will probably be to stop the sales of public lands, and to vest them in a non-political board for management like an English estate. If they are fairly well-managed the great gains which will accrue to the public will gradually lead to the purchase of other lands for a price to be paid in bonds bearing interest secured on the profits or rents of the purchased land. These gains, too, will gradually open the eyes of the people to the fact that they are the State, and that whoever filches from the State filches from them; and so

will prevent the fixing of extravagant prices on purchases by the State. Probably the purchase of railroads will long precede that of other real estate; for, though it involves the management of a species of enterprise, it is one in which bad work is easily detected; and their management under receivers has demonstrated that public management is possible. All enterprises of transportation, and those for supplying water or light or transmitting messages, fall under the same rule. Other enterprises will probably be brought increasingly under public control until the result approximates closely to an appropriation.

So much space has been devoted to the general topic of the equalization of wealth and the antagonism of social classes, that but little remains for the consideration of the strifes of classes divided by a merely economic line. But, vast and intricate as the latter subject is, so much has been written about it that I can present little that is new. The strife between employer and employed is merely the centre of the wider strife between social classes. To say much about it would be easy; its fundamental principles have already been stated. The great problem is how to direct supply, whether of wares or of labor-power, into the channels prescribed by demand. This would be easier if demand were less fluctuating and supply more easily accommodated to it. Demand would be less fluctuating if fashion were less regarded; if the acquisition and loss of fortunes were less frequent; if wholesale dismissals did not occur; if unemployment did not, by competition, pull down wages. Demand, therefore, would be less fluctuating if wealth were more equalized. Supply could be more easily accommodated to it if the amount and direction of demand in each locality could be made known elsewhere. But, *generally*, a calling which is overcrowded in one locality is so everywhere. The only remedy of general utility is, therefore, to teach the unemployed new callings. This requires, however, that undermanned callings should be chosen; and therefore that it should be ascertained which are undermanned. To bring about any of the above intermediary results requires the intervention of the State, or of some vast philanthropic association armed with power to institute the necessary investigations. That wages should have a definite ratio to profits is also very desirable; but the instruction of the unemployed in new callings, together with free technical instruction for the rising generation, would approximate this result automatically. The result is, that as between employer and employed the interference of the State, but not its ownership, is necessary.

As between buyers and sellers the fairness of prices and the prevention of deception are the only important points. The former has assumed great importance from the fact that many modern enterprises necessitate a great

expenditure on fixed capital, and therefore cannot be abandoned or transferred to another locality without great loss. It follows that they cannot enter on a course of underselling one another without the ruin of all except the one who may longest survive. Hence the necessity of coming to an arrangement as to the prices to be charged. But such an arrangement does not remedy the evil unless adhered to; and, if adhered to, it enables them to charge exorbitant prices, except when such a course so diminishes sales as to diminish profits. Hence a strong public opposition to such arrangements has set in, and attempts have been made to suppress them by law. The only possible remedy is to permit such arrangements, but prohibit exorbitant prices; and this involves the determination of fair prices by some other standard than supply and demand. But any other standard involves an examination of the books of the concern, and this involves State interference.

The prevention of overproduction, with its crop of bankruptcies and of dismissals from employment, is another evil, which can hardly be prevented without the amalgamation of enterprises, and leads to the same necessity of fixing prices irrespectively of competition.

Further remarks on the economic aspects of the future must be omitted, and the only other subject to which it is necessary to refer is that of Institutions.

When legislation deals with fundamental social conditions it can only be understood by specialists. The object of the sociological education of the people must be to impart to them that degree of knowledge which will make them conscious of their own ignorance. Many of the American people take a loyal interest in questions of social and economic policy, but get only just so far as to believe that they are perfectly competent to decide questions which they really know little about. The result is that they become the dupes of charlatan writers, who seek, by their arguments, to gratify the wishes of one class of the community or another. They acquire a habit of reasoning in verbal propositions, without pausing to think of the thing signified,—a habit fruitful in false, but seemingly clear, demonstrations, generally arising from a use of the middle term in different senses. It is not to be expected that men whose minds are necessarily centred on other things should master an abstruse science; and all that can be hoped is to convince them of the necessity of deputing specialists to make their laws for them, and specialists who are free from partisan ties. It is here that our party system is so great a barrier to progress. Like a canker, it eats into every department of national life.

So long as incomes are to be gained by supporting certain theories, reasoning will be warped. The next step, therefore, after instructing the people, should be to place all paid positions on a non-partisan basis. If the result

be to do away with parties altogether, the gain will be very great. Parties introduce the spirit of war into council, and found policy on emotional excitement rather than on reasoning, and on sordidness rather than on patriotism. While a nation is feeling its way toward the democratic form of government, parties are unavoidable. After it has reached that point, parties, until they reconstruct themselves on purely economic lines, become mere engines for facilitating corruption. The rise of the Labor party indicates that parties are about to re-form themselves on such lines, as they have already done in parts of Australasia; and, when that happens, facilities for corruption will be lessened. Meanwhile the initiative and referendum have been suggested as remedies. But those measures are really only suited to a nation which has passed through a training similar to that of the Swiss. The referendum can neither abrogate bad laws nor promote good ones; and it would prevent the passage of any law, however approved as a whole, which should contain any clause to which any considerable body of voters might object. The initiative would lead to the introduction of a number of absurd bills simply because people are good-natured enough to give any proposal a hearing; and, as a popular vote is required for its defeat, it would impose great trouble on opponents. Besides, it would not help the people to think. A much better method would be to have each measure discussed in town meetings, chambers of commerce, law associations, etc., and to trust that any legislator who might prove unwilling to comply with public sentiment would be replaced at the next election. But the readjustment of party lines by some fundamental principle with far-reaching implications is the remedy to which we are tending.

H. W. BOYD MACKAY.

★

"THE Theory of the Leisure Class," an economic study in the evolution of institutions, by Thorstein B. Veblen, instructor in Political Economy and managing editor of the "Journal of Political Economy" in the University of Chicago, is the title of a book to be published at an early date by The Macmillan Company, New York. The book deals with the leisure class as an institution, and gives an account of its rise and development, and of its place as a factor in the culture of to-day. The aim throughout of the work is to bring out the relation of the leisure class to the economic side of modern life. The argument traces the influence of the class, and of its standards and ideals, upon current opinions, usages and habits of life, particularly as affecting industrial activity and the consumption of goods. Incidentally, a curious light is thrown upon many current practices and convictions, as the argument takes up the economic bearing of many elements of modern culture which are not ordinarily discussed from this point of view.

WOMAN AND THE HOME

AN interesting course of ethical and philosophical literature, prepared by the Rev. Mary Garard Andrews of Omaha, for the study of her club department in philosophy, is as follows:—

Essay on Goethe	<i>Emerson</i>	Ethics, the Business of Life	<i>Hardy</i>
The Tragedy of Faust	<i>Goethe</i>	The Spirit of the New Education	<i>Hopkins</i>
Wilhelm Meister	<i>Goethe</i>	Science and Morals	<i>Huxley</i>
The Wisdom of Goethe	<i>Blackie</i>	Essay on Compulsory Morality	<i>Mathews</i>
The Sorrows of Werther	<i>Goethe</i>	Development of the Child	<i>Oppenheim</i>
German Thought	<i>Hildebrand</i>	The Relation of Art to Morals	<i>Ruskin</i>
On the Heights	<i>Auerbach</i>	Ethics of the Dust	<i>Ruskin</i>
Goethe and Schiller	<i>Mundt</i>	Little Foxes	<i>H. B. Stowe</i>
Goethe and Schiller	<i>Muhlbach</i>	Practical Ethics	<i>Sidgwick</i>
Laocoon	<i>Lessing</i>	Social Rights and Duties	<i>Stephens</i>
Philosophy of Art	<i>Hegel</i>	Moral Teaching of Science	<i>Fisher</i>
Goethe and Schiller	<i>Barlet</i>	Four Phases of Morals	<i>Blackie</i>
Poetry and the Drama	<i>Schiller</i>	Ethics of Kant <i>Classical Library</i>	
Piccolomini	<i>Schiller</i>	Ethics—General, Individual, and Social	<i>Martensen</i>
Essay on Lessing	<i>Lowell</i>	Works of Fiction	<i>George Eliot</i>
Nathan the Wise	<i>Lessing</i>	Works of Fiction	<i>Victor Hugo</i>
Emilia Galotti	<i>Lessing</i>	Ethics of the New Testament	
Minna von Barnhelm	<i>Lessing</i>		
Prose Works of Lessing	<i>Bell</i>		
De Stael's Germany	<i>Madame de Stael</i>		
		POEMS	
Human Understanding	<i>Leibnitz</i>	In Memoriam	<i>Tennyson</i>
Pure Reason	<i>Kant</i>	The Light of Asia	<i>Edwin Arnold</i>
The Religious Aspect of Philosophy	<i>Ryce</i>	The Book of Psalms	<i>David</i>
Essay on Ethics	<i>Emerson</i>	Caliban Upon Setebos	<i>Browning</i>
Elements of Ethics	<i>Muirhead</i>	Ode on Immortality	<i>Wordsworth</i>
Outline of Ethics	<i>Dewey</i>	Ode to Duty	<i>Wordsworth</i>
Types of Ethical Theories	<i>Martineau</i>	Eternal Goodness	<i>Whittier</i>
An Ethical Movement	<i>Sheldon</i>		
Christian Ethics	<i>The Epistle of St. John</i>		

★

A YOUNG matron was heard to say at a reception the other day: "I am going to take up the study of philosophy. I want to understand myself and my actions, and to tabulate those actions and classify myself. I want to know the definition of things. I want to find out why I think as I do, and what relation such thought bears to my antecedents, and the relative possession of my will to my instinct. I wish to know myself."

"Well, I think you'll enjoy the knowledge," replied an elder woman who was listening. "At least, all the rest of us enjoy knowing you, though I may as well confess that part of the delight which we have taken in your acquaintance has been because of your perfect subjectivity. You alone, of all of us, seemed to enjoy life without knowing why. You have not reflected. You have laughed. You have sung. You have danced. You have been a good wife and a lovely mother. You have been a true friend. You like every form of innocent enjoyment, and you have not questioned why. I have often remarked to my husband that you were the natural woman, cultivated, but not

spoiled by civilization. Now you are going to start on an excursion down the melancholy paths of objectivity. You are going to question and consider and contemplate, and perhaps, after a time, you are going to doubt. I see it is inevitable that you are to become as sad and sophisticated as the rest of us. Then you will dance because it is the fashion, you will sing to please others or to win a reputation, and you will laugh merely to apprise those about you that you have a sense of humor."

"Why, you are deprecating knowledge!" cried the beautiful young matron. "Do you want me to remain an ignoramus?"

"No, my dear. But you have something better than philosophy or metaphysical knowledge. You have sane, natural, innocent, exuberant impulse. You live. You do not contemplate life. You are young in an age when all seems old and jaded and gray. When you are learned I shall endeavor to congratulate you—but you must not expect me to forget how lovely you have seemed to us in your sweet unconsciousness."

★

PERHAPS this same elderly woman might have said, had she been questioned upon the subject, that there is also a mistaken contemplation of child-life in these days. "Child-study is doing some aggressive work in the homes and the schools, and the deductions are often far from being consistent. The cold scrutiny of children, which takes into account the first flutter of a baby's hands, the first inarticulate cry of its little lips, and follows it up through all the fair years of its early life, is a nuisance, and, to a great extent, a mistaken activity. Mothers who deeply love their children and understand them, even when the bewildered little soul looks out of its muteness and helplessness, know that these professional students of child-life are getting only at the appearance of things. They know that the child and its soul, and the fits and starts of its mind, are mysteries, and to a great extent must always remain so. They realize that the child is born with its temperament and spirit formed, and that this is the greatest of mysteries. They know that there is an individuality in children which makes all dogmatic classifications absurd and vain; and they daily see transgressions of the rules which the child-students lay down as positive laws. It is the instinct of women who truly love children, and who have them, to resent the scientific scrutiny of the little ones, for they feel that science can-

not understand, nor set forth, nor make comprehensible, the illusive soul of a human creature. In fact, it comes over women now and then—for they are born with intuitions, and they have convictions which are their heritage—that science fails often and often in matters relating to them and to their little ones. They may consider it a duty to be grateful to science and to be patient with it, yet, with a wisdom that is not of books, they smile and hold their peace many times when physicians and theorists, child-students and kindergartners, teachers and preachers, talk to them with loud assertiveness. Men, in sudden resentment at the limitations of exact knowledge, may now and then cry out against “the bankruptcy of science,” but women think of it, in their way, much oftener than do the men—partly because they are not so well acquainted with the actual achievements of science, but chiefly because, as said before, at the beginning of things, a subtle instinct came to them, which made them know much without the learning. Perhaps the first woman got it from the serpent, who was also subtle and very wise. Erda, the All-Mother, had it. Other women, not mythical nor famous, often have it too.

★

THE question of the fireside versus a business or professional life for women is, says Emma Upton Vaughan, of Pittsburg, Kan., rightfully being much discussed. Rightfully, for it is a vital question, not only to women, but to men. Indeed, that last is an unnecessary statement, for whatever affects the one affects the other. The tide of public opinion is clearly setting in favor of relegating woman back to the home, and censuring her if she refuse to return there. But the problem is hardly ever accurately stated. It seems always to be taken for granted that all women have two things to choose between—the home and the working field. Now, these are not the alternatives that are offered to at least half of our women wage-earners. The only choice given them is between independence—at least so long as health lasts—with such a fireside as they can make for themselves, and dependence, with some thing very like servitude, in another woman's home.

There are few places so unhomelike as some one else's home! One can feel more at home in a hotel. Hawthorne touched a truth when he spoke of the “life-long chill of a man who tries to warm himself at other men's hearths.”

Of these alternatives any brave, self-respecting woman will choose the former, and she is to be commended for her choice. And to be congratulated, too, on having the chance to choose. Thirty years ago she did not have this choice. Then, when the “changes and chances of this mortal life” left a woman homeless, she had either to take the first offer of marriage that presented, or “make her home”

with some relative or friend, nearly always occupying the position of a servant, *minus* the wages. I am glad I live now, for neither of these would be more than endurable. Nor is womanhood, since the change, either dead or dying. Under the tailor-made coat beats the same woman heart that thrills under the evening tulle and lace; there is the same need of love and love-giving, the same longing to give up to a stronger will and then to nestle under its protection, the same old beautiful ideal of a home where “he is king, and she is queen.” Give the woman who so bravely faces the world because she must the chance, and see how quickly and happily she will return to the home, with its joys and duties.

But there is another class who do merit the tide of disapproval that is setting in against them. These are the women who have a home and adequate support and who work outside, simply for more pin-money. They intend to make the work only a temporary means to a temporary end, and so do poor work cheaply. Their living costs them nothing, and they can and do enter the labor-market and underbid and drive out those who must make an entire living. This is the class that should be promptly put back into their fathers' or husbands' homes. They will find plenty to do there, if they do it well, and can fitly employ their leisure in the church and in charity work that their less-favored sisters do not find time to do. Less favored, I repeat, for there is no manner of doubt that the home-sheltered woman has more chances of happiness than has her bread-winning sister.

★

JANE ADDAMS has an interesting article in the “Atlantic Monthly” for January, on “The Subtle Problems of Charity,” in which she explains the difficulties of benevolence, and points out the pitfalls of sympathetic sociology, better than almost anyone else could have done. In the course of her paper she incidentally remarks that it is a perplexing thing to know when our affection for the human race becomes large enough and real enough to induce us to care for the unworthy among the poor as we would care for the unworthy among our own kin. Miss Addams touches upon one of the most distressing inconsistencies in Christendom. Christ was the friend of sinners, but his followers are largely composed of very respectable men and women who do not feel justified in helping the “unworthy.” There are certain institutions of merciful intent which they will not assist or countenance because it would “encourage moral laxness.” They forget the scene in the house of Simon, the leper. Neither will they help men and women with habits of improvidence or intemperance. They possess, in fact, a spruce, snug and smug religion, associated with well-kept front yards, neat church clothes, and perfect propriety of deportment.

and their benevolence is not large enough to allow them to hide beneath it the ugly weaknesses and the irritating frailties of human nature which they find in those whom it is their first easy impulse to assist.

Miss Addams takes it for granted, however, that the unworthy are cared for by their kin. She overestimates the patience and generosity of spirit of Americans as a whole; for while there are many cases of the most heroic loyalty to those who have brought shame upon honorable names, yet too often the wrongdoer in a family, after a few half-angry attempts at reformation, is cast aside and allowed to go his sad road, knowing that he is disowned by those he loved in his youth, and still loves with that yearning which is the lot of the damned, realizing that his temptations have not been understood, and conscious that what is good in him has been overlooked or depreciated.

All this is pitiful enough, but the case is yet more pathetic when, as often happens, the self-righteous family has been at fault, more or less, for the wrongdoings of the black sheep. The dull homes, the sullen fathers, the irritable, exacting mothers, the absence of light-heartedness and mirth and the joy of life, are to blame, very often, for the estrangement from home of those of the family who are pleasure-loving. If the father and mother be of a serious turn of mind, quiet and decorous, frugal and industrious, they have little patience if a child of light spirit comes into the household, forgetting that God made butterflies and singing birds as well as plough horses, and that one is as much a part of creation as the other. There is a very foolish idea in some houses, that noise is an offence, and that the children must be quiet. They must keep still when father comes home, they must not talk much at the table, they must not make a noise in the evening when father wants to read; on Sunday afternoon they must on no account amuse themselves. In fact, the whole scheme of parental training appears to be a negation, a refusal. In such an atmosphere talent dies or becomes warped, generosity is frozen in the heart, joy perishes, obedience ceases to be a privilege. The girls elope with the first man who understands how to laugh and love; the boys go in search of amusement, which too often they find in the saloon.

The subject is an old, and possibly a tiresome, one. But the condition still exists and so it is difficult to avoid commenting upon it. So many parents habitually say, "No." "May we blow soap bubbles?" say the children. "No," says the mother promptly. "Then may we go out into the yard and play?" "On no account," the father declares. "What can we do then?" "Sit still and read," say father and mother together. "Here are all these books we have provided—" "But we have read those!" "Then read them over again. Or improve your minds with something else. You're get-

ting quite old enough to read a little history. But you're never contented unless you are reading stories. How do you expect to get an education that way?"

Ennui, disgust, and rage devour the child who is thus repressed. All that is most sullen and unlovely in him comes to the surface. He suspects that he is not loved; his pride is injured, and he naturally thinks with irritation of those who have injured it. It is true that parents are often fatigued and worried, but quite as often this unintentional injustice to their children arises from a sort of mental indolence. They will not go to the trouble to help the children to happiness.

There was once a mother with several children, who, being a poor woman, had all of her household work to do. She often toiled far beyond her strength, yet she was never too busy to get up some little scheme for amusing the children, and, as years taught her experience, she devised something at the outset of a busy day. She took half an hour to start the mimic housekeeping in the playhouse; or she began the building of a fort and got out the toy soldiers; or she took a stick, if the morning was in summer, and addressed it thus: "You look like a stick, but you are really a little shepherd boy with long brown hair hanging down your back. You are dressed in goatskins, and you have a little pipe in your hand, on which you can play the most beautiful tunes. Over yonder are wild and savage mountains (pointing to the wood pile and the hillocks by the orchard), but there are no recesses in them so wild that you do not know them. There are no caves which you cannot find, and we shall probably need these caves very much, when we are chased by robbers or by hungry wolves. Also you know where the kind and good people live who will give us goat milk to drink and cakes of brown flour to eat. Perhaps you know the peasant's hut where the fairy princess is hidden, and may help me to return her to her mother, the Queen, who weeps for her in a gorgeous palace of pink glass." With that the mother would hand over the stout little stick she had cut to the child, who, wide-eyed and smiling, stood waiting to receive it, and who ran with it toward the wood pile to begin the ascent of the mountains, whose towering peaks were visible to the eyes of her imagination.

The child, entranced with the story, and at her own elaborations of it, would not return till the hour for dinner, and then she would come in, glowing and with an appetite; while the mother, who had been without the vexatious interruptions of an uneasy little girl, was eager to greet her.

A little boy came home from school a few days ago, very hungry, as little boys will be on such occasions.

"I do wish I could have something to eat," he said, pleadingly. His mother was entertaining callers and she looked up somewhat

impatiently. "I don't think there's a thing for you, Karl," she said. "It's all nonsense, anyway, this nibbling all the time. You'll not eat dinner if you lunch all through the day." And she addressed herself once more to the callers. The little boy grew still hungrier as the possibility of acquiring food grew dim, and he sat down heavily in the dining-room chair, conscious of a headache, and wondering if he was going to cry. He had a little friend with him, and the friend offered sympathy. It happened that, having a penetrating and high-pitched voice, his words reached to the drawing-room, where, in a lull in the conversation, they made themselves audible with great distinctness.

"You'd better come and have part of my mamma with me," said the friend. "When I come home she says: 'Bless my soul, I guess my boy's hungry! If he'll tag me he'll get a glass of milk and a cookie.' Some mammas has more sense than other mammas. They're born so, I guess."

There was nothing for the ladies in the drawing-room to do but laugh, and the one who had received this frank rebuke, made the best of the situation by excusing herself while she went to the kitchen to request cook to get ready a small banquet of the sort boys enjoy.

One mother, who recently moved to the country, taking up a claim in a thick woodland, and sending her seven-year-old boy to a school three-quarters of a mile distant, through the unbroken woods, had the trees along the path placarded at a distance of every hundred feet with little legends of this sort: "Dear boy, Hal, this is the path home," "Come right up this little hill, dear fellow," "Now you turn here and come on," "Hurry up, you dear rascal," "Don't be late for dinner," "Mamma's waiting for you," "Just a bit more and you are—" "Home!" The last notification brought him to the clearing and the sight of the little house. So, all the way along the woods, where the dusk falls early in winter time, the little child was coaxed, and guided, and cheered with love-messages. What wonder that his feet refused to stray from the beaten path, and that he ran on, singing or happily thinking a boy's "long, long thoughts" till home was actually reached?

★

EVERYONE who wants to know the world and the ways of it, should occasionally visit a village. She who lives in a city sees human nature in such masses that she loses sight of the individual. Her friends are few, no matter how large her calling list may be, and such friends as she has are likely to be selected because of congeniality and similarity of taste. She therefore forgets the simpler and serener ways of women, and is not cognizant of the way in which the women of the villages amuse themselves. For one thing, home-made music plays a much larger part in village, than in city, life. There are "musical circles" in the city,

to be sure, but they are composed of persons skilled in music, who have studied under masters, and who are either professionals or wealthy dilettanti; or they are "orchestra folk" whose music stands for daily bread. But the care-free, hearty enjoyment of music which characterizes many villages is unknown. The village band of young men and women, the church choirs, the "musical evenings," at which everyone invited sings, are almost unheard of in the city. What is more, many of the city women, who are quite sure that they understand all about style and method and all, would be surprised could they hear the vigorous harmonious effects produced by a company of village singers who were enthusiasts. A lady once said:—

"I believe the singing habit to be indispensable in a village. In a small community the people are almost certain to wear on one another. They have differences of opinion, which they exaggerate in the heat of controversy, they get into silly church rivalries, and are violently partisan over immaterial matters. But a number of good singers in the community can cause many of these absurd disagreements to be forgotten. Serenades on summer nights, choir practice, the learning of new ballads, and the study of anthems—how laborious that study sometimes is—bind the people together. I grew up in a musical family, and my mother employed music as a means of control, and very effective it was. When we became fault-finding with each other, or got to teasing as children will, mother's strong, rich soprano would be lifted above the jangle in some song which we all loved. Singing came natural to us, and we could no more hear another singing and not want to join in, than a sheep can see the flock going over a gate and not wish to follow. So our discord was drowned in harmony."

In an age of such cultivated taste as this, the plea for native and uncultivated music can hardly be popular. But the fact remains that the ballad is most at home with the common folk in the sitting room, after work hours. Such people are the ones who really enjoy the ballad, and perhaps it might not be going too far to say that it is such people whom the ballad really enjoys.

ELIA W. PEATTIE.

★

THE Twentieth Century club of Boston entered some time ago upon a systematic study of the tenement-house problem in Boston. The results of its investigation have been made public in a pamphlet prepared by Mr. Harold K. Estabrook.

★

WHEN it comes to be realized by the great majority of the universe that severity and harshness are usually the result of a poverty of intellect that fails to comprehend human nature, and that charity, sympathy, gentleness, and good feeling are the sure fruits, not only of a kindly heart, but of an educated brain, a long step will have been taken towards the increase of human welfare and happiness.

ART AND MUSIC

DEATH-ROLL OF ENGLISH ARTISTS IN 1898

IN 1896 three men prominent in the art-world of Great Britain passed from the land of the living—Lord Leighton, Sir John Millais, and William Morris. The same year three British artists of lesser talent—Edward Armitage, Alfred W. Hunt, and George du Maurier—ceased from their labors. Seldom is it that the annual death-roll of British artists includes so many illustrious names. The year just ended is also memorable for its losses, four of the leading painters of England having died in 1898,—Henry Stacy Marks (January 9), William C. T. Dobson (February 1), Philip H. Calderon (April 30), and Sir Edward Burne-Jones (June 17). Only one of them, the last, was an artist of international reputation, yet all were honored and prosperous in their lives, and eminently successful in their chosen profession. Their careers well repay study, and are worthy of more than passing notice.

Henry Stacy Marks was a man of extraordinary energy and versatility, who achieved distinction in several departments of art, as a painter in oils and water-colors, a book-illustrator and a decorative artist. He was born in London, September 13, 1829. His father was a carriage-maker, who expected his son to carry on the same business. The boy early displayed an aptitude for drawing. At the age of eight, while on a visit to the country with his father, he occupied himself by making pencil sketches of rural scenes. His love of art developed as years went by, and at sixteen he was painting portraits of workmen in his father's shop. It was with difficulty that he succeeded in getting instruction, for art-schools were then not numerous in England. He eagerly availed himself of the opportunity to join an evening class in drawing, and later studied at Leigh's private art-school. In 1851 he was admitted as a student in the training school of the Royal Academy.

In January, 1852, Marks went to Paris with his friend Calderon, who was his inseparable companion. They had one small room for a lodging and got their meals at cheap restaurants, for strict economy was necessary. It was a rather disagreeable winter for the struggling art-student, but rich in opportunity. He became a pupil at Picot's atelier, and later in the *École des Beaux-Arts*. Spring came and brought more pleasant experiences. He greatly enjoyed walks in the open air and visited many of the celebrated places in and around Paris. "Sunshine without and sunshine within warmed us in those delightful Paris days," he writes in

his charming autobiography, "before the battle of life had begun, when hope was high and care unknown!"

Marks's first picture, a half-length figure of Dogberry, was accepted at the Royal Academy in 1853, and was soon sold for fifteen pounds, a large sum of money to the artist then. "For several years after the sale of 'Dogberry,' I continued painting, at rare intervals selling a picture, doing any wood-drawing that came in my way, or portraits at a pound or thirty shillings apiece—living, in fact, from hand to mouth." ("Pen and Pencil Sketches," Vol. I, p. 52.)

The subject of his next Academy picture—"Toothache in the Middle Ages" (1856)—was a laughable conception, which showed his original bent. He was fortunate to find a purchaser in Mr. Mudie, of library fame, for a long time his friend. Thereafter, for forty years, Marks was represented in the Academy and other exhibitions. He was elected an associate of the Royal Academy in 1871 and a full member in 1878. He was also connected with the Society of Painters of Water-Colors, and produced some capital works of this class. He was not only happy in his conceptions (as in "The Princess and the Pelican"), but infinitely careful of details. To use his own words, he "liked, when possible, to be correct."

While Mr. Marks's popularity is chiefly due to his gift of humor, a quality displayed to advantage in many of his *genre* works, such as "Beggars Coming to Town," "Three Jolly Post-Boys," etc., he is famous for his drawings and paintings of birds. His "St. Francis Preaching to the Birds" (1870), "The Ornithologist" (1873), "Convocation" (1878), "Hermit and Pelicans" (1888), and others, show not only the ornithologist's familiarity with bird-life, but the faculty for seeing and depicting a humorous situation. He produced "some of the choicest bits of character and humor that have ever appeared on the walls of the Royal Academy." He evidently delighted in contrasts, which appealed to his genial nature, like "Mind and Muscle" (1894), a spare, intellectual-looking priest greeting a stalwart, good-natured blacksmith.

Mr. Marks was an industrious worker in other fields. He was remarkably successful as a decorative painter, and gave much of his time to the work of decorating the walls of churches, theatres, and other buildings in London and elsewhere. He was not content with dull, conventional designs, and led the way in many

artistic innovations. Says a well-known critic: "It is Mr. Marks who has introduced and made familiar to us the delightful blending of colors and quaint delicacy of form and design pervading the fashion of the day in the thousand and one matters that can be affected by such art as his; and for this welcome reform he deserves our warmest thanks." A proscenium frieze that he designed and painted for a Manchester theatre represents "Shakspeare enthroned between Tragedy and Comedy," surrounded by the principal characters in his plays. His masterly picture of "The Bookworm" (1871) forms a panel for the library at Crewe Hall. The subjects of other mural decorations for private houses are Shakspeare's Seven Ages and Chaucer's Canterbury Pilgrims. He took special pleasure in painting a room of birds for the Duke of Westminster. There were twelve panels, in groups of three, of which the artist remarks: "As I wished to include birds of all shapes and sizes, of different climes and conditions, from the Indian adjutant to the humble English wagtail, the cockatoo from Australia, the macaw from South America, the African crane, and the European stork, I imagined them in a fairy garden, an ornithological Walhalla, where no bird quarrels with another, but is content with the climate, conditions, and surroundings of its present abode." This unique idea was successfully executed and called forth many testimonials of praise from distinguished painters of Great Britain.

Marks was a popular man with his brother-artists, because of his unaffected naturalness and his "habit of seeing everything on its ludicrous side." His quaint and amusing conceits made him a favorite also with the general public.

William Charles Thomas Dobson, the son of an English merchant residing in Hamburg, was born in 1817; he was brought to England when a lad. Though the career of a painter was a rather unpromising one in Great Britain then, his fondness for art determined his destiny. He studied at the Royal Academy (1836) and for a while under Sir Charles Eastlake. His technical proficiency secured for him the appointment of Head Master of the Birmingham Schools of Design (1843-45). Then he went abroad to study and spent a few years in Italy and Germany. He did not have to wait long for recognition after his return to England. He fairly earned and won the lasting regard of an appreciative public, for his subjects were such as appealed to the English people. He became an associate of the Academy in 1860 and a full Academician in 1872. Later he became a member of the Society of Painters in Water-Colors. He succeeded admirably in his



THE GOOD SHEPHERD, BY W. C. T. DOBSON

water-colors, some of which were hung in the English picture-gallery at the Paris International Exhibition (1878).

During his long career, Dobson painted many works—literary, historical, and religious. One of his early paintings was "The Hermit" (1842), based on Parnell's poem. Others of this class are "Paul and Virginia" (1843), "Undine" (1848), and "Mother and Child," illustrating an idea in Shakespeare's sonnets:—

"Thou art thy mother's glass, and she in thee
Calls back the lovely April of her prime."

He also attempted subjects historical or semi-historical, such as "Boadicea Meditating Revenge against the Romans" (1847), "The Golden Age," "Bianca Capello," etc.

The influence of the old Italian masters seems to have led Dobson into the field of sacred art—a domain which he made peculiarly his own. The painter of Biblical themes, when he approaches his task sympathetically and reverently, is in a high sense a spiritual teacher. Dobson belongs to the class of artists who minister to the higher life by his pictorial representations of scriptural stories and characters. Among his early religious works were the "Madonna" (1850), "St. John the Evangelist" (1851), "St. John Leading Home the Virgin Mary after the Crucifixion" (1851), and "The Charity of Dorcas" (1854). The Queen was so well pleased with the latter painting that she ordered a duplicate. The royal seal of approval increased the artist's patronage immensely, and he undertook to paint a series of works illustrating the Old and

New Testaments. Of those dealing with the life of Christ are "Bethlehem," "The Child Jesus Going down with his Parents to Nazareth" (1857), "The Child Jesus in the Temple," "The Widow's Son Raised to Life," etc. He also took many subjects from the Old Testament and the Apocrypha: "Witch of Endor," "Miriam," "Prosperous Days of Job," "Hagar and Ishmael," "Rebecca," "Tobias and the Angel," etc. A noted art-critic thus comments on Dobson's religious pictures:—

"His works are of an elevated character, and his aim is evidently to devote his art to the noble purpose of teaching what is holy and pure. His themes are carefully studied, and his coloring is rich and brilliant."

Another writer says:—

"The delicacy of his workmanship was considerable, and in a less exacting age than the present his pretty, sentimental studies of childhood had great vogue. The fact that he was half German by birth may tend to explain the sentimental element in his art."

Like some other foreign-born artists of his time, Philip H. Calderon was a British subject, though born in France (May 3, 1833) and a descendant of the renowned Spanish dramatist of the seventeenth century. He was a man of pleasing personality and a brilliant painter, who especially excelled in depicting on canvas the physical charms of woman. Many of his works are of a class that may be called historical *genre*, some antique, and some modern. He studied in London and Paris (1850-53) and sent his first picture, "By the Waters of Babylon," to the Royal Academy in 1852. The next few years he painted portraits. A characteristic picture, "Broken Vows" (1857), made his reputation with the public, and henceforth his brush was constantly busy. Another striking canvas, "After the Battle" (1862), made a sensation, the novelty of the subject and the treatment exciting interest. His was the kind of *genre* with a touch of the romantic or heroic in it, as in his "Katharine of Aragon and Her Women at Work" (1862), "Joan of Arc," and "Constance" (1877). An historical painting revealing much dramatic intensity, "The British Embassy in Paris on the Night of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew," led to his election as an associate of the Royal Academy in 1864; he became an R. A. in 1867. At the Paris International Exhibition of 1867 he won a gold medal, the only one bestowed on a British painter.



THE LATE SIR EDWARD BURNE-JONES

Calderon had a passion for painting in the open air in fine weather. He managed to get a good deal of the brightness and beauty of nature into his pictures of "The Olive" and "The Vine" (exhibited in 1880), "Flowers of Earth" (1881), "Joyous Summer" (1883), and "Morning" (1885). A poetic conception, felicitously handled, is his "Ariadne in Naxos" (1895).

One of Calderon's contemporaries thus aptly characterizes him: "He is essentially a painter of chivalry, and no one can gaze upon his knights and dames without feeling that he is impressed by a high and noble reverence for woman, and that he strives to inculcate the same regard for her in all who look upon his work." This remark applies with special force to such works as "Sighing His Soul into His Lady's Face" (1869), "Queen of the Tournament" (1874), and the picture designed to illustrate Tennyson's lyric, "Home They Brought Her Warrior Dead"—the moment chosen being that described in the line,

Like summer tempest came her tears.

A foremost place in the hierarchy of Victorian artists must be assigned to Sir Edward Burne-Jones. Like the late Puvis de Chavannes, he must be considered one of the great painters of the age. No adequate estimate of his life-work can be given here. Much has been written of him in extravagant praise, and yet his contribution to the intellectual life of his time has scarcely been overrated. His loss is the more keenly felt because he left so many works unfinished, such as "Arthur in Avalon" and the "Perseus" series. He was a poet, using pictorial form and color as his medium of expression, a weaver of beautiful fancies that fascinate and compel admiration. His world was a far-off region of dreamland, and the subjects that he artistically and romantically treated are mystical and unearthly. As Walter Cranston Larned says:—

"It is not an attempt to paint life in any way as we know it, but rather a poet's dream of life. There is another quality in the work of Burne-Jones that limits its poetry somewhat. It is not the poetry of all mankind, but mediæval poetry, pure and simple. . . . The artist has been fascinated by myths and legends of long ago. The song of the troubadour rings in his ears and the faerie queen is really a queen to him. What he loves is most interesting to the student, the poet, the lover of literature, but it is not of broad human interest, and therefore does not touch life so nearly as pictures like those of Millet. But he must be taken for what he is, and looking at him from this point of view it must be confessed that there is a singular charm in his pictures. It is pleasant to be taken away from ordinary and prosaic things sometimes. It is delightful to think that human beings can be dignified and poetic and romantic and live, though it be for a little while only, like perfect creatures seen, if ever, in visions of the night."

Another objection that has been raised is the perpetual sameness and monotony of Burne-Jones's conceptions. The spirituelle damsels and the sweet girl faces were painted by him over and over again.

Of Welsh descent, Edward Burne-Jones was born in Birmingham, England, August 28, 1833. He was educated at Oxford, where he met William Morris and came under the spell of the Pre-Raphaelites. It was easy for him to follow the leadership of these men. He collaborated with Morris in the production of that monumental work of the Kelmscott Press, the Chaucer, so beautifully printed and embellished with rich borders. His last work was the Christina Rossetti Memorial, representing Christ with the four Evangelists. The very subjects of his pictures suggest their strangeness and loveliness: "Days of Creation," "Mirror of Venus," "Car of Love," "The Briar Rose," "The Wheel of Fortune," "King Cophetua and the Beggar Maid," "Resurrection," "Dies Domini," "Feast of Peleus," "Romance of the Rose," etc.

E. P.

★

ART NOTES

RALPH GODDARD, a New York sculptor, has just completed a plaster model for a heroic bronze statue of Gutenberg, the inventor of printing. The figure, which is serious and strong, is over seven feet high, and is a fine example of skill in modelling. The inventor is shown standing in an easy posture, holding in his right hand a proof-sheet, and in the left, a form of type, at which he is gazing earnestly. He is dressed in the German style of the fifteenth century. The statue when cast will be the property of Robert Hoe and will adorn the printing-press manufactory of "Robert Hoe & Co.," on Grand street, N. Y.

A NEGLECTED fine art is that of wood carving. It is just now awakening a good deal of attention among those especially interested in the education of girls with a view to make them self-supporting and comfortably independent. It is a matter of surprise that there has not been established in this country any properly-equipped school teaching wood carving as a fine art. Branches of it are in part practiced in a few places. In Europe this delicate handicraft has for centuries been one of the favored forms of artistic pastime among the women of nobility, and to-day it counts as its devotees many of the most-highly cultured women on that Continent. Among the Swiss it is practiced by the whole family, and thousands of dollars worth of beautiful and useful articles are bought by American travellers every season. The skilful handling of the few tools required is quickly learned, and with several lessons the average bright scholar is able to execute exquisite work, at once a surprise and delight. The subject is worthy of thought and discussion on the part of the educators of this country. We commend it.

THE Society of American Artists, N. Y., will hold its twenty-first annual exhibit in the Fine Arts Galleries from March 24th to April 29th.

THE LITERARY WORLD

*Memoirs of
Alphonse
Daudet*

A LITTLE more than a year has gone by since we chronicled in these pages the sudden death of Alphonse Daudet, the French novelist, whose popularity in English-speaking countries—second only to that of Victor Hugo and Balzac—is hardly less than is his vogue in France. The loss to literature in the passing of this "French Dickens," as Daudet is sometimes termed, is pathetically recalled by the publication (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) of the son's memoirs of his father. To the volume is appended Ernest Daudet's family reminiscences, translated by Charles de Kay from the delightful fraternal sketch *Mon Frère et Moi*—familiar to most readers of French fiction. The record which Léon Daudet has given us is touching in its filial regard for one who was not only father, but friend, confidant, and counsellor. The fervor of admiration is hardly less real than the fervor of passionate grief in which the son writes of his own and his family's loss. Yet nowhere is the portrait permitted to be blurred by the intensity of emotion manifested, and throughout the narrative there is never a false or discordant note. In many passages we are led to see how intimate is the relation between father and son in France, and how companionable the two often are when to the family tie is added the bond of common literary interests and tastes. Daudet's personality is admirably revealed in the work, while much interest is imparted to the narrative by the light thrown on the novelist's literary aims and methods. Especially attractive is the portrayal of the home life and the human aspects of the author of "Tartarin" and "Jack." His ambition, alike in the social and in the intellectual sphere, was to be "a vendor of happiness," and in the path of that ambition no obstacles or thwartings were suffered to intervene. "Many who are famous to-day," writes his son, "will recall his encouragements and the genial way in which he reassured timidity: 'It is part of the rôle of the vendor of happiness to give good counsel to smaller comrades. When I receive one of these young men who with difficulty gain their bread at so much a line, I recall my own beginning and reflect that perhaps I have before me a man of the future, a real talent.' He gave similar counsel to all." The atmosphere of happiness and helpfulness which Daudet brought into another's life fitly pervaded his own. He married happily, and to his wife, as the son dutifully admits, he owed much, not only for counsel and criticism in his work, but for loving tendance when in later years he was

stricken and physically prostrate. The volume will be hailed by those who cherish Daudet's memory, and who owe much to his books for many hours of pleasant beguilement.

G. M. A.

★

*Watson's
"Story of
France"*

We have in this goodly volume, from The Macmillan Company press, the first of two portions of French history from the earliest times to the consulate of Napoleon Bonaparte. The author is Mr. T. E. Watson, the well-known Georgia politician and Populist leader, and the present instalment of his work brings the narrative down to the close of the reign of Louis XV. Even with the multitude of French histories there would seem to be room for this valuable political and social study, which deals with the annals of France from a fresh and modern standpoint, and with all the force of a powerful writer and an acute and clear thinker. Mr. Watson has many qualifications for the work on which he has been engaged. Besides industry and historical tastes, he possesses in a striking degree the gift of telling a story, of elucidating facts and disentangling them from musty records, and the power of rapid and graphic generalization. His language is forceful and serious, and he has the picturesque qualities that impart a charm to the recital of the story. That he is no slavish follower in old paths we at once see in the scope as well as in the varied sources of the narrative. No attempt, Mr. Watson writes, has been made to fill in every detail: only the larger outlines of national growth and development have been followed; and while the standard histories have been consulted, he has drawn freely from memoirs and autobiographies, "in which the literature of France is so peculiarly rich." The point of view is that of an intelligent and sympathetic onlooker, interested in the growth of a nation, scrutinizing the forces that make at one time for its maturing development, at another for its arrest and impeded progress under absolutism, with its unhappy encroachments upon popular rights, yet hopeful of the efforts made by the people to throw off their fetters and emerge into the full light of liberty and progress. The design of the author, as we have said, is not to follow in the old ruts of dry historical writing, but to pen the story from the point of view of the modern reader who is interested in the doings of his kind, and especially in the struggles of a people against tyranny and oppression,—whether that of king, noble, or priest,—impelled by an irrepressible

desire for relief and freedom. France, says the author aptly,—

* has furnished the epic poem of modern history. She has been the theatre of a colossal drama, which all nations have watched with bated breath, and which has profoundly affected the destinies of the human race. In no other country has the entire political fabric been torn down and rebuilt, . . . in no other has a desperate effort been made to enthroned the gospel of anarchy and communism, . . . in no other has the opposite theory been so absolutely dominant and the king so unrestrainedly in possession of everything—life, liberty, property, law, and religion. No other modern land has known a Napoleon, none other a Marat, none other a Talleyrand. In Marengo and Austerlitz, the French have supplied the world with the synonyms of dazzling success; in Waterloo, they have given a name for hopeless, overwhelming defeat. . . . After all changes, France is still great, still progressive, still holding its way onward, abreast of the other great Powers in the march of human development. Surely the record of such a people must abound in lessons worth learning, heroism worth knowing, facts which warn, which enlighten, which profoundly interest all thoughtful men.*

In following Mr. Watson through his chronicles the reader is bound to be instructed and edified, for he touches no subject on which he fails to leave a distinct and luminous impression, which the vigor and charm of his pen does much to intensify. No little is also due to the author's interest and sympathy in his work, which makes the narrative not only highly readable, but in passages thrilling and glowing.

G. M. A.

★

Fernald's "The Imperial Republic" On opening the volume for 1899 of the venerable "Almanach de Gotha," both eye and mind are struck by the listing of Hawaii and Porto Rico as "*Colonies of the United States of North America*." Equally striking is the title of a new book by Mr. James C. Fernald, "*The Imperial Republic*."* Apparently a self-contradictory title, the author disposes of the inconsistency by showing in what imperialism consists and what influences bond our republic. Thus he says that the term "imperialism," denoting a governmental system combining a number of originally separate states under a supposably enlightened and liberal dominion, does not inaptly describe our own republic—*e pluribus unum*; that our domain is already an empire, and our government, in a high, true sense, imperial. Free though its citizens are, that domain is held under one flag with an iron hand. Such a unity, founded in four years of fire and blood, and cemented by the late war in the affections of the people of all sections, is an empire of hearts and not merely of lands, and its rule is one of love rather than the compulsion of the sword. In this sense,—with the ideal of a strong, wide-ruling government making ever more steadily for human freedom, and worthy of the patriotic devotion of all who inhabit the vast realms under its sway,—and in

this sense only, will Americans be found to advocate imperialism.

To the supposed objection that such a dream of imperialism can never be realized, the author replies that Americans, from the dawn of their national history, have been constantly breaking ancient precedents and establishing new ones; that Old World precedents are valueless in the New World, where we have already done what the Old World never did, and can keep on doing new things on a constantly expanding and ever grander scale. The freeman makes free soil wherever he sets his foot, and with steam and electricity annihilating distance, there is no reason why that which Americans have done on the American continent cannot still be done by Americans on any soil, under any sun. The future of the republic will depend on the character of our people, not on the extent or character of the land we possess. Expediency, necessity, and duty are combining to urge us to the new expansion, but our national destiny—our own ruin and that of our dependencies, or our own welfare and glory and the blessing of the world—is in our own hands. It is for Americans to do that new thing among the nations—to make an imperial domain a republic.

In the discussion of "Our Traditional Policy," the history of successive acquisitions of territory is made graphic by a map showing the original thirteen States, with each subsequent addition delineated with its date. The author shows, by extracts from the speeches of leading men of each epoch, how the successive steps of expansion were opposed. We see Thomas Jefferson proposing to legalize, by an *ex post facto* amendment to the Constitution, the purchase of Louisiana for \$15,000,000. We see Josiah Quincy, of Massachusetts, speaking in 1811 on the bill for the admission of the present State of Louisiana, in terror lest "the wild men of the Missouri," or "the mixed race of Anglo-Hispano-Gallo-Americans basking on the sands in the mouth of the Mississippi," should pour Senators and Representatives into Congress to manage the concerns and overwhelm the liberties of a seaboard fifteen hundred miles at least from their residence; and we hear him protest that "it was not for these men that our fathers fought; not for them that this Constitution was adopted." We find Senator McDuffie, of South Carolina, in 1843, wanting to know what return we were ever to get for the "enormous expense" (\$200,000) involved in opening up the territory of Oregon, for the whole of which he "would not give a pinch of snuff"; and on the same subject we find Senator Dickerson, of New Jersey, declaring that "we have not adopted a system of colonization, and it is to be hoped we never shall. Oregon can never be one of the United States. If we extend our laws to it, we must consider it as a colony; the Union is already too extensive for it to become a State."

All this seems like a paraphrase of the objec-

* "The Imperial Republic," by James C. Fernald. With five maps and no index. New York and London: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

tions of our own day. Yet these objections have been steadily overruled. The author's summary is "that we have had a traditional *theory* of limitation and repression, with a real *policy* of continuous territorial expansion." Turning to Washington's Farewell Address, which he shows to have been commonly misquoted (notably in the phrase "entangling alliances with foreign nations") as well as misunderstood, he points out, what has seldom been observed, that Washington himself characterized his policy of isolation as in great part temporary and provisional, "*to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions.*" He urges that the future which Washington saw in the distance is now attained, and the way now open for a broader policy. The analysis of the real utterances of the Father of his Country in the Farewell Address will be found of exceeding interest.

In the chapter on "The United States as a Sea-Power," he points out the distinction (as applicable to the case of the "Maine") between *revenge* and *avenging*,—the one personal, bitter, often undeserved, and often excessive; the other free from personal bitterness and marked by exact justice, almost identical with retribution, and having some of the attributes of Divine "vengeance." He also points out the importance of upholding our naval power, instancing the case of a Canadian who, going from the United States on foreign missionary service, could not afford (at that time) to become an American citizen, because as a British subject he could command the protection of the whole power of the British army and navy in any part of the world. In the chapters on "Trade Follows the Flag," "The Highway to the Orient," and "The Empire of the Pacific," wonderful visions of advancement and prosperity are set forth; yet these visions are not dreams, for they are supported by an array of facts and figures which even opponents cannot lightly put aside. The author takes strong ground in favor of what he prefers to term the "isthmian canal," leaving room for consideration of more than a single route.

In the chapter on "The Imperial Language," the book vividly describes the wide dominion of the English speech in its double lap around the earth, till it has become the dominant language of 450,000,000 of people,—its power as the teacher at once of liberty and of law, of industrial achievement and reverent worship,—and from all this derives a powerful argument for the Anglo-American alliance as a moral necessity for the kindred peoples.

The recent confirmation of the Spanish treaty, and the stirring events in the Philippines, render less interesting one phase of the author's arguments on this subject, but the new aspect of this question gives a more intense interest to his chapters on "The Debt of Humanity," "Colonial Policies Contrasted," "A True Colonial Policy," and "The Possibilities of Our New

Possessions." The author does not shut his eyes to the difficulties and dangers of the unfolding world-movement which has resulted from the events of 1898. But he undertakes to show that these dangers are fewer and less deadly than many thoughtful men have believed, and at the same time to point out the material advantages that lie along the line of a policy of expansion,—the making of outlooks for adventurous Americans toward all the ends of the earth; the awakening of the seagoing instinct among our people along all our 5,000 miles of coast; the unfurling of the American flag over peaceful commerce on every sea, backed by a navy competent to defend it anywhere,—the flag floating as the world-wide symbol of civil and religious liberty, industrial advancement, and popular education, flourishing in the light of freedom under the shield of law. E. E. T.

★

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Blanchard, Rufus: "Discovery and Conquests of the North West, with the History of Chicago" (to be complete in 12 parts). Parts I, II, and III. Chicago: R. Blanchard & Co.

Watson, Thomas E.: "The Story of France from the Earliest Times to the Consulate of Napoleon Bonaparte," in 2 vols. Vol. I to the end of the reign of Louis XV. 8vo. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Trevelyan, Sir George Otto: "The American Revolution." Part I, 1766-1776. New York: Longmans, Green, & Co.

Moulton, Prof. R. G.: "The Modern Reader's Bible." Bible stories from the Old Testament. Children's series. Edited with introduction and notes. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Fernald, James C.: "The Imperial Republic: A Work on American Territorial Expansion." New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.

Daudet, Léon: "Memoirs of Alphonse, Daudet," Translated by Charles de Kay. Portrait. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Hearn, Lafcadio: "Exotics and Retrospectives." Illus. 12mo. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

French, C. W.: "Shakespeare's Macbeth." English Classics. Annotated. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Poster, L. C.: "A Syllabus of English Grammar." Revised edition, with additions by H. W. Poster. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Gates, Lewis Edward: "Three Studies in Literature" [Francis Jeffrey, Cardinal Newman, and Matthew Arnold]. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Cunningham, G. Cunyningham: "Tales from the Land of Manana." Cincinnati, O.: The Editor Publishing Co.

Wilson, L. L. W., Ph. D.: "United States History in Elementary Schools." Teachers' Manual. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Pierson, Arthur T.: "In Christ Jesus, or the Sphere of the Believer's Life." New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.

Pierson, Arthur T.: "Catharine of Siena: An Ancient Lay Preacher." New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.

Coe, Charles H.: "Red Patriots: The Story of the Seminole." Cincinnati, O.: The Editor Publishing Co. "The Book of Complete Information about Pianos." New York: Wing & Son.

Leupp, Francis E.: "How to Prepare for a Civil Service Examination, with Recent Questions and Answers." New York: Hindo and Noble.

"World Politics," by "T." New York: R. F. Fenno & Co.

Harding, John Wm.: "A Conjuror of Phantoms." New York: F. Tennyson Neely.

"SELF CULTURE: A Magazine of Knowledge." Vol. VIII. September, 1898, to February, 1899. Illus. 8vo. 768 pages. Akron, O.: The Werner Co.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD

THE MEASURE OF EDUCATIONAL VALUES

EVER since the vast increase of human knowledge made it impossible for any one scholar to master more than a petty fraction of the whole, there has been continual discussion as to the relative merit of various branches. The problem is not alone interesting to the theorist; it is one of the most important practical problems that press upon us for solution. A man must choose what to learn, and the tendency of his whole life depends upon the choice. Or he must choose for his children, and their highest welfare is at stake.

The discussion has not usually been concerned with the problem as a whole. More often it has been a mere debate between the professors of two branches of learning—as literature and mathematics, natural science and metaphysics, or ancient and modern languages. It lies in the nature of the case that no definite conclusion is ever reached. The value of such discussion consists largely in the fact that, by constantly shifting its ground, it brings the larger problem into view.

The best-known treatment of the general theme is undoubtedly Herbert Spencer's essay, "What Knowledge Is Of Most Worth?" It demands, therefore, our earnest consideration. For forty years this essay has been recognized as a classic—as one of the greatest works on education that has ever been written. Much wisdom is certainly contained in it. The premises have been found to be mostly true. The author does prove the great importance of certain branches of science in general education, and of certain others in special education, but the conclusions which he announces as to *relative* values cannot be approved, and for the following reasons.

There constantly presents itself in current thought a fallacy which for subtle insidiousness deserves the name of *fallacy of fallacies*; for not only the multitude, but the most learned and distinguished men, are numbered among its victims. It has never been distinctly branded as unsound, and thousands every day employ it with the utmost confidence and with the unquestioning assent of their auditors. Nevertheless, it is utterly worthless. Briefly, the fallacy rests upon the assumption that the necessary condition is of greater worth than the end.

A great part of life consists in choosing between things, and a great deal of reasoning is devoted to comparative estimates. Here this

fallacy of fallacies comes into play. It is argued: A and B are both important; but since A is a necessary prerequisite of B, the former is obviously the more important. Thus the agrarian agitator cries that "the farmer feeds us," and is therefore the most important member of society; the Pacific railroads protest that they made the great West a possibility, and that their interests are therefore to be preferred to those of the people of the West; the Philistine finds wealth to be the prerequisite of culture, and concludes that wealth is aristocracy; and so on through every aspect of life and thought. Everywhere the fallacy asserts its hold.

So tenacious are the effects of long-continued habits of thought that more than once, when we have presented these considerations to intelligent and educated men, they have still insisted that this form of argument is not fallacious at all. "For," they say, "if the condition is necessary to the end, is it not of at least equal worth with the end? And if it has any other value, is it not so much better than the end?"

On the contrary, in so far as it contributes to its end, the condition is of value; and in so far as it is insufficient to produce the end, it is inferior to the end. Here we observe the underlying defect. The necessary condition is conceived as having at least equal worth with the end, because it renders the latter possible; that is, *so far possible*. But the impatient mind, outrunning its premises, confuses the *necessary* with the *sufficient* condition. Now the necessary and sufficient condition may well be said to have at least equal worth with the end; but not so the necessary though inadequate condition.

So much for the exposition of this fallacy, which, as we have seen, has of late years had almost universal currency. Now we are prepared to assert that the above-mentioned essay of Herbert Spencer—its author's most popular and influential work, written by him in the prime of his strength, an educational classic which has caused measureless good as well as much evil—is a mere tissue of this fallacy. For, let us see what the argument is.

Mr. Spencer classifies education under several heads: "That education which prepares for direct self-preservation; that which prepares for indirect self-preservation; that which prepares for citizenship; that which prepares for the miscellaneous refinements of life." And he says: "After making all qualifications there

still remain these broadly marked divisions; and it still continues true that these divisions subordinate one another in the foregoing order, because the corresponding divisions of life make one another *possible* in that order."

Here is the fallacy clear and explicit. Because the education which prepares for direct self-preservation is a necessary condition of any higher life, it is therefore of greatest worth! And as the "miscellaneous refinements of life" are not necessary to the continuance of the individual or of society, we can imagine why they should be of so little import as to be left to the "leisure part of education."

Now may it not be true that these refinements of life are in some sense the end and aim of life? If so, then may not the other kinds of knowledge be mere means to this end, good in so far as they contribute to the end, but inferior to the end, in that they are inadequate to produce it? Then may not the order of worth be exactly the reverse of what Mr. Spencer states? Possibly.

Note this passage also: "As before hinted, literature and the fine arts are made possible by those activities which make individual and social life possible; and manifestly that which is made possible must be postponed to that which makes it possible." This is, within bounds, perfectly true; but mark what follows: "A florist cultivates a plant for the sake of its flower, and regards the roots and leaves as of value chiefly because they are instrumental in producing the flower. But while, as an ultimate product, the flower is the thing to which everything else is subordinate, the florist very well knows that the root and leaves are intrinsically of greater importance, because on them the evolution of the flower depends." Observe that at the crucial point the analogy fails. The plant is the necessary and sufficient condition of the flower; science is not the sufficient condition of art.

We shall not attempt the task at which Herbert Spencer failed. Let his question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" remain for the present unanswered. Our task is to discover a standard for the measure of educational values, leaving to others the application of the standard.

Not to enter too deeply into metaphysical considerations, let us assume that there is such a thing as education in general; that physical, mental, and moral education are, at bottom, a single principle. From this assumption it follows that there must be *one* sufficient measure of educational values. Nevertheless, the unity of the standard must enter into an infinite diversity of forms, if it is adequately to measure the educational value of all things for all men; and in particular the standard must be strictly *relative* to the stages of human growth. That is to say, it must be *progressive*,—at once in its realization in human consciousness and in its demands upon the material of culture. For,

as we believe man capable of infinite elevation, craving, as he rises, higher things and higher, the standard of educational values must be progressive and infinitely progressive, if it is to be adequate to the possibilities of immortal man. It is *ideal*, nothing less.

The theory that pleasure is at least a negative criterion in education, appears to many to be firmly established. The cry has rung out till we cannot but hear,—*"It is abominable that the son of a citizen should be a slave in the acquisition of knowledge."* In so far as the work of the school is irksome or painful to the child, education, it is declared, is impossible. For education, as a process of growth by self-activity, must be, on the learner's part, spontaneous and, as such, pleasurable.

We have seen that the measure of values is a *single principle; relative*, nevertheless, to difference in persons; *progressive* in its realization in human consciousness; and finally *ideal*. Now pleasure is, indeed, a single principle and notoriously relative to individual differences. But I find no possibility of progress in pleasure as such; still less has pleasure the dignity of the ideal.

Now, I say, universalize and idealize pleasure and the ground of pleasure which we call "charm," and in universal or æsthetic pleasure and in universal charm or beauty, we have the desired criterion,—not now a mere negative check upon pedagogical error, but a positive standard sufficient to the ends of man here and hereafter.

But it is simply as a measure of values that we offer the principle of beauty, not as that which *constitutes* the good in education. In the ideal, as will appear, beauty and the ends of education are in a sense identical; but that is not the present point. Moreover, it will be seen that we do not follow current usage in restricting the term "beauty" to the imagined significant in sense-perception,—but rather extend it to embrace the whole ground of universal pleasure.

With such a definition, it is not to be feared that undue stress may be laid upon the side of mere art-study, to the neglect of the more sober language and science work. For there is, as all must admit, beauty in the study of language, a universal charm to which mankind bears testimony; and the educational value of language study is exactly commensurate with its beauty. And there is untold beauty in science,—and that not only in the rich detail of nature, but in the cold formulas of number and extension. As to the beauty of philosophy, let the familiar lines of Milton speak,—

"How charming is divine philosophy!
Not harsh and crabbed as dull fools suppose,
But musical as is Apollo's lute,
And a perpetual feast of nectared sweets,
Where no crude surfeit reigns."

Since the measure of values has been found to be an ideal, no one will suppose that its ap-

plication in determining the comparative merit of different subjects and methods is a simple, mechanical process. The determination of ideal worth is not to be effected with a yardstick. It is criticism and always requires judgment. It requires even more—the most careful judgment of an individual. Beauty, not this or that educator's notion or appreciation of the beautiful, is the measure of values. In arranging the course of study the educator must constantly eliminate his own irrational preferences. This can only be done by an appeal to universal experience, to the history of education, and the traditions of the schools.

The measure of educational values is progressive, as we have seen, both in its realization in human consciousness and in its demands upon culture—material. Students of aesthetics have shown us that beauty, on its formal side, consists in the representation of unity in variety. With this truth in mind, we proceed to state the *law of progress* in education: The best educational material for each stage of mental development is that which presents the most extensive variety that the learner can comprehend in unity. An example or two should be sufficient to make clear the bearing of this law. The music of Handel, by no means the greatest of masters, appears to have had for Englishmen the very greatest educational value, being the highest that the general consciousness could well comprehend. For such a consciousness the educational value of the extreme romanticists—Richard Wagner, for example—is simply *nil*, for the reason that such a consciousness is utterly powerless to effect unity in a complex so vast.

The correlation of studies is subject to a similar law; it must embrace all that the student's mind can organize.

There remains one question, of more than theoretical importance, of which, in conclusion, we must briefly treat. What, then, is the end of education in which beauty is made perfect,—in which an infinite manifold is comprehended in perfect unity? The answer is twofold, according as we consider the education of the individual or of the race. On the one hand, it is the microcosm,—the idea of a man in the full harmony of his faculties. On the other hand, it is the macrocosm,—the eternal harmony of persons, the universal brotherhood of men beneath the universal fatherhood of God. It is the church everlasting.

THEODORE DE LAGUNA.

OAKLAND, CAL.

★

The "Herbartian Principle of Teaching" This little handbook (Swann, Sonnenschein & Co., London) illustrates how far we are behind in the applied principles of pedagogy. The volume has been prepared by Miss Catharine Dodd, of the Training Department in Owens College, Manchester, England, and will be appreciated in this country by the teaching

profession. The principle she undertakes to elucidate is to keep close to the real, to what is near—to illuminate, first, that in which the children are interested, by locality, proximity, or association. It is a drawing out, not a cramming—a sympathetic development of faculty, not mere rote-work. Now, from whatever cause or causes, our primary education has been a matter of makeshift, compromise, adaptation, and patchwork. The kindergarten, the object lesson, the drawing of that which lies about the school, the village, prepare the way for the higher grade. The children are won and led, not driven, and disgusted and wearied with endless strings of dates and vocables. The one great sin with Herbart was for the teacher to be wearisome; the one offence with Pestalozzi was to be dry. To make a lesson on a score of grasses is good; but to make it thoroughly efficient the teacher needs to be a considerable botanist, just as, for a thoroughly interesting popular lecture on "a piece of chalk," you need a Huxley,—a thorough geologist and physiologist as well as a master of language. The reason that Germany is so advanced is that when the educational movement began it was taken up as part, and an important practical part, of university and college work; the best intellects did not despise practical share in it. Goethe was himself keenly interested in pedagogy, and lets the fact be clearly seen even in "Wilhelm Meister." Chairs of education exist in some of our universities, but they are too like chairs of political economy, looked on as adornments and supernumeraries.

Miss C. Dodd has certainly done no slight service in preparing and presenting this epitome of the principles of Herbart, which have done so much abroad where they have been accepted and applied. They proceed in a regular graded system, in which "indirect interest," that is, study in view of results merely as prizes, scholarships, and improvement, is discouraged for "direct interest." That is, for knowledge absolutely for themselves. "Alas!" cries Goethe, "for that kind of activity which makes us impatient for the end, instead of rejoicing by the way." For teachers and all concerned in education, Miss Dodd's book will be found of utmost value; full of suggestions as to principles and methods, and fitting in every way to aid advancement and reform.—"The London Review."

★

"THE Life and Remains of Rev. R. H. Quick" has been edited by Mr. Francis Starr, editor of the "Journal of Education" (England) and will be published shortly by The Macmillan Company. This noted educator and schoolmaster was the first of modern English writers to succeed in making a book on education readable and at the same time sober and rational. The secret of his success lay in the fact that he criticised past theories and methods by the light of living experience.

RELIGIOUS THOUGHT AND OPINION

THE PLACE OF MAN IN THE UNIVERSE

IN A recent lecture at the Royal Institution, London, says a writer in "The Spectator," Sir Robert Ball, lately astronomer-royal in Ireland, and a man with a singular capacity for "popularizing" science without debasing it, stated that we now knew the existence of thirty millions of stars or suns, many of them much more magnificent than the one which gives light to our system. The majority of them are not visible to the eye, or even recognizable by the telescope, but sensitized photographic plates—which are for this purpose eyes that can stare unwinking for hours at a time—have revealed their existence beyond all doubt or question, though most of them are almost inconceivably distant, thousands or tens of thousands of times as far off as our sun. A telegraphic message, for example, which would reach the sun in eight minutes, would not reach some of these stars in eighteen hundred years. The human mind, of course, does not really conceive such distances, though they can be expressed in formulæ which the human mind has devised, and the bewildering statement is from one point of view singularly depressing. It reduces so greatly the probable importance of man in the universe. It is most improbable, almost impossible, that these great centres of light should have been created to light up nothing, and as they are far too distant to be of use to us, we may fairly accept the hypothesis that each one has a system of planets round it like our own. Taking an average of only ten planets to each sun, that hypothesis indicates the existence, within the narrow range to which human observation is still confined, of at least three hundred millions of separate worlds, many of them doubtless of gigantic size, and it is nearly inconceivable that those worlds can be wholly devoid of living and sentient beings upon them.

Granting the to us impossible hypothesis that the final cause of the universe is accident, a fortuitous concourse of self-existent atoms, still the accident which produced thinking beings upon this little and inferior world must have frequently repeated itself; while if, as we hold, there is a sentient Creator, it is difficult to believe, without a revelation to that effect, that he has wasted such glorious creative power upon mere masses of insensible matter. God cannot love gases. The high probability, at least, is that there are millions of worlds—for, after all, what the sensitized paper sees must be but an infinitesimal fraction of the whole—oc-

cupied by sentient beings, probably mortal in our sense, as all matter must decay, certainly finite. What then is the relative position of mankind? If he dies at death, man is a member of a weak tribe of animals with inferior physical powers, with keen brains, but very poor natures, with a very short life, and so insignificant in numbers that it seems at first sight possible—we write with all reverence—that he might be forgotten even by God. We know, or think we know, from Revelation that he is not forgotten; but there is no natural reason why he should not be, in the sense that any one of the smaller forest tribes of Africa may be forgotten by the most learned of geographers or most benevolent of philanthropists. We can conceive no thought more depressing than this of the contemptible insignificance, the almost invisibility, of man among the myriads of sentient creatures of whom he knows, and while he remains here will continue to know, absolutely nothing. His fate is the fate of an animalcule such as science suspects to exist, below detection or observation by the most searching microscope. How an unbeliever can be grateful to the astronomer we cannot imagine, any more than we can imagine how men who see in mankind only superior animals, can conceive of humanity as a worthy object of worship. We had rather worship the sun, or Space, which at least is grand in this, that it contains all that exists.

It is only by believing that the human being has a spirit, and that it continues to exist after death, that man can in any degree regain his importance in the scheme of things. Even then he is but one among many myriads of competitors, and in no way the centre or flower, as he now thinks himself, of creation; but still he may be an important being, lasting for countless ages, capable through those ages of perpetual additions to his powers, and of becoming through all that time of more use in the work of the universe. He is, from the astronomer's point of view, of sufficiently little use now, for he only cultivates, and in cultivating uses up, a single grain of sand. We know nothing about it, of course, except that man exists after death, which we hold to be proved at once by Revelation and by the perpetually repeated experience of a few persons to whom it has been given to see dimly and for a few moments beyond the veil which seems to the majority to drop at death and to be so impenetrable; but it is difficult to believe that anything created—and the spirit is as much created as the body—

can remain stationary in condition, as even inanimate matter does not do. Why should it, when there must be so much, not only to know but to do, in this illimitable universe?

The popular notion that man, once escaped from the confinement of the body, does nothing except sit on a cloud and sing psalms to the glory of a God whose glory is so perfect without him that he was content when man was not in being, rests upon no evidence, whether of reason or Revelation, and seems to us derived either from man's long experience of overtoll and misery, and his enjoyment, therefore, of their absence, or from the inherent Asiatic dislike of exertion. Why should we not work forever as well as now? If man can live again, and grow in that new life, and exert himself to carry out the always hidden, but necessarily magnificent, purpose of the Creator, then, indeed, his existence may have some importance, and the insignificance of his place of origin be forgotten. For he has an inherent quality which does not belong, so far as the mind can see what must always remain partially dark, even to the Divine; he is capable of effort, and, in the effort and through the effort, not only of growing greater than before, but of adding force to an inanimate thing like his own body. What if that power of effort should be slowly aggrandized until man, now a little higher than the monkey, became a really great being?

There is a field for hope in that speculation which is limitless, and, dreamy as it seems, it is at least more reasonable, if the existence of spirit is conceded, than the popular belief upon the subject,—that singular compound of reverence, laziness, and intense delight at the prospect of escape from all the miseries inherently connected with this present life. Some day or other the great teachers of theology will, we believe, take up this subject with enthusiasm and with powers to which, of course, we cannot pretend. They have grown out of the crude notions of heaven and hell as the place of harps and the place of fire, but they have not yet replaced them by any definite teaching. By and by they will, we think, see that in falling into their present vagueness they have thrown aside their strongest weapon for the conversion of the world, and will once more examine and state strongly the little that Revelation teaches on the subject—it is not nothing—and the little more that can be deduced from admitted facts by human reason, and then tell us in clear words what they think. When they do, they will be startled to find how strongly human interest in their teaching has revived, how fierce will be the controversy as to the accuracy of every sentence they utter. They tell us enough of the Whence, but are too cautious about the Whither.

★

We see so darkly into futurity, once said Lady Montague, that we never know when we have real cause to rejoice or lament.

Human Im- To those who are thus swayed
mortality* by the supposed inferences from physical science, a little work by Professor William James, of Harvard University, entitled "Human Immortality," may be commended; not as proving immortality—a thing which cannot be done—but as suggesting reasons why we need pay little attention to materialist inferences from science, and why we should cling to the verdict of our moral nature rather than bend to the baseless hypothesis of scientific dogmatism. Professor James is well known as one of the most suggestive and original writers, and as certainly the most brilliant psychologist living. Whatever, therefore, he has to say on this subject is worth listening to, for he thinks freely, and he knows all that the scientist knows, and more too.

Professor James addresses himself to two difficulties which are strongly felt by many who would gladly believe in the great doctrine of human immortality. The first of these is "relative to the absolute dependence of our spiritual life, as we know it here, upon the brain." One is told that science has demonstrated beyond contradiction the connection of our inner life with the "gray matter" of our cerebral convolutions, and has therefore rendered impossible of belief the notion of the persistence of consciousness after the gray matter had perished. Now, it is true, as Professor James admits, that thought is vitally associated with this brain structure, and he is willing to concede so much that he allows the truth of the doctrine. "Thought is a function of the brain." But when the materialistic man of science utters this dogma he is thinking of what may be called a "productive" function. "Engendering consciousness in its interior, much as it engenders cholesterolin and creatin and carbonic acid, its relation to our soul's life must also be called productive function. Of course, if such production be the function, then when the organ perishes, since the production can no longer continue, the soul must surely die." But the conclusion is premature, since there are other functions than the productive; there are the permissive and the transmissive functions, and we may think of these in connection with the brain. Professor James then strikes out a fruitful idea. "Suppose," he says, "that the whole universe of material things—the furniture of earth and choir of heaven—should turn out to be a mere surface-veil of phenomena hiding and keeping back the world of genuine realities. Such a supposition is foreign to neither common sense nor to philosophy." Thought, then, is the reality, and what we see around us, the visible world, is the veil through which thought shines, only at particularly places the veil becoming so thin that we can be struck by the effect. "Glows of feeling, glimpses of insight, and streams of knowledge and percep-

* Continued from SELF CULTURE for February, p. 757.

tion float into our finite world." If our brains are such veils, thinner than the more obtuse matter of the world, "the life of souls, as it is in its fulness, will break through our several brains into this world in all sorts of restricted forms, and with all the imperfections and queeresses that characterize our finite individualities here below." Even when the brain stops acting, "the sphere of being that supplied the consciousness would still be intact," and might continue to be in the more real world. Professor James does not state this hypothesis as a dogma, he merely says that it is as good a hypothesis as that of materialism, that it is permissible, that it delivers us from the fatal necessity of the materialist dogma.

Function means only "bare concomitant variation." What goes on in the brain is mere function, which may be but transmission of a power which does not need to be generated *de novo*, but which already exists "behind the scenes, coeval with the world." This hypothesis is more in harmony with the known facts of psychology than is that of the production idea. You have, for instance, an apparition of some one you know dying hundreds of miles away,—a fact as well attested as any. "On the production theory one does not see from what sensations such odd bits of knowledge are produced. On the transmission theory, they don't have to be produced,—they exist ready-made in the transcendental world, and all that is needed is an abnormal lowering of the brain threshold to let them through." In a word, as Professor James puts it in an admirable simile, "we need only suppose the continuity of our consciousness with a mother sea, to allow for exceptional waves occasionally pouring over the dam." Current thought, in a word, must turn itself completely round, as popular thought had to turn itself round when the new astronomy broke in on its prejudices. As men then had to accustom themselves to the heliocentric, in place of the geocentric, theory, so now men must detach themselves from the superstition (it is no less) of taking the visible for the ultimate fact, they must rid themselves of the encumbrance of what is called common sense, and look on the universe as a kind of veil or medium through which spirit works, and they will find that, in the first place, the facts are better explained by the spiritual hypothesis, and in the second place, that at least they are saved from the supposed necessity of materialism. In short, the final word of the mind is that "the things which are seen are temporal, the things that are not seen are eternal."

The second difficulty which Professor James meets is that "relative to the incredible number of beings which, with our modern imagination, we must believe to be immortal, if immortality be true." We give up our own immortality, says Mr. James, "sooner than believe that all the hosts of Hottentots and Australians that have ever been, and shall ever be, should share

it with us *in secula seculorum*." But this feeling harbors a fallacy. You can only realize these swarming masses in a purely external way, but they are realizing themselves "with the acutest internality, with the most violent thrills of life. 'Tis you who are dead, stone-dead, and blind, and senseless, in your way of looking on. You open your eyes upon a scene of which you miss the whole significance." Every living entity creates a call for that entity, and an appetite for its continuance. The universe can supply its needs, for "it is not as if there were a bounded room where the minds in possession had to move up or make place and crowd together to accommodate new occupants. Each new mind brings its own edition of the universe of space along with it, its own room to inhabit; and these spaces never crowd each other,—the space of my imagination, for example, in no way interferes with yours." Professor James refers to Wundt's law of the increase of spiritual energy, which leaves no limit to the positive increase of being in spiritual respects, so that, however immeasurable the spiritual demand may be, there will be a corresponding spiritual supply. The life of God, in effect, is infinite, and, therefore, equal to all demands, for in Him we live, and move, and have our being. We are not in a universe made for the select few, but in a house of "many mansions,"—a great "democratic universe," Professor James calls it. "Was your taste consulted in the peopling of this globe? How, then, should it be consulted as to the peopling of the vast City of God?" The truth seems to be that, in spite of our scientific achievements, we are still under the old conception of a limited, bounded universe; we do not realize what infinite provisions are stored up for the countless multitudes whom divine energy calls into being. In our mind it is a question whether the New Testament confirms this theory of Professor James as to the inherent immortality of being as such (for he even seems to carry the idea to lower forms of life), but there can be no doubt as to the power and suggestiveness of the argument here furnished. The reply to materialistic science is, to our thinking, complete; and though the second part of the argument is not equally conclusive, yet it is full of interest to those who ponder over the great problem and who find no rest for their troubled spirits.

★

SINCE the appearance of Kipling's "Recessional Hymn" many passages in his writings have been referred to, with the view of attesting the essential religious basis of not a little of his work. The following is taken from the *envoi* to "Life's Handicap":—

By my own work before the night,
Great Overseer, I make my prayer.

If there be good in that I wrought,
Thy hand compelled it, Master, Thine;
Where I have failed to meet Thy thought,
I know, through Thee, the blame is mine

SCIENCE AND DISCOVERY

THE STELLAR HEAVENS*—III.

IF we adopt the plan of taking up the more conspicuous constellations first, and using stars in these as points of reference, by which to find objects not so well known, we should pass from Ursa Major to the beautiful group known to all observers as the "Lady in the chair," Cassiopeia. And to do this we simply look to the opposite region of the heavens; if the Great Bear is low down in the horizon, then the Lady is near the zenith, and so on. There is a straggling letter W easily made out, traced by five stars of about the third magnitude in the constellation, so placed that the three upper points are nearest the pole. These are designated, naming the westerly one first, Beta, Gamma, Epsilon; then the two lower points are Alpha and Delta, the latter to the eastward. Of course, there are a great many fainter stars making up the constellation; anyone interested in the old figure may note that Beta and Gamma are in the back and the arm of the chair, while Alpha, Delta, and Epsilon are in the left breast, the knee, and the ankle of the body.

Cassiopeia is one of the oldest of the groups to which names were given, and has always been of special interest. The Milky Way passes through it, the W figure being wholly in the galaxy, so that in directing the telescope to any of the stars the field is really beautiful. In fact, the way to study this constellation is to take one star after another and note the field in each case. One of the fainter stars, Mu, nearly on a line with Beta and Alpha, the latter being central, has long been known as a star having a very large proper motion athwart the sky. It is a triple star, but the two companions will not be seen with small apertures. There are several faint stars in the neighborhood, which must not be mistaken for the companions; one star, Theta, a magnitude fainter than Mu, is just to the south and east, and perhaps this may serve for identification. The amateur should know this object, which, on account of its rapid motion, is frequently studied at the great observatories. About three degrees southwest of Beta is a very beautiful cluster, set right in the Milky Way, and first seen by Caroline Herschel in 1783.

In the history of astronomy one of the most interesting chapters is connected with Cassiopeia. We are carried back to the sixteenth century, to the days of Tycho Brahé, the father

of practical observational astronomy, for his instruments were immensely in advance of all that had hitherto been used in measuring celestial distances. In 1572 Tycho was much interested in chemical studies, perhaps more than in the study of the stars. On the evening of November 11, 1572, the young Danish scholar was returning from his laboratory to his house, at Heridsvad, when he happened to look up to the heavens and there, in Cassiopeia, forming a parallelogram with Alpha, Beta, and Gamma, and north of these, was a star of extraordinary brilliancy, which he was certain he had never before observed. He asked some people whom he met to verify his observation, for it occurred to him that something might be wrong with his eyes. But they were all right, the phenomenon was a "new star," and if we presume that the evening before had been a clear one, then Tycho caught almost the first message brought by the rays of light from the wonderful object. For a month the *nova* remained as bright as Venus at her maximum, and could be seen in the daytime. It began to decrease in lustre in December, and becoming fainter and fainter during 1573, it finally ceased to be visible in March, 1574. What was it? Well, this was before the invention of the telescope; Tycho did not live to see that instrument; so we do not know what even a telescope might have revealed. But the graduated arcs which were used in observation were fine enough to establish the fact that the object was immeasurably distant; hence we conclude that it was not a body belonging to our system, but stellar, a fixed star, or perhaps two, ablaze. The color was first white, then yellow, and in March, 1573, became red. This shortly changed to a dull leaden color (Tycho named it like that of Saturn), and so it remained to the end. Now a telescope is a better instrument for studying star colors than the sharpest eye, and with optical aid something interesting and positive might have been brought out in this connection. But there the story rests, and the modern astronomer, armed with his spectroscope, can only wish that another such an object would appear. Tycho's observations were not of such accuracy as to enable us to say which one of the faint stars in the neighborhood was the *nova*, or whether it is there now at all, or not. A star, however, has been catalogued as Tycho's, one point in its favor being that it varies slightly in brightness. We must remember in this connection that amidst the infinite variety of the

*Continued from SELF CULTURE for January, Vol. VIII, p. 632.

stellar hosts there may be variable stars with very long periods, possibly centuries.

Let us now turn again to the folds of the Dragon. Note the straggling U which encloses the Little Bear and the other curve enclosing the pole of the ecliptic. Between this latter group and Cassiopeia, occupying, as will be seen, a wide extent of the heavens, is the constellation of Cepheus, and placed in such a manner that the two feet of the figure are close to the tail of Ursa Minor, while the head is away directly to the south, and is wholly in the Milky Way. Having the feet as described, it will help to trace the figure if we note the three brightest stars, Alpha, Beta, Gamma, respectively in the right shoulder, the waist, and the left knee.

We are now able to visualize the great precessional movement, the path of the pole among the stars. Note the pole star and then run the eye to that curve of the Dragon which we have described as enclosing the pole of the ecliptic. From this latter point to the north star we have approximately twenty-three degrees; now, with this radius, try to imagine a circle swept out in the heavens, the pole of the ecliptic as the centre. A good long look on a clear night and it will be seen that the circle lies outside the coils of the Dragon at the head, but cuts the figure in the tail and close to Alpha, one of the brightest stars in the constellation and easily discerned; then, sweeping away to Polaris and onwards, it passes close to Gamma in Cepheus, then passes through the neck of the figure in the Milky Way, and curves away through other groups which we have not yet taken up. Note that the course thus described is westward, for it is in this direction that the pole makes its slow and stately motion among the stars. Try to measure the arc between the pole and Alpha in Draco. Not easy? No, but sweep the eye around and you will see that sixty degrees is somewhere near it; so that one-sixth of the great period has elapsed since the bright star in the Dragon was the pole star. Now, there is the best of evidence that Alpha Draconis was near the pole when the Great Pyramid was built; the slanting passage which guided the architects in the orientation of the great structure pointed to Alpha at its lower meridian passage. One sixth of 25,000 years takes us back to 2300 B. C., so we have at

least an approximate date for the building. When we look into the data closely we find that the passage pointed nearly four degrees below the pole, and so have to take two possible dates when the star was on one side or the other of the true north point, but perhaps the above will serve to show how the stars lend their aid to history.

Alpha Draconis has a distant companion and is one of the stars classed of different magnitudes by different observers; the evidence, however, is not sufficient to place it among known variables. It is now of magnitude 3.7 and fainter than the two very conspicuous stars in the Dragon's head, Beta and Gamma. The latter, the easterly one, is another of those objects which the amateur should know. It has a place in the history of astronomy as being the star under observation by Bradley, astronomer-royal of England, in 1725, when he made the immortal discovery of the "aberration of light." Just as, rushing through a rain shower, the drops appear not to come perpendicularly, but obliquely, so, as the earth rushes through space, the rays of light from a star do not appear to come from its true place. Bradley was observing Gamma Draconis, for the purpose of possibly determining its distance, when the displacement due to aberration—which he knew was not the displacement of "parallax" which he was trying to find—baffled him. But one day, while sailing on the Thames, he noted that every time the boat tacked, the wind seemed to change, judging by the direction of the weather-vane at the masthead. It was another "Eureka," and from that day the aberration of light became a correction entering into all the problems of exact astronomy.

The constellations we have now named were among those known and described in very ancient times as circumpolar; modern astronomers have added to the figures in all parts of the heavens, and in this region they have slipped in the Cameleopard, stretching from the Milky Way right up to the pole in such a position that its head is, with Ursa Minor, enclosed in the Dragon's folds. There are no bright stars in this group, but many double stars and one of those curious objects, a planetary nebula. This, however, only large instruments will show satisfactorily.

THOS. LINDSAY.

THE TRUE SPECIALIST

HE WHO ascertains the special gift or power with which nature has endowed him, and makes it the boundary of a definite field of thought and action, is a specialist. This gift is that in a man which we are wont to call his forte—his strong point. It is that in which his main strength lies, and is the result of his "organization, or the mode in which the general soul incarnates itself in him." True,

men and women have attempted to become specialists without consulting the native bent of their character, but the solicitations of an age grown unstable by its great resources is so urgent and so varied that few indeed have the strength to pursue unswervingly a limited vocation unless they are impelled by the dictates of nature.

Every character is stamped by its own pecu-

liar bent. By following that bent or tendency man places himself under the glorious tutelage of nature. She is a wise and conscientious guardian and will prevent his becoming too diagonal or unpleasantly one-sided. But nature is very self-willed, and withal a trifle malicious, for if any, out of mere stubbornness or ignorance, refuse to recognize her power, she plays the wretched transgressors many a merciless trick, until finally, in disgust, she abandons them to their own futile devices. The specialist respects nature, and nature respects the specialist. Nature will lead her followers into paths not always smooth or sheltered, but up mountain sides, steep of ascent, rough and wearisome. Yet, if they be true to her guidance, a delightful sunset awaits them,—a sunset of dazzling brightness for the few, for others of tender and restful tints.

"Jack-of-all-trades" has stood from time immemorial as a type of the vacillating man. Yet who has not felt some sympathy for him? He may not be as weak as he is unfortunate in not being able to find out his one talent and to make the most of it. A man without the backing of nature loses faith in himself. He hurries restlessly from one occupation to another without sufficient forethought and preparation. We must wait in reverent silence and listen to the voice of nature.

This is an age of specialists. Yet the oncoming years will bring us more discoveries; more to be classified, more to learn, more to teach; and consequently the next generations will tend almost entirely in the direction of specialties. One generation will bequeath to the succeeding ones easier and pleasanter methods of acquisition, but also an accumulation of knowledge so vast that unless life is extended far beyond the allotted threescore years and ten, one life will not be long enough to grasp, even superficially, the entire range of a single subject. It is then simply the carrying out of what in political economy is recognized as the "division of labor" that makes the specialist. But this division of labor should be in harmony with that special gift, or with that special capability for work, that is in every man.

Will not, however, such a tendency result in a narrow-minded race? Is this not, even now, a characteristic of specialists? That a specialist may become illiberal and unsympathetic to those outside of his own field is always a contingency. Escape is possible only by his "enriching his whole capital as a man"; by cultivating his talents for the help of others; by opening his heart and mind to the work of the world for the world; by watching the signs of the times; by keeping close to the throbbing heart of humanity.

An all-round, complete education is an ignis fatuus springing from the feverish brain of educators. We are crippled by the feebleness of infancy at both ends of life. We sleep much of

it away. What time is left for vast and thorough research if we are not an Alexander von Humboldt? It is better to do one thing well than many things indifferently. However, the entering of any specialty is to be deprecated until a firm, broad foundation of general culture has been laid. It would be as if in the erection of a temple the groundwork, the outer walls, the whole plan and scope of the edifice, were neglected in the thought of the altar. The most important part of the temple is indeed the altar, but the foundations support it, the walls guard it, and the openings make it accessible.

In God's great economy everyone is by nature, and should be by practice, a specialist. The sentiment of the old Tyrolese proverb, that "God has his plan for every man," is based on the conviction that every man is born to his work, and that every man's work is cut out by a Superior Hand and laid around him even from his infancy,—a work in the doing of which he will be stronger and happier and more successful than in the doing of any other work whatsoever. As the skilful gardener does not plant but so that each rose blooms in its appointed place, and so as most to contribute to the general effect of commingled fragrance and beauty, so God does not plant the garden of human life without design, but intelligently and with care, so as that each immortal germ may unfold in its appointed place and as is most in accordance with the requirements of its own nature and the highest good of all.

ANNA HAMLIN WIKEL.

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

★

A SECOND, revised and much enlarged edition is announced of "The Elements of Practical Astronomy" by W. W. Campbell, Astronomer at the Lick Observatory, and will soon be published by The Macmillan Company. The field of practical astronomy has become very extensive, embracing essentially all the work carried on in our astronomical observatories. It includes the photographic charting of the stars; the spectroscopic determination of stellar motions; the determination of solar parallax from heliometer observations of the asteroids; the construction of empirical formulæ and tables for computing atmospheric refraction; and scores of other operations of equally high character. These, however, can best be described as special problems, requiring prolonged efforts on the part of professional astronomers; in fact, the solution of a single problem often severely taxes the combined resources of a number of leading observatories, while it is evident that a discussion of the methods employed in solving special problems must be looked for in special treatises and in the journals, yet these methods are all developed from the elements of astronomy, of physics, and of the other related sciences.

YOUTH'S DEPARTMENT— HISTORICAL STUDIES

ONE OF ENGLAND'S OLD-TIME NAVAL HEROES

SOME EXPLOITS OF CROMWELL'S GREAT ADMIRAL, ROBERT BLAKE

IN 1654-55, says an able writer in the "Cornhill Magazine," Blake sailed with a powerful fleet for the Mediterranean. Cromwell had demanded from Spain the right of trade with America and the exemption of Englishmen from the jurisdiction of the Inquisition. "My master," said the Spanish ambassador in reply, "has but two eyes, and you ask him for both!" Drake, some eighty years before, had "singed the King of Spain's beard," and Blake was now dispatched to put out one or both of the King of Spain's eyes! For Cromwell's foreign politics were of a daring temper. "I will make the name of Englishmen," he said, "to be as much dreaded as ever was the name of *civis Romanus*." Blake's commission was, in general terms, "to see that the foreigners do not fool us." Blake extracted from the Duke of Tuscany, and even from his Holiness the Pope, solid sums in compensation for wrongs done to British commerce. He visited Tunis, then, as in Lord Exmouth's time, the torment and scandal of the civilized world, and his performance anticipates and outshines even Exmouth's great deed at Algiers, a hundred and fifty years later.

Finding negotiations useless, Blake, on April 4th, led in his ships, anchored within half musket-shot of the Dey's batteries, and opened a terrific fire on them. Nine great ships of war lay within the harbor. When the cannonade was at its height, Blake lowered his boats, manned each with a picked crew, and sent them in to fire the Dey's ships. The British boats rowed coolly, but at speed, through the eddying smoke, fell upon the enemy's ships, and fired them. The flames leaped up the masts and spread from ship to ship, and when night fell the skies above Tunis shone as bright almost as at noonday, with the flames of the burning ships and batteries. Taking warning by the fate of Tunis, Algiers hastened to surrender its Christian captives. Blake's cruise in the Mediterranean was epoch-making.

Blake's object next was to strike at the Spanish Plate ships. The great galleons creeping eastward to Spain, with their freight of sugar and dyewood, of quicksilver and precious stones, of gold and silver and pearls, fed the financial strength of Spain. To cut them off was to snap all the sinews of its strength at a stroke. Blake, through most of 1655-56, was

blockading Cadiz and watching for the Plate ships to heave in sight from Santa Cruz. For a great fleet to keep the sea through the winter was, at that period, a thing undreamed of. Yet, practically for twenty-seven months, in spite of scurvy and tempest, Blake maintained his iron blockade of Cadiz. Every few days a storm would blow his ships across the foam-edged horizon; but when the storm had blown itself out the British topsails surely hove in sight again. The ships' hulls grew thick with barnacles and sea-grass, their rigging rotted, their supplies were exhausted, and scurvy raged through the crews. The men for two months ate vegetables boiled in sea-water. "Our ships," wrote Blake, "are extremely foul, our stores failing, our men fallen sick through badness of drink. Our only comfort is that we have a God to lean upon, although we walk in darkness and see no light." And yet Blake's iron will kept the ships for nearly two years at their watch outside Cadiz. Nelson's long watch off Toulon, or Collingwood's off Cadiz in the year previous to Trafalgar, is not so wonderful as Blake's blockade in the seventeenth century.

Then came that amazing dash at Santa Cruz, which formed the last and greatest of Blake's exploits. Stayner had intercepted one squadron of treasure ships immediately off Cadiz. With three ships he had attacked six, sunk some, and captured the rest. They were a magnificent prize, no less than £600,000 being found in one ship alone. But the largest squadron of Plate ships lay at Santa Cruz, under the great peak of Teneriffe, kept by the terror of Blake's name from attempting to reach the Spanish coast, and upon these Blake made his famous dash.

Santa Cruz is a deep, narrow bay, guarded by heavy batteries, with a difficult approach. Owing to the high land a fleet might easily be becalmed under the heavy guns of the batteries and so be destroyed, or, if the wind carried the ships into the bay, while it prevailed there was no chance of escaping out of it. It was at Santa Cruz that Nelson suffered his one defeat and lost his arm. It is not the least of Blake's titles to fame that he succeeded where Nelson failed.

On the morning of April 20 (1656) Blake, with his squadron, appeared off the bay. A fleet of sixteen great galleons was drawn across

the bottom of the bay, and Blake's swift soldierly glance told him in a moment that these ships would act as a screen between his own squadron and the great Spanish batteries on the shore. Blake led in to the attack with the same lightning-like precision Nelson showed at the Nile. The British fleet ran, with all sail spread, but in grim silence, past the batteries at the entrance to the bay. The fire was loud and fierce, but the Spanish marksmanship bad. His leading ships, under his favorite officer, Stayner, Blake launched at the galleons, but with the remainder of the squadron Blake himself rounded on the flank of the batteries, covering Stayner from their fire. For four hours the 700 guns of ships and batteries sent their tremendous waves of sound up the slopes of Tenerife. The Spaniards fought with great courage, but Blake's fire, by its speed and deadliness, was overwhelming. At two o'clock the fleet of galleons was in flames; by three o'clock nothing was left of them but half-a-dozen drifting blackened wrecks. Then came a sudden change of wind, and Blake's ships ran safely past the forts again to the open sea. They had done their work. They had not merely "singed the King of Spain's beard," they had emptied his pockets and broken his strength. "The whole action," says Clarendon in his famous history, "was so miraculous that all men who knew the place concluded that no sober man, with what courage soever, would ever undertake it." Yet Blake did this "miraculous" thing, and the daring that inspired the exploit is not so wonderful as the genius which kept this scurvy-wasted, barnacle-covered fleet

in the heroic temper which made it eager to accomplish whatever Blake planned.

Nothing is more pathetic than the story of Blake's home-coming. On an August afternoon in 1657, the fleet—the battered flagship, the "George," leading—was in sight off Plymouth. The green hills of Devonshire, the spires and roofs of the smoky city, the masts of the ships, were in full view. The piers and shores were crowded with thousands waiting to welcome the greatest sailor of its generation back to England. All the church bells in Plymouth were ringing. But at that moment Blake lay dying in his cabin. His captains, with those rare and reluctant tears that brave men weep running down their weather-beaten faces, were standing round his bed bidding farewell to their great chief. Just as the slow-moving "George" dropped her anchor Blake breathed his last. Never has England had a braver, a less selfish, a more simple and loyal servant. His corpse was rowed by his sailors up the Thames, and carried in state to Westminster Abbey, and laid in Henry VII's chapel—the noblest bit of human dust in even that mausoleum of kings. It is one of the things to be remembered against Charles II that, after the Restoration, he had Blake's bones dragged from their resting-place and cast into some nameless grave. The English monarch, however, who sold Dunkirk and filled his pockets with French gold, could hardly be expected to respect, or even to understand, Blake's fame. Perhaps, indeed, the fame of the noblest and bravest of English sailors was a secret sting to the conscience of the worst of English kings.

W. H. FITCHETT.

HOW TO THROW A BOOMERANG

BOOMERANGS are of two kinds, says a writer (Mr. Herbert C. Fyfe) in an English periodical ("Pearson's Magazine"). The first is called invariably the Australian boomerang, because it originated among the natives of Australia, and is used almost exclusively by them at the present day. Travellers assert that a native will leave his home in the morning, armed only with a couple of returning boomerangs, and will come back at night carrying a large number of birds killed with these strange weapons. I have no concern here with the boomerang that comes not back. This differs little from an ordinary club, and is of no special interest. It is, however, preferred to the other by the Australian aboriginal of to-day. "Marndwullun no good for fight," he will say; "if he no hit 'im man, might come back and hit you or friend beside you"—truly an undesirable quality in a weapon of offence! In further reference, however, to the "boomerang" it will be understood that the returning kind is meant. In case some of my readers may care to try a little boomerang throwing on their own

account, I give a few hints as to the manufacture of these implements. The tyro would do well to make them himself, as they are dear to buy, and many are broken before proficiency is attained. Besides, the making of them is a valuable lesson in their peculiarities.

The boomerang is formed of a bent stick, one side rounded, the other flat. The Australians make it from boughs of the *Acacia pendula*, or from some tree of similar growth, giving to the green wood the desired curvature in the fire. It is necessary to choose a very hard, strong, and heavy wood, and the best plan is to cut a piece from a natural bend or root of a tree, and to let the curve of the boomerang follow the grain of the wood. One hardly ever sees two boomerangs of the same shape, for they vary from a slight curve to nearly a right angle. They differ also in length from fifteen inches to three and a half feet, and in breadth from two inches to three inches. They should be about three-eighths of an inch thick, tapering towards the ends, which may be either round or pointed, while the edge must be sharpened

all round. One side must be convex, the other flat, the sharpness of the edge along the convexity of the curve varying in different boomerangs. When thrown the boomerang travels forward for some distance, and then generally returns in an ellipse to within a few paces of the thrower. If the boomerang strikes its mark it falls to the ground. In throwing, it must be grasped at one end, stretched back behind the shoulder, and then brought rapidly forward above the head, the inside of the curve facing the direction in which it is thrown. It may either be hurled upward into the air, or downward so as to strike the ground at some distance from the thrower. In the first case it flies with a rotatory motion, as its shape would indicate, and, after ascending to a great height, it suddenly returns in an elliptical orbit to a spot near its starting-point. When thrown downward to the ground it rebounds in a straight line, pursuing a ricochet motion until it strikes the object at which it is cast.

To throw the Australian boomerang in such a way as to make sure of its doing exactly what one wants is one of the most difficult feats in the world. Mr. Alfred W. Howitt, who has seen the natives of Victoria practicing with the boomerang, mentions that he questioned some blacks as to whether they thought it was possible to throw it so as to insure its returning to the hand of the thrower. Seven said "No," and characterized the statement as "*jet bollan*," *i. e.*, a falsehood; the eighth said he once made a boomerang that, when thrown on a calm day with great care, would gyrate round and round until it descended to the ground not far from him, moving as slowly as a leaf falling from a tree, and that he once ran forward and nearly caught it. He said also "no *kurni* (black fellow) can catch a *wunkun* when he flying—he would cut his hand open." The throwing of boomerangs has always been carried on in the open air, and no Australian native has ever attempted to use them in a building.

✱

Engineering As a mechanic, Archimedes
Two Thou- produced the correct theory of
sand Years the lever, and invented no less
Ago than forty interesting devices, including the endless screw, the pump, the organ, and the "burning glass," with which latter novel weapon he is said to have set fire to the ships of an enemy's fleet from a considerable distance. The story is probably fabulous, but none the less interesting, as exhibiting the faith of the people in the man, and as indicating the character of his pursuits. As engineer, Archimedes was looked upon as hardly less than a magician. He produced catapults which threw enormous stones and heavy pikes, at long range, into the ranks of the enemy or into his ships; and great derricks were built by him with which to lift the attacking craft out of water or to upset it, destroying all on board. His proposed use of the lever meant the pro-

duction of then inconceivable inventions in machinery and engineering construction, and his own estimate of its importance was expressed by the familiar quotation, "Give me whereon to stand, and I will lift the earth." Archimedes was the first, and perhaps the most inventive and greatest, of early engineers. His lever still moves the world, and his spirit is inherited by generations of the men who have made modern civilization possible.

Hero was the most famous successor of Archimedes. His "*Pneumatica*" was published to the Alexandrian world after the death of Euclid and of Archimedes, and very likely includes inventions of the latter and of Ctesibus, for nothing is said to indicate what part of the collection of inventions there described is due to the author and what to earlier scientists and engineers. In this little volume, however, are contained descriptions of the germs of the "fire-engine," or steam-engine, of the Marquess of Worcester, of the steam-turbine, of the water-tube steam-boiler, of numerous steam and air fountains, and of many other curious and, undoubtedly, to the ancients, mysterious contrivances, not omitting the magician's marvellous bottle, the source of many wonders. He anticipates or supplies the germ of numbers of modern engineering apparatus and mechanisms. In one of his "propositions" he shows how temple doors may be opened and closed by steam; in another, how birds shall be made to appear to sing; in another, he raises water in a fountain by fire; and in still another, he accomplishes the same thing by a "solar motor." Hero was the great mechanical engineer and scientific author of his time. Perhaps the most remarkable event in the history of the mechanic arts and of engineering is the revival of the steam-turbine in our own time as the rival of the modern steam-engine, which, with its complication of parts, its extraordinary perfection of structure and workmanship, and its summary of the inventions of the great engineers and mechanics of a century and more, has been considered to be the crowning effort of modern inventive and constructive genius. Two thousand years after Hero, the world now takes up his steam-engine, and its modern reinventors and improvers promise that, with this instrument of the old Greek times, they will revolutionize steam-engine construction, bringing about so complete a turn that the cycle shall take us back to the Alexandrian and his toy.—"*Cassier's Magazine*."

✱

A COMPANY has been organized for the purpose of developing the great power of the whirlpool rapids by means of a canal which shall be built inside or beneath the tracks of the gorge road. This canal will be 530 feet long and 100 feet wide. It will be capable of furnishing 35,000 horse-power at the whirlpool under 45 feet head. It is thought that the cost will be about \$2,000,000.

BUSINESS AND FINANCE

FOR some weeks the business world has heard with amazement the reports of the enormous volume of business transacted during the year 1898, especially on the line of international trade. But the reports for January would seem to indicate that the record of this year will be yet more phenomenal, unless unforeseen events, such as foreign complications and quarrels, intervene to check the advances of our commerce. So far as the movements of currency and bank statements are safe guides, the month of January just past would seem to have been another "record breaker." The banks all over the country report unprecedented movements of money, though in many localities this was largely due to excessive speculation. In New York City, for example, a tremendous speculative movement in stocks of all kinds prevailed through the entire month, the sales on one day during the five open hours of the Stock Exchange having aggregated the unprecedented figure of over 1,800,000 shares. It is probable that the market value of these shares averaged above \$125. each, which would give a total of over \$225,000,000 to represent the transactions of one day, or an average of over \$45,000,000 an hour. A special feature of all the trading was the strength of railroad stocks, which the enormous business the roads have done during the past year, and the natural earnings from the same, have again placed in the columns of desirable properties; and the great interest in the "new industrials" with which the stock market has been flooded during the past few months. It is estimated that the amount of such stocks (largely of new trusts) placed on the market during the past year is not less than \$900,000,000, the value of more than one half of which is purely fictitious, or simply clear "water." This excessive trading was not alone notable for its volume, but also was unprecedented for its long continuance. The flurry began with the opening of the market on the morning of January 3, and continued without abatement through the entire month; the grand total of sales during the twenty-five active business days having reached the sum of 24,206,768 shares. It is authoritatively stated that the strain upon the larger business houses in Wall Street at last became so great that a concerted movement was made to check the speculative spirit, so that it might give business houses time to adjust their accounts, and attend to the usual routine office work which belongs to the end of the month. "It may be further noted," says one of the financial papers, "as one of the signs of the time that many of the

larger houses connected with the New York Stock Exchange have found it needful, owing to the pressure of business, to divide their forces into 'shifts,' and cases are spoken of in which the leading firms of this kind have organized their clerical assistance upon a basis which amounts to practically running night and day."

* * *

DOUBTLESS this enormous speculative business had a great deal to do with the phenomenal reports of bank clearings for the month, though the large increases shown in purely commercial centres, proves that the bulk of the increase was normal and healthful. The aggregate clearings for January at seventy-six cities of the United States reached the unprecedented total of \$8,469,475,860,—an amount nearly equal to the combined national debts of the United States, Great Britain, and France. This amount is an increase of 15 per cent. over December clearings, 41 per cent. over January of 1898, and 88 per cent. in excess of those of January, 1897. The reports of the banks of New York City were probably the most remarkable ever made for any month in its history, the clearings for January reaching a total of \$5,690,749,775, which was more than \$2,000,000,000, or over 31 per cent. greater than the total for January of 1898. These enormous transactions of the banks and exchanges of New York materially affected the commercial and financial conditions of the world, and for a month, at least, New York markets were more closely scanned than those of any other city, and the financial center of the world was transferred from Lombard to Wall street. With the successes of our army and navy during the past year, the phenomenal evidences afforded by the balance of trade of the nations' productivity and wealth, and the proof given by such bank statements as are noted above of the vast amount of ready money in the country to meet any business or public emergency, it is only natural that an excess of national pride should obtain at the present time. This, however, only makes more evident to the conservative mind that wise counsel and sound judgment are especially necessary in all commercial and national transactions.

★

WE HAVE two or three times emphasized in these columns the urgent need of taking the consideration of such questions as the tariff and currency out of politics, and placing it in the hands of commissions of experts and students who could prepare scientific bills to place before the people for their approval. Professor

Laughlin also elaborated this idea in his valuable paper on "Commissions on the Tariff and Money," in *SELF CULTURE* for February. We are glad to report the recent formation of a league of business men of the whole United States, which has embodied in its platform a modified demand for just such treatment of these questions so vital to the welfare of general business and the people. This organization is known as the "National Business League," and has its headquarters at Chicago in the Stock Exchange building. Already branches have been organized in all the leading cities and commercial centres of the country, and positive, aggressive work has begun. In their general statement of principles and purposes the officers of the league say:—

"The National Business League, lately organized in Chicago, is a new movement among business men, so far as its form and proposed methods of work are concerned, but it is one of the natural outgrowths of the same feeling from which have arisen various other movements designed to improve governmental administration methods in different particulars. That feeling is one that politics and government have grown to be quite too much a 'line of business,' the managers of which make and repeal laws almost altogether for the sake of the effect on politics and political prospects, in flagrant disregard of the effect on the real, sustaining business of the people as a whole.

"The leading aim of the League is to do all within its power to put a stop to the ruinous practice of enacting laws gravely affecting business interests for partisan, political reasons. It is believed that whenever any law is enacted which affects any one branch, or any number of branches, of business, it will have, of necessity, more or less effect on the general business condition; that you cannot change the relation of one business to all other business without more or less shifting the relations with each other of all branches of business. Further, it is believed that no one branch of business can be permanently benefited by any step which lowers the condition of general business. It may be benefited for a time, but the reaction resulting from injury to general business, will inevitably more than overbalance the temporary benefit, because the effect of such reaction is a continuing injury.

"Believing that business legislation should be always prompted by business reasons, the League proposes to collect from its entire membership the facts of business experience throughout the entire country, and to see that these are brought home to Congress and its committees whenever any measure is proposed which will affect, for good or ill, any particular business interest and, therefore, the general business activity and prosperity. This is to be facilitated by extending the League into every State by the organization of affiliated State Councils. All these will keep in close touch with the cen-

tral, national agency representative of the League, which national agency will keep in close touch with the congressional committees by which all such proposed legislation must be considered.

"It will thus stand ready to promptly report to the body of the League any and every proposed measure likely to affect business, and to gather, with reference thereto, the combined experience and opinion of the whole business community, in season to present the same to the committees of Congress before legislative action can be taken.

"The theory that all legislation, on whatever subject, should always be based on the fullest and most accurate information concerning the subject affected, is one which no thinking man will dispute, and to attain this end the League makes its leading general purpose."

* * *

One of the principal measures the National Business League has advocated is the formation of a national "Department of Commerce and Industries." Petitions praying for the establishment of such a department were presented to the committees on commerce of both Houses of Congress last year, signed by ninety-eight national, State, and municipal organizations of business men, boards of trade, etc., which represented twenty-eight States; and at the same time letters urging the same action were presented from 443 leading business men and firms, of all political parties, representing thirty-two different States. It will thus be seen that, though local in its origin, the League has already become truly national in its make-up; and it now has an "Advisory Council" of over 300 of the best-known business men of the country, in which every industry and every branch of trade is represented by its recognized leaders. In November last the League presented a memorial to President McKinley, calling his attention "again" to the "matter of the organization of a 'Department of Commerce and Industries,' bills for which are now pending in both Houses of Congress." In this address to the President, the League urges the following strong arguments for the formation of such a department:—

"The demand for this department has largely increased in view of the new territory which is being opened up to the commerce of this country. There are, as we think, legitimate lines along which commercial interests are furthered by all civilized nations, and which are outside the field of partisan politics. It is believed that a new department of the Government, of the nature contemplated, will prove a very effective instrument for promoting such interests along such lines. One of the main objects of the contemplated legislation is the concentration and systematizing, in the new department, of the various bureaus for obtaining and collating commercial statistics—at home and abroad—which bureaus are now

scattered through four different departments, causing duplication of work and expense, and often producing results which are comparatively worthless. It seems to be generally conceded that present conditions demand a considerable increase and improvement in the government machinery through which information is obtained as to the products and commercial wants of other peoples, and as to requirements for successful trade, both foreign and domestic; and that such increase and improvement can be adequately furnished only by a department of the Government which shall deal exclusively with the two related and important subjects of commerce and industries.

"The expansion of our commercial relations to include many new peoples, living under widely different conditions, seems to deepen the conviction, already growing in the minds of our business men, that tariff questions are getting to be questions of fact for experts rather than of party politics. We submit that, whether these questions are in politics or not, a department of commerce and industries might provide facilities through which competent nonpartisan experts could make such investigations and report before legislation on any contemplated change in a tariff schedule as would enable Congress to take action with comparatively accurate knowledge as to its effect, and thus the wholesale revisions of the tariff, so damaging to general business interests, might be avoided.

"In view of the above considerations and of the very general desire for the early establishment of this department, we respectfully urge that you call the attention of Congress to this matter in your message to its next session, and that, if consistent with your views, you recommend favorable action thereon."

★

GREAT BRITAIN continues to be the greatest customer of the United States, despite the fact that our purchases from her continue much below those of former years. The figures of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics covering the calendar year exports and imports show that our sales to the United Kingdom in the year 1898 were \$538,661,787, against \$482,695,024 in 1897, while our imports from Great Britain in 1898 were but \$111,361,617, against \$159,002,286 in 1897. Thus our sales to the United Kingdom are nearly five times as much as our purchases from her. The exports to the United Kingdom increased \$56,000,000 over those of 1897, while at the same time the imports from that country into the United States were decreasing \$48,000,000.

The following table shows the value of leading articles imported into the United Kingdom from the United States in the calendar year 1898 compared with 1897, as shown by the "Account of Trade of the United Kingdom" for the month of December, and the calendar year,

just received by the Treasury Bureau of Statistics

ARTICLES.	1897.	1898.
Wheat	£20,193,864	£24,743,021
Bacon	5,353,624	6,438,239
Lard	1,927,162	2,796,251
Copper, unwrought	1,474,578	2,058,820
Raw cotton	24,557,513	27,513,032
Leather	2,606,406	3,036,811
Hams	3,411,559	3,651,414
Hops	280,453	838,074
Tallow and stearine	240,617	538,243
Fresh beef	4,609,130	4,677,341
Indian corn	6,623,230	7,314,935
Oats	1,913,476	2,294,021

These reductions in our imports from the United Kingdom are, however, merely an incident of the general reduction in our imports, which during the calendar year 1898 were \$107,637,000 less than those of 1897. Indeed, the United States is proportionately to her imports a better customer of the United Kingdom than the average foreign country. The countries of the world, omitting the British colonies, took but about 15 per cent. of their imports from the United Kingdom, while the United States in 1898 took over 17 per cent. from the United Kingdom. Indeed, our purchases from that country were far in excess of those from any other part of the world, being 50 per cent. in excess of those from Germany, double those from France, more than the total from Asia, Africa, and Oceanica combined, and more than one-third of the entire importations from Europe.

★

RECENT LITERATURE

- "The Taxation of Banking Capital." Bankers Magazine (January).
- "The New Bankruptcy Law." Bankers Magazine (January).
- "Canada and the United States." Canadian Magazine (January).
- "Industrial Evolution of Colonies." Popular Science Monthly (January).
- "Powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission." North American Review (January).
- "Final Report of Monetary Commission." Annals of American Academy Political and Social Science (January).
- "Functions and Qualities of Money." Bankers Magazine (January).
- "The Quantity Theory of Money." Journal of Political Economy (January).
- "Advantages of the Nicaragua Canal." Century Magazine (January).
- "Objections to Annexing the Philippines." North American Review (January).
- "Federal Taxation of Interstate Commerce." Review of Reviews (February).
- "Export Trade of the United States" (English View). Westminster Review (January).
- "Spanish Currency of To-Day." Journal of Political Economy (January).
- "Harnessing the Nile." Century Magazine (February).
- "The Colonial Expansion of the United States." Atlantic Monthly (February).
- "The Programme of the British Labor Party." Nineteenth Century (January).

ROUND THE TABLE

OUR LATE WAR—WHO KILLED COCK ROBIN?

COCK ROBIN, private in the —th Regiment of Volunteers in a certain State, died October 10th of typhoid fever. His family said it was a murder. The question naturally arises: Who killed Cock Robin? That wasn't his name. It was Ledyard Peacock Robinson, according to his baptismal certificate, but this was clearly an impossible name, and by the time he had left off kilts it was shortened to Cock Robin, and as such he was known until his death, outside the sanctities of his own family.

Inasmuch as Cock Robin was a vigorous young man on the April day he enlisted, it is of interest to trace his career during the six months he served his country as well as he knew how. He will never be emblazoned as a Santiago hero, for he never left the country. He never smelled the smoke of battle, nor incurred any of the dangers of actual warfare. Yet he is dead, a victim of the Spanish War and a hero. He did the best he could, and is mourned as sincerely as any Rough Rider who fell on San Juan Hill. Who killed him?

It is a matter of record that Cock Robin enlisted in his State National Guard in 1894; that he had been a favorite in his company; was well drilled, and understood the tactics of the militia soldier. He went into camp regularly for eight days each year, which was rather a picnic than a painful duty, served with his regiment during local riots, and was a qualified marksman. When the Spanish War broke out and the President called for volunteers, the National Guard of the State was ordered into camp. Here the regiments were formed. Those who wished retired and their places were taken by volunteers. Cock Robin should not have gone. He was an important factor in the support of his family, but he was inspired by patriotism, a desire to fight, a love of adventure, and was ashamed to appear as a "coward" if he had refused to go, as he should, since many were waiting the chance to enlist.

Cock Robin was a vigorous mechanic, but with little experience in roughing it. He was a hearty eater, and his mother was a good cook. He had never lived in luxury; neither had he known what real hunger meant. He decided to go with his regiment, and in May he left for Chattanooga. The trip was a pleasant one. They carried only field rations, but these were seldom in request. Whenever the train stopped at a city a delegation of women met them with coffee, sandwiches, and cake. The pretty girls waited on and adorned the heroes in blue.

Camp Thomas, near Chickamauga, was not exactly like a summer camp of the National Guard. The situation of our hero's regiment was not of the best. It was hard work to prepare the camp, and for days it was difficult to get rations on time. When the rations arrived it was hard to get them cooked properly. The details for company cooks were not disciples of Mrs. Rorer. They knew as much about cooking as they did of the Higher Criticism. They did their best. If they had done their worst the result would have been about the same. The acting regimental commissary, who was entirely new to the business, drew five days' rations. As everyone was inexperienced, about one-third of the meat spoiled and many of the potatoes rotted. The coffee was green, and was practically ruined in roasting. At the end of three days every bit of food was gone, and two days must intervene before more was drawn. Was the regiment to starve? There was grumbling over the result, but before we go further let us see what mistakes had been made so far.

The officers of the regiment, as a whole, were excellent men, most of whom had served in the National Guard for ten years or more, and who felt that they knew all there was about soldiering. The colonel was a man of prominence in his community, who had served through all the grades, and was an excellent tactician. He knew little of warfare, but had displayed his regiment to advantage on review at the yearly encampments. He had a social standing and a political pull, and he did the best he could for his regiment. As he was neither a prophet nor the son of a prophet he could not foresee all the troubles in store for him. When he found there was no water within five miles of his camp he started out to find some. He was told to take his quota of mules from the government corral, get wagons and barrels, and haul water. A detail was sent to capture the mules. These hybrid animals were averse to menial employment. When a detail, consisting of a former school-teacher, lumberman, dry-goods clerk, malt mixer, newspaper reporter, and the like, undertook to harness the mules, there was a revolt and two good hospital cases. When finally, after several days' work, the companies were provided with wagons, drawn by mules which seemed to be in league with Spain, the situation improved somewhat, but in the meantime not a man in the regiment had washed his face, the cooks had trouble to get water enough for cooking

purposes, while for drink the men repaired to the canteen and drank warm beer, or to the "shacks," where they purchased soft drinks most villainously compounded, or ate ice cream of imprecatory memory.

The colonel was not a geologist, or he would not have allowed the company sinks to be placed where they were. Believing that disinfectants would be at hand, he allowed them to be placed too near the cook tents, and the drainage proved to be in the wrong direction. No disinfectants came, and the use of earth was not insisted on, as it should have been. The first result was a plague of flies and offence to the olfactory organs. Indeed, the colonel paid less attention to details than he desired to do because of other pressing matters.

It was the general idea that an invasion of Cuba was to be made at once. A large army was concentrated, and the work of organizing it proceeded rapidly. It was divided into corps, divisions, and brigades. And this entailed much work on Cock Robin's colonel, who was for a time acting-brigadier, being senior colonel of the brigade. This threw the regiment back on the lieutenant-colonel, who was not so well equipped for the work as his superior. By the time the colonel got back to the regiment the lieutenant-colonel had done a number of things that had to be undone, and there was more confusion. Everyone was anxious to fight. Someone started sham battles, and these were carried on for a long time with the result of bewildering the officers, almost exhausting the men, and doing no good whatever.

All this time the officers in general were thinking of nothing but of the coming campaign. The quartermaster and commissary departments were for a long time in hopeless confusion. Some of the line officers struggled to get things straightened out, with more or less success. Some of them were veterans of the Civil War who had camped on that same field in 1863, when they were glad to get merely a hardtack and cup of coffee. They minimized the discomfort of their men, forgetting how unused they were to the new régime, and how the old regiments had dwindled to one-third of their former capacity by war and disease before they were effective.

The staff-officers did the best they could. They were of two classes: Regular army officers, who did their work methodically with the fear of army regulations before their eyes, and would not swerve a hair's breadth. Most of them had been used to a two-company garrison, and were overwhelmed with the task thrust on them, though they worked day and night to keep things going. The other class was from the volunteers. These officers in general were ignorant of the way in which requisitions should be made out, and many of them were too bashful to ask the regulars for information. Now, to their credit be it said, the regular staff-officers appreciated the shortcomings of the vol-

unteers, and, so far from wishing to reflect on them, were anxious to aid them, both for their own sake and that of the army. But this took time.

The acting commissary of Cock Robin's regiment was a young lieutenant who had been a clerk in a lawyer's office. When he drew the five days' rations referred to, it took him a long time to divide them among the commissary sergeants, who took them to the cook tents. The cooks were furnished with the regulation army cook book, which represents the results of years of experience, and, when followed, makes camp fare abundant and wholesome. The company cooks at the outset were no more interested in this book than they were in the "Rubaiyat" of Omar Khayyam. They boiled so much pork, fried so much bacon, cooked so much coffee, potatoes, and bread (?)—Heaven save the mark!—as the occasion seemed to require. They had no ice, no experience in keeping foods, and, as before related, five days' rations disappeared in three, and everyone was hungry.

Now, the daily life of Cock Robin was on this wise: Réveillé sounded at sunrise, and a few moments later the first sergeant began to call the roll. Woe betide the man who was not in the street to answer to his name. His punishment was to cut wood, roast so much coffee, or do some disagreeable police work. After roll-call the camp was "policed"—that is to say, all rubbish was cleaned up and burned, and the tents put in order for inspection. At the sound of "mess call" the company fell into line, each man with his quart cup, mess plate, knife, fork, and spoon. The cook doled out each man his coffee, bacon, and bread. A regular army cook could furnish a man with a breakfast good enough for a millionaire, though not much for style. The volunteer cooks usually turned out cases of dyspepsia. Cock Robin had not been brought up in the lap of luxury, but he had been a good provider and was a good liver. He was used to steak, or ham and eggs, with hashed browned potatoes, hot cakes or biscuit, and coffee for breakfast, with a little orange marmalade or some other relish. In consequence a large pint of ink, which bore small relation to coffee, a slab of underdone or burned bacon, and a piece of paving stone, called bread, failed to satisfy his appetite.

The men ate their meals in their tents, and it seldom took long. After a little routine work there were company or battalion drills in the hot sun, which were terribly exhaustive, particularly when the water was scarce. After drills a break was made for the canteen or the shacks, and those who had money came home with stomachs filled with beer, fruit, soft stuffs, pies or cakes, all of the worst variety. In consequence, few such had an appetite for dinner, which consisted of salt pork or corned beef, potatoes, hardtack, and occasionally some soup. This was at first. Gradually things grew better.

After dinner there were more drills, in the evening dress parade, then supper, and after a few hours rest "taps" sounded and the camp went to sleep on the bare ground. War is a science. At least the preliminary part of it is, and it is not an easy one to learn. The boys who started for the camps early in May, so full of enthusiasm, found out in a month that they had much to learn. An attempt was made to teach them too much in too short a time, and under the wrong conditions. There were too many drills at first, too many sham battles and practice marches, and too little attention to the individual soldier. It was weeks before all were provided with uniforms and guns, and much longer before they were really equipped for the field. The regiments were crowded, sanitary conditions were not in all respects good, and the regiments would have been much better off had they been left in their State camps until proper preparations had been made for them.

But to return to Cock Robin's rationless regiment. Some company cooks had been more provident than others, but all were short. The officers took up a collection and bought one day's rations, while the commissary went to wrestle with his chief and tried to obtain more rations. He had indifferent success. In so far as meat was spoiled, it was by a board of survey condemned and new food issued in its place, but as to what had been eaten or wasted there was no resource, and for two days the men had little to eat. Then there was grumbling. The War Department was denounced, nearly everyone was denounced, but the fact remained that the whole trouble lay inside the regiment. The men wrote home to their parents and friends, saying a good deal more than was justifiable, and many of these letters got into the newspapers. There was indignation on all sides, and boxes of provisions were hurried to camp from nearly every home represented in the regiment.

In the meantime the regimental commissary had learned something. He went over to the camp where the regulars were and watched what was done, asked questions, and came home a wiser man. He got the cooks together and explained what he had seen and gave suggestions, some of which were carried out and some were not. For a few days the regiment lived fairly well on the rations, which were better cooked and met by hearty appetites induced by hard marching and drilling. Then came the avalanche of express boxes from home. Not a tent that did not have its store of pies, pickles, cakes, preserves, etc. Those who had no friends were made welcome to the gifts by their "bunkies." A stomach that is getting used to black coffee and bacon is not improved by a lot of sweets. There is a purely therapeutical reason for this, not necessary to mention here, but there were many stomach aches and some hospital cases as a result of this mixed diet.

In Cock Robin's box was an envelope containing five dollars. He knew his mother could ill afford this, but he resolved to refund it when pay day came. He got leave with a companion to go to Chattanooga. I will not detail all that took place there. Robin was an abstemious man who liked an occasional glass of beer. On this occasion he took more than he had intended—in point of fact, too much—due to persistent treating by citizens and comrades. On his way back to camp he found his knees very shaky. He was hot and hungry. He bought a pie and ate it, took several alleged lemonades as bracers, and went to his tent in bad condition. That night it rained. He slept on the ground, as the colonel had not ordered board floors, expecting to be called to the front very soon, and believing that it was well to break the men into hardships. The rain soaked in more or less to all of the tents. In the morning Cock Robin was ill. He managed to get through mess call, but he could swallow only a little coffee. When sick call came he was reported, and the surgeon appeared. The surgeon was a young man with a growing practice at home, but had a slight knowledge of camp ills and their cures. He dosed Cock Robin and told him to lie still for a day. Next day he was taken to the regimental hospital, and he would have been sent to the division hospital, under the unwise regulation that prevailed, had he not insisted that he was well enough to go to his tent. He was not well enough, and the surgeon did not perceive it, but back he went. Next day his captain ordered him to go on drill, believing he was malingering. He obeyed, fainted while standing in line, and was carried off to the hospital again. This time the division hospital surgeon captured him. He was in an overcrowded and ill-supplied hospital, but, thanks to a good constitution, he was well in a week, though faint and weary.

The day he reported to his company the regiment was ordered to Tampa *en route* to Cuba. Immediately all was excitement. Cock Robin was roused to action and overdid himself. The regiment started at four o'clock in the morning for the railway station, eight miles away, waited six hours in the broiling sun, and then the orders were countermanded and the regiment was ordered back to camp. That was a dreary march and many fell out of line. It was two days before Cock Robin reached camp. The men had drawn ten days' field rations when they started, and these they had to eat until they were gone. This was hard luck, and there was much grumbling. Cock Robin, who had resolved not to touch beer again, was assured that a little whiskey would make him feel strong. He sought a "blind pig," or illegal saloon, in the brush, where he took two drinks of the vilest sort of stuff, called whiskey—it was worse than what they sell in Maine. The effect on Robin's stomach was

disastrous. For a time he felt as if he could lick the whole Spanish army, and several times announced his intention of doing so. Later on he felt thirsty and imbibed some beer. Then he ate some "stuff" and went back to camp, guided more by instinct than by his senses. Fortunately he was marked on sick leave or he would have gone to the guardhouse. That night he made it warm for his bunkies. He was drunk for the first time in his life. By morning his head felt like a shrapnel in the process of bursting, and he went to the regimental hospital again. It is a pleasure to note that this was Cock Robin's last encounter with John Barleycorn, though he was destined to meet enemies more deadly because they were not known or seen.

By the time he got out of the hospital he received a new invoice of victuals from home, at a time when he should have lived on the plainest diet. By mixing camp food with home supplies he got along very well as he supposed. He was never hungry and he did his share of work, though he felt tired much of the time for reasons he could not explain. By this time he had lost twelve pounds of flesh and looked sallow and wan, though he felt sure he was only undergoing the training that was necessary. One day when he had a furlough he walked into a camp of regulars and his eyes were opened. Whereas everything in his own camp had been carried on in a haphazard sort of way, he found here evidences of the perfection of a system. The officers knew their duties, made no fuss, and all went like clockwork. The men looked well, and certainly were different from the men in his own regiment. There was an *elan*, a confidence, and a general system which was a revelation to him. He talked with some of the men, and was surprised at their dignity, quiet assurance, and contempt for volunteers. The sergeant acted more scientifically than Cock Robin's colonel. Cock Robin walked home wrapped in thought. He had learned that only one regular had died at Camp Thomas, while volunteers were dying every day. When he reached camp he intended to talk about it, but when he arrived, orders were out to move next morning for Tampa.

To Tampa accordingly they went, not without their share of hardship, but after long delay they found a camping ground and settled down to await the Cuban invasion. Tampa is not a desirable spot for a camp. The move had, furthermore, upset the routine into which the regiment had fallen. Now a new system had to be organized, and it took time to get matters regulated, and there were days when rations were short again. The bacon would spoil in spite of all precautions, and the men suffered. The railway was blockaded with food for ten times the men assembled, but it was hard to find.

Unfortunately, as the men believed, the regiment was not ordered to Cuba, but was

sent to Fernandina. This was in some respects a poor site for a camp. Water was reached at a depth of less than two feet, so the sinks had to be shallow and were dug every day. The water was supposedly boiled before using, but often it was not. This made trouble. Typhoid fever broke out in a mild form, and there were several deaths. Cock Robin's regiment was one of the best in the service. The officers were intelligent, if not experienced, and they did the best they could to maintain discipline without entire success. In one company the captain was foreman in a sawmill. In his company a private was the son of the mill owner, who had from boyhood called him "Jim." While the officers were men of age and experience, they were not always the men best calculated to command. Service in the National Guard is a patriotic duty that appeals to few. It is irksome, costs money and time, and few stay for more than one enlistment. The officers are not always the most intelligent or most practical men in the company. They are chosen by the company for reasons that may have no bearing on efficiency. This works little harm under ordinary circumstances, but in case of actual war it accounts for a great deal of trouble and suffering.

All this time the men had no disinfectants for the sinks, which was the cause of much of the malarial and typhoid fevers. The fact was that the men were spoiling for a fight, but discipline was irksome. There were men in every company who were insubordinate, who would not obey orders as to food and drink, but there was not a man in the regiment who would not gladly have marched up San Juan Hill or into any other place of danger or death.

What a nation we are! What a curious creation is the human being! We spend our years in seeking by legislation the security for life and property. The man who steals a loaf of bread goes to jail; offences against the most ordinary laws, such as public shaving on Sunday, or irregularities in bookkeeping, are punished by fine or imprisonment. The citizen must be circumspect in the pettiest detail. Because we have not reached the millennium, because all men are not perfectly honest, and because human nature occasionally asserts itself, there is a large class of the best citizens who believe that the country has gone to the devil, that all politicians are corrupt, that Washington is a nest of thieves, and that there is not an honest man (except the one speaking) for a modern Diogenes to discover. The little band of reformers and mugwumps do some good, yet a great deal of harm, in pessimistic animadverting on the general legislation of the human race.

But when the call to arms comes, human beings of the male gender rise *en masse*. Neither woman's tears, nor logic, nor principle, nor training can restrain the man. He calls it patriotism. So it is to a large extent, but,

moreover, it is the brutal instinct inherent in man to shed blood. Thousands of years have passed, yet social forces, culture, education, nay, Christianity, have never diminished armies of men eager to shed blood.

If Cock Robin had knocked a man down in the streets of his village he would have been arrested. Now, as a patriot, he was enlisted to kill men by wholesale. Theoretically he was spoiling for an encounter. Every rumor of going to Cuba put the regiment on good terms. Between times there was grumbling at everybody and everything. The average recruit was as little suited for inactive war as he was for Wagnerian opera. He was willing to fight, but restless under training.

At Fernandina, after three months' inaction, there was sickness and death. The sinks were too near; the water not boiled; the beer, the pies, the ignorance of officers, resulted in disease, enhanced by the fact that a neighboring raw regiment from a Western State took hardly any sanitary precautions. To carry a sick man to division hospital was almost enough to kill him. Sometimes he was hours on a stretcher in the sun. Sometimes there was no ice for hours. Sometimes, in spite of the Red Cross, he was not properly attended to. The surgeons worked hard, but there are physical limitations for all men, and the hospital corps was not too efficient. "There was lack of woman's nursing; there was dearth of woman's tears."

The officers were to blame, the management was to blame, the men were much to blame; but more than all, the haste with which an army of 275,000 men was recruited was to blame. No such army in the world was ever raised or equipped so rapidly.

War is a trade and a profession. Suppose that suddenly 275,000 men were ordered to assemble in Northern Texas to build the greatest structure the world has seen, and that these men were chosen from butchers and bakers to college athletes and city clerks, not one versed in more than the rudiments of the trade? Would not the building be poorly constructed?

But to proceed with our story. Cock Robin went with his regiment to Northern Alabama, and was finally sent home on thirty days' furlough to be mustered out. Cock Robin was displeased. There had been no opportunity to fight Spain. He had become careless of himself. His company was well drilled and ready for action, but when no chance of fighting came the disappointment led to trouble. Pay day found him in debt. He could send no money home. He played poker and lost. He became reckless and thought of joining the regulars. The civil life now seemed tame, while army life was irksome. He was ready for anything. There were some larks, of which the less said the better. He made some new friends who did him no good. In fact, he had begun to forget civilization when the welcome orders came to muster out.

Cock Robin went home with his company far from a well man. He was not on the sick list, though he should have been. His low condition had led him to write gloomy letters, which were printed in his home papers. Ten thousand other soldiers did the same. The country was aroused. There was a suspicion that the boys had been ill-treated. Finally this grew into a conviction. When Cock Robin reached home he was weak and weary, and the dinner given to his company, flanked with too much beer, was a finishing touch. The seeds of malaria sown near Chattanooga, and increased in Florida, soon developed. In a week he was down with typhoid fever, and in a short time he was dead.

There was weeping and wailing in his native town. He was a martyr. A panegyric was preached by his pastor, the town turned out to hear it, and his company fired volleys over his grave. He was a martyr to the cause of Cuban liberty, but his mother was not satisfied with the sacrifice. He had been murdered.

Who killed Cock Robin?

Has not this faithful—absolutely true—narrative told? The nation spared neither wealth nor service. The State spared not its sons nor its anxieties. The regimental officers did their best. Friends of the boys did all that love can offer, yet hundreds died. Was it a condition, a fault, or a crime? Died Cock Robin as the fool dieth?

The answer is longer than the query. Has not this narrative told the tale? We have no compulsory military service; we have innumerable patriots. There were mistakes all along the line, but who could have foreseen them? When Cock Robin enlisted he expected to be in Cuba in a month. When he died he was no less a patriot than the dead on San Juan Hill. Each gave his life for his country. Each did the best he could. Cock Robin was a trained mechanic, but an untrained soldier.

Above Cock Robin's grave there are continuous blooming flowers. He will never be forgotten where he lived. In spite of the fact that our total death rate in the Spanish War was the least ever known, the grumblers are legion, and it will take long to convince the people that there was not maladministration. The fact remains that we did the best we could—better than was ever done before—and that on the firing line, if it had come, there would have been the finest army the world ever saw.

Who killed Cock Robin?

Lack of forethought, Lack of preparation, Lack of system, Lack of trained officers, Lack of discipline, Lack of understanding, A miserly Congress in past years	}	killed Cock Robin.
--	---	--------------------

JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. IX

APRIL, 1899

NO. 2

THE NEWER CITIZENSHIP

NO THOUGHTFUL or observant person can doubt that we are rapidly moving forward to a higher and more permanent form of civilization. A brief glance at the characteristics of our own day will suffice to show this and to bring out the fact that a new type of citizen is called for in view of these changes. Nothing seems truer than the statement that great social movements derive strength and permanence from the quality of the personal element, the character of the contribution made by each individual. With this subject this article deals.

The thesis I shall defend may be expressed as follows: Any earnest and thoughtful view of life, in the present day, leads to the conviction that citizenship in the modern State must be based on a higher estimate of personal worth than that of former days; in other words, it is the part each citizen plays in his day, and the view each citizen takes of his own age, that determines that most urgent of questions, Is life worth living?

I.—Before attempting to prove these propositions, let us look, in an unprejudiced manner, at the points to be proved. And, first, the age. Now the age in which we are living is preëminently one of *intellectual freedom*. The spirit of criticism is abroad. The most cherished convictions are, as it were, brought to the dissecting-table and submitted to anatomical and surgical treatment. This phenomenon, of course, is not new in itself; for ever since the Reformation this spirit has been gaining ground; but it has been immensely accelerated during the present century, and chiefly through the successes of physical science,—successes which have dazzled if not staggered the normal un-

derstanding. One consequence of this has been the increase of knowledge. It has become necessary to partition the territory between the various investigators; hence our age is the age of the specialist. Criticism has led to this greater clearness with which the various fields of inquiry have been discriminated. This, however, has not been an unmixed good; for the fields farthest apart, theology and science, have tended to become antagonistic, and this antagonism has frequently been both violent and revolutionary. But we should not blame the spirit of criticism for this. The source of the trouble is in the vice of extremes.

But the spirit of criticism is unfriendly to creation in the line of intellectual work. There are no great constructive movements going on in the intellectual world to-day. We have no really great thinker, nor any great poet, statesman, or seer. The most creative work done to-day is done by our editors; and this, it will be acknowledged, though indispensable, is to a large extent eclectic and preparatory. It is the era of the press; but the press cannot thrive where freedom is not an element of the psychological atmosphere. On the whole, then, we are justified in saying that the citizen lives to-day in an atmosphere far freer and more tolerant than that of his forefathers. As we look abroad we are able to see that never did the citizen have to confront wider and larger intellectual potentialities than the present affords; and, we may add, the future depends upon the manner in which these are controlled and directed. "America," as Emerson said in speaking of his age (1843), "is only another name for opportunity;" and these

words are still true, especially in an intellectual sense. The thirst for knowledge is the most insatiable of all thirsts.

Politically it is an age of unrest and discontent, as Mr. Bryce has been telling us. Let us briefly review some of the problems now facing us. One is the passing of representative government and the advent of aristocracy. It may be assumed, as a matter of philosophical observation, that no well-informed person now believes that the government at Washington is thoroughly representative of the people of this country in its legislative, administrative, adjudicative, and executive branches. We all know that so-called "party" politics comprise a great variety of complex interests, which derive their influence for the most part from the importance business concerns have assumed in our day. We know that government by corporation is the mode of administration most studied and affected in the affairs of the modern State. The very institutions upon which popular government has relied in the past to secure the execution of the popular will are now diverted from their original purpose and used as the means of realizing the more exclusive interests spoken of. The old town-meeting, for instance (where political authority was supposed to reside), is now the weakest prop of representative government, because it can be, and to a large extent is, under the control of men who as a body are set upon the election of representatives who are pledged to advance their exclusive interests. Nobody believes in the present day that the town-meeting is the fountain of all political righteousness in or out of New England. It is too old an institution for the modern spirit. The Swiss referendum were better. There is, on the other hand, little to be said in favor of aristocracy, except that it is a symptom of change, of unrest. The people will try it; but they will not rest in it.

Another of the problems growing out of the above, and one which we have not yet rightly gauged, is the future political status of women. Governor Roosevelt has placed himself on record as sympathetic towards the movement in favor of extending the suffrage equally to both sexes. This is a decided advance and means much to the progress of social movements in New York State, and, by analogy, for the whole country. Anthropologically, women cannot be considered beneath or

different from men, and I presume the same is true sociologically, while historically women have shown themselves not only competent, but patient, in their endeavors to secure what we can deny to them only on sentimental grounds. And with the extension of the suffrage to women a radical change would come over the entire machinery of politics. This were surely desirable, not only in spirit, but also for the sake of praxis. I cannot hide from myself the belief that the larger sphere now open everywhere to women involves corresponding political obligations which will ultimately result in their admission to the functions of citizenship. Pending this event the whole subject is a cause of deep unrest to political philosophers and to social life.

Another cause of political unrest is the financial question. The last presidential election turned on this issue, and I presume it will figure largely in the next. For it must not be supposed that it is a dead issue, any more than it can be assumed offhand that the victors in the last election will be elected in 1900. There was not, in my opinion, a pin to choose between Messrs. Bryan and McKinley in the point of selfishness at the last election. Neither party sought the supreme good of the country; each candidate was the agent of a powerful corporation of wealthy men seeking ends which terminated in themselves. It is, from our point of view, one of the most fortunate things for this country that Mr. McKinley was elected. But does the reader take in the significance of the fact that over seven millions of votes were cast for Mr. Bryan, and has he any guarantee that more will not be cast in that direction should the issue become prominent next election? If he supposes that we got rid of Bryanism at the last election, I confess to him that he has more complacency in the situation than I have. Indeed I believe that the financial question is the one most deeply affecting domestic policy at present, as well as the most disturbing factor in our party politics. The present administration has as yet done hardly anything toward settling the finances of the nation. It is therefore to be hoped that popular discontent may be so informed and guided that when the issue is again presented it may receive an intelligent and pacific treatment.

Overshadowing every other issue, however, just now, and causing great unrest among all classes of our people, is that of imperial expansion. I am among those who do not believe that this country is going to cut the thread of its best traditions, or plunge, blindfolded, into expensive and futile schemes which can only result in disaster. Our sober second thoughts are already bringing us back to our anchorage in history and reason. At the same time expansion is in the air, and the issue fairly absorbs the whole field of political attention and activity. The whole question is new,—new in extent, new in its implications, and new in the purport of the outcome,—and it is more than doubtful if the nation will profit in a permanent way by the wilful prosecution of the expansion policy. One thing is certain, the preoccupation of the administration in its settlement should not be allowed to divert the attention of the people and politicians from questions of domestic importance like those already mentioned. They are only temporarily eclipsed by the expansion issue. We shall come back to them as, after all, the truly American questions in the political sphere; and the only means of social development for us will be through their intelligent and equitable adjustment. The above brief mention of some of the more prominent problems is enough to show that our political life is, like our intellectual life, one of increasing disintegration, and that we are in a fiery trial so far as our cherished ideas of government and belief are concerned.

Offsetting the political unrest and intellectual curiosity spoken of, however, we have to notice the *increasing faith*, especially of cultivated and religious people, in the occult, the mystical, and the æsthetical. This appears very prominently in the interest taken in the arts. Take music and the drama. Of all the arts music has the most universal forms of fascination; and the human spirit, in the present time, seems to have developed wonderful power of self-expression. The least musical nations are coming to the front in this particular. The sceptre of music has already passed from Germany and is being assumed by other nations, like the Russians and Scandinavians, since Germany has taken to manufactures and so-called practical pursuits. The same is true of the drama and literature. But in

almost all directions we notice the growth of this spirit. A prominent novelist dies,* his death being due to a misplaced confidence in the occult claims made by an unethical faith called "Christian Science,"—a fact of great significance as showing the fascination which these occult and gnostic claims have for men of culture. Spiritualism, in its more refined forms, has in like manner the same hold on the minds of highly educated persons, especially within the geographical limits of New England. The same may be said of Swedenborgianism, hypnotism, psychical research, and other purely mystical and occult forms of thought. It is a neurotic sign, and can be explained only on the supposition that the creative activity has grown tired and exhausted, and the exhaustion has become unbearable as a definite attitude.

The same phenomenon appears in the *religious life* of our day, only in a far more acute form. Religion is the great unifying experience of men, gathering together in one conception, and in definite acts of worship and sacrifice, what without them remains unrelated and therefore unreal; so that, if religious faith become disturbed, everything else is out of joint. It was to be expected that the spirit of free criticism would not spare the church. Indeed no social organization has been subjected to such attack—often abusive—as this oldest of them all. The Bible, too, has submitted to the ordeal and comes out a different book from what it was fifty years ago; a fact due almost entirely to the application of the critical method of inquiry to its claims and contents. We have to notice, therefore, the passing of the old conception both of the church and the clergy, and the advent of a more ethical conception of ecclesiastical life. We judge of the divine authority of a church to-day not so much by its doctrines as by its deeds. We discuss and debate much about theology, but we have accepted the position that the life is more than the creed, however inconsistent, logically, such a position may prove to be. Religion, it must be acknowledged, has not its old-time revivalistic aspects, its enthusiasms, and its great missionary impulse; but we should be entirely wrong if we inferred from this that our age is irreligious, or has permanently thrown itself on the side of materialism. The strong

*Harold Frederic.

hold that the mystical and occult have upon us is a guarantee that faith in the supernatural will remain with us, though, as we have hinted, more ethical conceptions dominate in the newer synthesis which the age is forming.

Thus, then, in education, in politics, in morals and religion, we have to meet substantially the same phenomenon: the transitional character of our age. The first duty of the thoughtful man is to look well into this and watch. For (to revert now to our argument) the question whether life be worth the living in an age like ours is one that can be answered successfully only by first of all understanding what life demands of us. Now, in reference to our age, two judgments are possible. One is the judgment of regret, and the other is the judgment of hope. Looking into an age like ours a man may say it is bad, irrecoverably bad; and the only rational thing to do is to regret that he was ever born in such a time. This is the creed of the pessimist. But another possibility is open. Looking more broadly and not blinking facts, he may still judge that life is at any rate worth an effort, and he accordingly stakes his future on the hope that something good will come of his exertions. This is the creed of the optimist. Our argument is that life will be worth living, or not, in accordance with the way the will chooses either of these alternate judgments. Now having, for ourselves, resolved upon the judgment of hope, we shall let the pessimist go; there is absolutely no answer for his mode of reasoning. We prefer to take our chance with the rest in the belief that much depends upon our own individual efforts, and upon our conviction that the best life has to offer is an opportunity to do battle and to be present at the final victory.

II.—But this leads us to the second line of reasoning. For if it depends upon my will to make life worth living, then it follows that everything depends upon the kind of man I make myself to be, upon the character of the personal contribution I make to social well-being. To express it in words already used: the outcome of great social movements is, in largest measure, determined by the quality of life contributed by each citizen. Now I contend that our day is demanding from those who have formed the judgment of hope a newer citizenship, based on qualities many degrees higher than those of the past. Let

us therefore briefly indicate what these are.

In the first place, the newer citizenship needs to be an *educated* citizenship. I take that man to be educated who acts from reason and has his personal feelings and prejudices under the control of his will. I do not necessarily mean that only university men will make the best citizens. The higher education does not always produce this effective result. All I contend for is that it cannot be gained without some education. Therefore an educated man is always a good citizen if he acts from reason and conscience, and not from feeling and caprice or self-interest. We need this kind of man because in our era life is becoming increasingly complex; at every step the mind is confronted with a series of problems with which only an educated man is competent to grapple. For example, the transformation of our conception of government is a great issue which in the past has always been supposed to be a problem for political philosophers to settle for us. In the present day, however, every citizen is supposed to be competent to form sound opinions upon it. Again, the complicated issues growing out of our war with Spain are such that only a highly trained mind can really compass; but in our day these issues are to be decided by the citizen, and upon his intelligence in meeting them depends, not only the fate of this country, but also that of millions of his fellow-beings besides. Standing amid these far-reaching questions, who, we are tempted to ask, is sufficient for these things? We are perfectly safe in saying in reply, None but the educated citizenship of the country.

The specific intellectual character of the personal contribution, however, should not be determined arbitrarily. In fact my own opinion is that in our day we need to synthesize our historical inheritance in the light of criticism. I mean by this that we need the Puritan conscience in politics as much as, if not more than, the training of the mind in modern higher education. In the phrase "newer citizenship" we use the comparative degree, especially to signalize our conviction that the thread of our history cannot be broken, but will be continued, through a process of criticism, in a purer form. It is this, I fear, that we lack most in the modern citizen. He has, for the most part, passed a

judgment of regret instead of a judgment of hope, and hence he is in life for purely personal and negative objects. I call this an arbitrary mode of acting, inasmuch as it ignores the foundations of the present in the past, and breaks the continuity of the moral consciousness in political life. But if we have watched the times successfully we believe that the individual citizen will come more and more under the influence of that moral earnestness which characterized our forefathers in all their service to the State. Splendid as these latter were, nothing is finer than the tone of moral enthusiasm which is exhibited in all their public life. This is the really permanent contribution of the Puritan to social well-being; he emphasized conscience, demanded purity in public and private life, exalted character above talent, and resolved the whole problem of government into the relation of morally determined individuals with one another. The very publicity given to gross corruption in business and private life, in the present day, is a sign that the fund of social inspiration contained in the Puritan conception is not yet exhausted. What we maintain is that such an age as this, with its burning questions, demands of us a like moral enthusiasm, educated withal, and critical of the errors of our own and of past times.

The newer citizenship, however, must also possess a broader and more *positive* political quality. We want something of that dignity which attached itself in ancient times to citizenship in the Roman Empire. *Civis Romanus sum* (I am a Roman citizen) was a passport everywhere to respect and honor. And why? Because, in its best state, Roman citizenship rested on Roman virtue or manhood. Readers of the New Testament will remember an interesting instance in the life of Paul when this quality was exhibited. Being unjustly seized by his opponents, the Jews, it was enough for him to ask, "Is it lawful for you to scourge a man that is a Roman, and uncondemned?" to secure the protection of his person. Claudius Lysias, sending him for trial to Rome, is obliged to state the circumstance that great insult had almost been done to his citizenship. The whole story is given in the following words:

"And when they had tied him up with the thongs, Paul said unto the centurion that stood by, Is it lawful for you to scourge a man that

is a Roman, and uncondemned? And when the centurion heard it, he went to the chief captain, and told him saying, What art thou about to do? for this man is a Roman. And the chief captain came, and said unto him, Tell me, art thou a Roman? And he said, Yea. And the chief captain answered, With a great sum obtained I this citizenship. And Paul said, But I am a Roman born. They then which were about to examine him straightway departed from him: and the chief captain also was afraid, when he knew that he was a Roman, and because he had bound him."

If we could say the same all over the world, *Civis Americanus sum*, and command a like honor and respect for our citizenship, we should already have attained that high political quality so much needed here at home. But, alas, the venality and corruption of our political life are only too well known abroad.

The newer citizenship demands of us an enlarged conception of our own duties in commerce, in the service of our country, and in practical politics. For example, the kind of citizen demanded in our day is one who will rigidly insist upon our commerce squaring itself with the good of the greatest number. No good citizen, no man, indeed, who has made the judgment of hope, will take up any enterprise simply for the sake of self; he will seek in all he does the common good. But it cannot be said that this is even the ideal of the business world at present; the money power of this country is practically uninfluenced by any unselfish considerations. Even among those who live somewhat apart from the pulsing life of the great cities, the feverish anxiety "to get on" is a philosophy of life in itself; and few who are rich, in these days, can look back and say that in the accumulations of their hundreds or millions no human life has been injured or soul of man discouraged. Our great corporations are a hungry stomach; they have only rudimentary souls. But their day, and the day of all selfish commerce, is fast passing away, and the newer citizenship is basing itself on the belief that the one who seeks the good of all in the good of each is the safest depository of political influence.

There is something grotesque about our braggadocio citizen, who flaunts his country in the face of the whole earth, who points with pride to its size and its material resources, who cries, My country, right or wrong!—as though the soul of patriotism did not consist of a generous heart

and a ready will to acknowledge and imitate greatness other than our own. Carlyle has been teaching us that the basis of all nationality is the soul; by which he means the common soul, the soul possessed by each through the creative act of his Maker. Certainly, in the present situation, the political quality of our citizenship needs nothing so much as a renewed conviction that loyalty to our own country is not, and never can be, synonymous with disloyalty to other countries, either consciously or only as an ill-defined feeling. The element of prejudice is no essential part of patriotism, and needs to be eliminated from it if our citizenship is to prove of the best quality.

Every citizen is expected to take his part in practical politics; but the newer spirit demands that we enter politics, not as a game of ambition, but as a sphere of service. The newer citizenship will seek a twofold aim: (1) The good of the greatest number, and (2) the infusion of moral earnestness into the duties of the citizen. In the sense of men who are controlled by these ideals, we have no great practical politicians in our day. One by one, all are entangled in the wheels of the "machine." Automatism is the rule, and free service the exception. Thomas à Kempis's challenge,—Show me a man who is serving God for nothing!—must be met in the light of facts. But it is one of the privileges of the situation, to those who have not made the judgment of regret, that political life offers one of the noblest spheres of influence and achievement, if entered upon in the right spirit. Notwithstanding the obstacles, I maintain that a man may and ought to become a practical politician in a country like this. I know the opprobrium which attaches to the term "practical politician"; but there is a greater reproach still than this; namely, the avoidance of the difficult tasks involved in the regeneration of our political life. Citizenship that lacks this practical and positive quality is unworthy the name, and deserves as great opprobrium as the thing avoided. Moreover, the judgment of hope warrants the belief that if each man does his whole duty, and endeavors by all means to swing the great social movements of our day into line with our true historical and prophetic development, his labor will not be unrewarded, both immediately and in effect.

There are two other characteristics of

the newer citizenship which may be briefly mentioned before closing. The citizen of the future must be an *idealist*; that is, he must believe that the pattern of the better time, for which he labors, is already revealed in his own mind, in his hopes and desires for his country and his kind. Ideals, of course, have to do with what *ought to be* rather than with what *is*, and it is in this sense that I mean a citizen should be an idealist; he labors for what ought to be by entering into what is; he enters what is in order to assist the coming of what ought to be. We believe, as idealists, that a better moral and social state is possible among the myriad chances of the present; and the man who has made the judgment of hope, and does not despair of the times, has already entered it.

Finally, as we live in two worlds, a visible and an invisible, the newer citizenship will suffer the restraining influence of that worship and sacrifice which are associated with *religious devotion*, to enter all his work. As we have passed the judgment of hope, so we believe that somewhere in this universe there exists One in whom our ideals and hopes are fulfilled, and who will favor the enduring effort of those who devote themselves, with a single eye, to the service of man. The newer day in which we are living demands of us as citizens a more ethical devotion; not less of the supernatural, but a more intelligent faith in it as a personal restraining and sustaining power; which is only saying that our citizenship shall be Christian citizenship.

Now for our argument and a parting word. We have said that our day is demanding from us a richer manhood, a greater wealth of personal influence. We have argued that the question, Is life worth living in our day? can be settled only by each one making a worthier person of himself, so that his contribution to the solution of the question shall for him depend on his own will. If we make the judgment of hope, as I trust we shall, the best contribution we can make to our times is to make ourselves worthy citizens. This is the old Greek ideal; it is the ideal for America. The new element in it is the awareness that this end cannot be attained without exertion and pain. But the birth throes of the present time will be more than justified if, as we believe, they bring forth a worthier manhood

among our citizens. The last word is, therefore, like the first. Play your part; be not afraid of life; quit you like men. Life is worth living if our standards are faithfully followed. And to those who have passed the judgment of regret, and

who believe that effort is futile, we would say, in the words of Henry IV of France to Crillon, who came late to the battle: "Hang yourself, brave Crillon! We fought at Arques, and you were not there."

HENRY DAVIES, PH. D.

STORRS COLLEGE, MANSFIELD, CONN.

AMONG THE CANADIAN ROCKIES

AT WINNIPEG I heard of the scenic grandeur of the Canadian Rockies. Reports of around-the-world travellers gave glowing accounts of the British Columbian mountains, and tourists from the ice-land of Alaska had been captivated by Canada's snow-crowned ranges. Wishing to compare the Dominion mountains with the lofty peaks of our Colorado Switzerland, I prepared for a western tour to explore the famous passes on the head waters of the Columbia River, proposing to spend a month in the rugged wilds of the Rocky Mountains, shoot game, catch fish, inhale the invigorating air of the highlands, and admire the beautiful pictures of the cañons. With fur robes, camping accoutrements, some tackle, and weapons, I took passage on the Canadian Pacific Railroad for the long journey to the coast ranges.

From Red River valley the train crosses the level prairies of Manitoba, and enters the wide plains of Assiniboia, over whose wind-swept bosoms, stretching in green areas to the west until lost in the azure of the distance, we looked out for two days. On the banks of the Saskatchewan, the village of Medicine Hat—a former rendezvous of Canadian red men—lies on the border of the great plains. Crossing a clear cold river, the route entered the rising plateaus of Alberta, and soon began to wind among the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. The atmosphere became rarer and colder on leaving the prairies and nearing the snow line. In a few hours the white peaks of the mountains, piled in masses of cliffs along the west, came in sight. From the top of a knoll a full picture of the Rockies broke into view, with their long chains, domes, and snow-covered crags extending toward the Polar Seas as far as the eye could see. The scene was imposing; the great monarchs of the ranges reared their lofty heads into the air, while their flanks were wrapped in sheets of

everlasting white. The sky was perfectly clear; no haze obscured its transparent depths; the outlines and forms of the mountains were boldly and ruggedly traced on the horizon, while a glorious sun poured down the effulgence of its rays on the glittering chain. The winds blowing from the ice-clad summits were fresh and exhilarating as draughts of ethereal champagne, and acted like a mystic tonic on the nerves. In the clear atmosphere forms were visible at a long distance, and objects far remote seemed near at hand.

Reaching the valley of the Bow River, we followed up the clear, dashing waters of that snow-fed stream into the shadows of the Rockies, the cañon opening a pass through the great chain. High cliffs on either side guard the entrance, and their precipitous walls extend up the pass. Here and there the cañon opens into valleys or rounded basins, whose sides, up to the snow line, are clothed with enormous and stately trees—the product of a rich soil, watered with frequent showers—whose waving tops appear like tossing seas. The prevailing growth is spruce, and the shapely forms and even outlines of these handsome trees add unique beauty to the wild grandeur of the gorges. Log cabins of mountaineers and wigwams of Indians occasionally appear in the winding pass, perched on rocky knolls along brawling streams. Timber fires have left on the mountain slopes scars of charred trunks, whose skeleton forms stand out among the surrounding forests.

An observation car—open at the sides—gave unobstructed views of the surpassing scenery as the snorting engine plunged into the gaping cañons. Former tours among its southern peaks and parks had given me an attachment to the great continental range, and with pride I observed that the majestic Rockies sustained their scenic fame in the northern regions. Their impressive fronts and gigantic



MOUNT STEPHEN, AND CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILROAD STATION

domes held the gaze of all observers, while the huge masses of snow piled on their lofty crests varied the gray towers with robes of eternal white.

The sky was an arch of blue, every glen poured forth a stream of crystal water, and from the crags of many peaks fell roaring cataracts, whose voices filled the cañons with strange echoes, while the dirge of the winds was heard among the trees.

The peaks increased in height and ruggedness as we penetrated farther into their rocky fastnesses, and stood like stony giants with their heads buried under the snows of many ages.

At Summit we entered Kicking Horse Pass, and a view of unrivalled sublimity broke on our vision. Cliffs thousands of feet in height stood before us; granite palisades rose aloft in perpendicular towers; columns of rock jutted out from the precipitous walls like pillars of masonry; between the towering masses the river poured its current with a thousand voices, as its mad waters plunged and tossed and dashed in a wild race for the sea. New scenes appeared—as the cañon changed its forms and outlines—in a constant succession of panoramic pictures, and every turn in the great gorge disclosed views of grander mould.

Mount Stephen rose 11,000 feet into the air, like a king among the lesser peaks, with a mantle of white on his craggy

brow. Midway up the lofty peak its sides are pierced with tunnels, whose round black mouths resemble portholes in a ship. The rugged old cone holds within its rocky breast large deposits of precious metals; miners have cut zigzag trails along the face of the cliffs up to the veins penetrating the rocky pyramid, and have chiselled their way into the face of

the mountain in quest of the treasures stored within its stony ribs. The tunnels appear in rows along the peak, 3,000 feet above the base. The shafts have been bored to a considerable depth, and great wealth has been extracted from them.

At this point several of the party remained for several days, our number including tourists from Japan, China, and India. An eating-station and summer hotel at the base of the peak furnish travellers with ample accommodation while they inspect the mines and explore the magnificent scenery of the cañon. A wilder and more varied exhibition of nature cannot be found in the world; a month's stay would not exhaust the wonders of this remarkable region. The climate is so healthy and the water so pure that the Indians here are said to dry up and blow away; certainly no graves are visible.

From this point we sped westward through Howe Pass. The grade here takes a downward slant, and the growth of spruce still covers the slopes with a surging wilderness of foliage, rising like plumed steeples on the hilltops. Mountains rear their heads high into the air, and along the broken summits glisten shrouds of snow. The accelerated speed and the bracing air quicken the circulation until everyone glows with expectation and vigor.

Descending the western slopes of the Rockies we passed out of Kicking Horse Gulch into open country, a valley with rolling lands, extending miles toward the sunset. Stock ranches and country houses dot its surface. The elevation being too high for grain to mature, only fodder crops are grown.

The town of Golden—an outfitting village for the adjacent mines—is passed, and we follow the Columbia River northward along the bends of its winding channel. The river at this distance from the sea has considerable depth and breadth, and is navigable for small craft when not frozen over. From the car windows we looked down on the clear waters meandering like a glassy avenue through the forests and over the valley, and recalled their wide sweep and strong current below the Dalles in Oregon.

Westward we saw the dark masses and white summits of the Selkirk Mountains rising in the distance like a formidable

whose snow-clad mountains stood like marble towers in the east.

The up-grades being heavy, an extra engine is here attached, but the progress of the train is still necessarily slow. Two tracks encircle the mountain—a winter and a summer track. Snow-sheds, constructed of heavy timbers, and having strength to sustain a great weight, are here rendered necessary by reason of the heavy falls of snow, avalanches of which frequently slip down the steep slopes, and, falling on the sheds, are guided over the slanting roofs harmlessly down the mountain side.

The Selkirk range has an unusual formation, and one peculiar to itself, extending in continuous chains, and lacking the granite pinnacles and massive peaks of the Rockies. The summits are covered with a great depth of snow, but the lower slopes are overgrown with spruce. The avalanches—hundreds of tons in weight—which slide down these slopes tear up



THE SELKIRKS

barrier, but one whose jagged heights we must surmount.

Leaving the Columbia we began the ascent of this famous range, waving an adieu to our old friends the Rockies,

the big trees in their path as if they were reeds, the crash of their fall in the cañons sounding like distant thunder. From the top of the Selkirks there is a sublime view of the surrounding mountains, their

snow-covered heads rolling in every direction, with the forested cañon winding its dark depths among the ranges below, until shut in with a wall of peaks. Far to the west the series of crags, domes, and pinnacles rise in wild disorder, cone rising above cone, and range standing behind range, the whole expanse draped with a veil of spotless white, against which the dark green of the spruce trees below stood out in beautiful and varied contrast of colors.

Descending the western slope new and charming vistas appear, the cañon making many bends, and the spruce forest becoming denser and taller. At nightfall the view from the top of the observation car is sublime, the stars sparkling in their blue vaults like points of sapphire; the clearness of the sky and the purity of the air accentuating their brilliance. The mountains lie silent and grim in the dark robes of night, and look even more impressive in their sable garb than in the light of day. The moon, rising over the

throws deep shadows like black mantles into the valleys. As the lunar queen ascends the starry vault, she throws her rays into the glens and gorges, illuminating the recesses of rocky chasms, while the shades on the slopes retire into the depths of the cañons, disclosing the flashing channels of streams, the shining bosoms of lakes, and the plunging waters of falls, until all the world appears bathed in gauzy day. The crags, clear cut against the sky, and the peaks standing ruggedly out in this ethereal splendor, make a scene inspiring to every worshipper of nature who loves to hold communion with the everlasting mountains. Such a view amply repays the long journey over plains and mountains.

The Hermit Range is a unique cluster of snow-powdered spurs, looking down from their airy heights on the snow-sheds and winding tracks of the railroad. It is a picturesque chain, and its crags are worthy sisters of the lofty Selkirks and noble Rockies. Their great altitude and inaccessibility make them hermits in character as well as in name, bears and squirrels being their only inhabitants.

Descending the pass the cañon becomes deeper and wider, its flanks still covered with trees. The roadbed, with its many curves and grades, shows the engineering skill of those who planned the highway over these jagged mountains. The track in some places rises in three tiers along the mountain side, and appears like an iron-railed stairway on the cañon walls. At the



AVALANCHE MOUNTAIN

eastern crags, floods the peaks with her soft rays, and gilds their snows with a filmy light. The white outlines of the snow-covered ranges extend along the eastern and western skies like crested rollers on a stormy sea, while the higher peaks, catching the full rays of the moonlight, shine like crystal cones. Here and there a dome towering above the others stands out in solitary and regal supremacy, spire-like pinnacles point their slender shafts heavenward, and all around a chaos of ranges

"Loop," in the widest depths of the gorge, four tracks are seen one above the other, while frowning mountains stand in great masses overhead, with snow-fields gathered on their brows. In six miles of track, but two miles of distance is gained.

At a station near Black Cañon I got off to see the country and enjoy some sport. The fishing was said to be good, and the hunting interesting. On the adjacent hills I found a camp of red men, and, on inquiring for their chief, a "buck" escorted

me to the official hut. The chief—Big Tree—kept his office in his residence, which, built of logs and daubed with mud, had plank floors, doors on hinges, glass windows, chairs and tables, and other desirable furniture. The bedsteads were

They have to feed themselves, the Indians not keeping corn-cribs or fodder-stacks, nor carrying oats on their journeys. The turf in summer and the dead grass in winter furnish the ponies with sustenance, and they become adept in



HERMIT RANGE

supplied with ticks filled with straw, pillows of leaves, sheets, and blankets. Cradles, on rockers, held the papooses; looking-glasses gave the squaws the means of admiring their beauty and adjusting their bangs.

The chief, finding one wife insufficient, supported two; they dwelt together in the same house, but apparently not on very happy terms.

Big Tree was not at home, being out on the ranges looking after cattle. He kept a stock ranch, on which he raised cattle and ponies, which ranged freely over a wide expanse of territory. A "round-up," therefore, involved long and hard riding; but his braves were equal to the task, as, when the question of fresh meat is raised, the Indian is generally on hand. The ponies of this region are trained to follow cattle and are as expert in herding as the bucks themselves. They are hardy animals and can stand considerable travel.

burrowing into the snow for their provender. The chief not being expected before nightfall, "Mrs. Chief, Senior," invited me to enter the dwelling.

My stock of Indian language was limited, but Mrs. Big Tree knew some English, and with our combined resources we managed to start conversation. Madame was not very talkative, and I gave some attention to two plump and black-eyed squaws plying their needles on deer-skin gloves, undertaking, with some colored pencils and a tablet, to teach one of them to draw pictures of Indians.

My pupil showed aptitude and made progress, but the drawing-lessons were interrupted by evident displeasure on the part of "Mrs. Chief, Junior," who considered that her girl was neglected.

I accordingly withdrew to inspect the Indian village, and found that the town was built along streets without sidewalks, the dwellings being principally built of

logs plastered with mud, and many of the cabins having earthen floors. The poorer Indians lived in wigwams constructed of skins stretched around stacks of poles. Their bedding was made of straw, hides, and furs. Fires burned in the centre of the tents, the smoke escaping from outlets at the apex. Cooking was done outside on red-hot rocks. A mission church stood on the outskirts, in which a visiting French priest periodically read service in a foreign tongue. His further ministrations consisted in the distribution of chromos and almanacs.

The chief returned at dark and bade me welcome. He was pleased to see company from a distance and to learn something about affairs abroad, having discovered that he could not accumulate too much information. He invited me to take supper with him and spend the evening in relating accounts of the countries in the East. He urged his wives and squaws to bestir themselves in the preparation of a meal creditable to his house. While the meal was being prepared I led the chief into a discussion on the origin of his ponies and the breeds of his cattle. He could not say where the ancestors of his horses were found; the cattle came to the

region by accident, and lived without names, marks being more definite. He wished to know how the children of the wilderness flourished in my neighborhood, and how they were prospering in the accumulation of herds and droves. I reported that our red people were rolling in wealth—of expectation—and were bountifully supplied with beef and blankets at government expense; that they did not have to submit to the humiliating drudgery of work, but were men of leisure; and that they were the special wards and pets of a beneficent administration. These fairy tales pleased the chief and he expressed some inclination to emigrate.

Meanwhile the cloth was spread, the pots and ovens gave up their contents, and bowls, dishes, knives, forks, and spoons were arranged for use. Mrs. Big Tree, Senior, announced supper; the other squaws took their seats (the papooses being left in their cribs), and the chief took the head of the table, placing me at his right hand. Venison, fried fish, boiled potatoes, baked beans, and wild grapes made up the feast.

The table was so well supplied that I engaged board for some days, the station agent accommodating me with lodging.



THE LOOP—SELKIRK MOUNTAINS

Mentioning my desire to catch some fish, shoot game in the forests, and gain a knowledge of Indian life, Big Tree, regretting that his "round-up" engagement prevented him from accompanying me on my excursions, advised me as to locations for game and pools for fish, and gave me some hints as to the habits of the animals. He also placed at my disposal a guide in the person of a stalwart buck named Full Moon.

Our first day's efforts were made at a pool in a bend of Thompson River; the water was deep and still, and fish were plentiful. Within an hour I had a long string of fish of many colors and sizes hanging in the shade of a bush. While engrossed with my rods a famished cur, that had followed us from the station, seized my fish and disappeared in the woods.

By nightfall we had as many as we cared to carry, and we returned full-handed to receive the congratulations of Big Tree and his squaws, the latter of whom prepared our prizes for the table, and served them with fine dishes of berries and boiled cabbage.

After the board was cleared I resumed my drawing instructions, my pupil making commendable progress. But a reception having been arranged, and influential Indians having been invited to meet the white man from the States, I was introduced to the leaders of the tribe and increased my stock of information about their history. One brave — Standing Bear — was almost as persistent in his inquiries as was Li Hung Chang in his recent visit to America. He wished to know all about my family concerns, business transactions, and my intentions in spying out the land. It took time to convince him that I was an emissary of peace, seeking in the service of letters to promote the diffusion of knowledge. He examined my weapons and indicated suspicion at my armed advent into the country. A design on the office of chief seemed to lurk in his mind. I finally persuaded him that there was no position within the gift of the people that I desired; that I considered honors to be expensive luxuries, and wished only the pleasure of travel and exploration. The guests having returned to their shacks, the chief entertained me with accounts of his excursions to the far North, and of his feats in the chase on the snow lands up around the frozen lakes. His narratives of en-

counters with bears and other denizens of the mountains were exciting, and his prowess with his gun seemed as great as his skill in horsemanship. His tribe had the fullest confidence in his sagacity and valor.

In the company of Full Moon I spent the day in the woods shooting squirrels and birds. The "buck's" powers of mimicry were wonderful; his imitations of the calls of birds and animals was fatally perfect; and in addition he was an accurate shot with the rifle.

The evening was passed in discussing Indian customs and conditions before the arrival of the railroad. Big Tree said the tribes lived then by hunting and fishing. They had neither herds nor cabins; they dwelt in wigwams made from the hides of their prey. Fish was smoked and game was dried, during the autumn, for winter use.

Their cattle now supply the Indians with fresh meat through the winter, and their diet has been improved by the addition of turnips and potatoes. In their primitive state they wore garments of skins, caps of fur, and moccasins of raw hide. They now have "store clothes," wool hats, and leather shoes, received in barter for beef, hides, hay, and game. The squaws are fond of bright colors, striped hose and shawls, beads, feathers, and gay ribbons. The buck loves long boots, and a red blanket makes him feel like a Napoleon. The squaws are skilled in the use of the scissors and needle; they make leggings, gloves, and moccasins from dressed deer hides, and ornament their wares with fancy beadwork of many colors. They dress the game, cook the meals, wash and often make the clothing, and keep the cabins in order.

The following morning, with Full Moon, I started for the lakes to get some shots at water-fowl. The air was damp, and the ducks' sense of smell was acute. Flock after flock rose at warning signals from their sentinels, and I did not get a shot until we reached a "blind" which had been constructed by Full Moon, where we bagged as many "greenheads" as we cared to carry and started home:

The chief returned late with his herders, and partook of the ducks. I related to him some stories of his kinsmen — the Australian aborigines — with whose black tribes I had spent a winter. He resented with warmth any suggestion of

relationship to the black races; his people were America's first citizens, and he ranked with the aristocracy of the Rockies.

By sunrise the ponies were saddled for an excursion to Big Tree's mountain cattle ranges. The chief and the braves mounted. I had assigned to me a broncho that looked like a cross between a bear and an ox, with the neck of a giraffe and the mane of a lion. He eyed me suspiciously, and seemed not to understand or like my color. A brave held the reins and I vaulted into the saddle. The pony got the bit in his teeth and began to prance. I touched his flanks with the spurs; he rose on his hind legs and began to paw at a pigeon-house on an adjacent post; I got my spur wheels to work on his ribs, and he changed position; he stood on his fore legs and bombarded the atmosphere with his heels. A buck began to apply a whip, when the wicked beast gathered his four feet into a bunch, placed his nose on the ground, and arched his spine; his back rose like a camel's hump, and I was thrown forward into a haystack. None of my bones were broken, but the chief suggested a change of steeds, which motion I seconded. He offered me his own animal, which proved docile. My pugnacious beast submitted to the chief's mastership with remarkable humility. He was used to red men, but, like Indian dogs, detested "white folks."

We were soon passing over the hills at a rapid pace, with the long hair of the braves streaming like floating banners in the breeze.

A herd of the chief's cattle was found near a stream, and a buck was left to guard them until other herds were found. The cattle were long-haired and shaggy (a protection against winter's cold), and had long horns and large frames. The nutritious grass in the foothills and along the watercourses kept the animals in good condition; they were in prime order for beef.

The chief wished to kill and salt down some of the cows, and to ship others by rail to Western markets. The remaining cattle he intended to place on his winter range in the valley near his village, where they could be cared for during the cold season and be secure from raids of adjacent tribes. The valleys grow heavy bunch-grass during the summer, which in autumn is cured by the sun into hay;

this dried provender furnishes excellent winter food for the herds.

When a number of small herds had been driven to a central point they were formed into a procession and started homewards, where we arrived about dusk.

After some days more of adventure at the Indian settlement I paid my score and departed, receiving several invitations to come again the next season.

Wishing to see the great Donkin and Geikie glaciers, I started on a tour to Mount Fox, in which three Eastern Alpine climbers joined me.

Late in the afternoon the white cone of Mount Dawson appeared above the group of peaks, which formed an ice-fettered range before us. The summits of the mountains and the chasms between the peaks were covered deeply with a spotless field of snow, the accumulations of centuries. Down the slopes of these mountains great channels of ice flowed from the snow beds on the summits to the cañon below, whose deep gorge has been scoured out of the solid rock by the grinding ice mass during unnumbered ages. At the base of the range the Geikie Glacier circles the mountain like a vast girdle of ice. Deciding to spend some time at the glaciers to enjoy their bracing climate and Arctic beauty, we found a mountaineer's hut for shelter and plenty of firewood. Here we awaited an evening view of the glaciers, which proved glorious in sublimity. The sun sank down behind the white range and bathed the peaks in light; the ice crags reflected the slanting rays like electric lights, and the frozen pile sparkled like crystal prisms. The summit line blazed in a streak of transparent flame; the projecting blocks shone like mirrors. The lower beds of the glaciers received the reflected colors of the domes and glowed with roseate hues. Night closed down cold amid howling winds, so, building a roaring fire within the log hut, we gathered around the blaze and exchanged reminiscences of travel round the globe, till, looking out upon the white glaciers with their glittering terraces rising in the west,—cold and silent witnesses to the power, beauty, and terror of the ice-god, arched with a crown of stars,—all felt that never before had we witnessed a spectacle so beautiful and grand.

JOHN N. INGRAM.

CITY OF MEXICO.

RITUALISM IN ENGLAND

AMIDST the wonders of our time, not the least is the return of a large body of highly educated members of a Protestant Church to the religious beliefs and practices of the Middle Ages. That Catholicism should remain as an hereditary tradition in Catholic countries, such as Spain, Southern Italy, and the Tyrol, is natural enough. But surely, in this age of science and criticism, Ritualism is a startling reaction. Five centuries have elapsed since Wycliffe and his disciples totally rejected Transubstantiation and the whole circle of doctrine and practice of which Transubstantiation is the centre. Ten centuries have elapsed since Scotus Erigena, the great thinker of the Middle Ages, advanced the doctrine that the Eucharist was merely a symbol or a commemoration.

Ritualism has come in two movements, distinguishable from each other, though the second sprang out of the first. The first was the Oxford Movement, otherwise called Tractarianism, from its series of manifestos, the "Tracts for the Times," Puseyism, from its official, and Newmanism, from its real, chief. The origin of this movement was clearly described at the outset by Newman himself, in one of the "Tracts for the Times." The tidal wave of liberalism which carried the Parliamentary Reform Act of 1832 threatened, in its ecclesiastical consequences, to withdraw from the Church of England the exclusive support of the State. The Anglican clergy then, as Newman in the Tract says, had to look about for some other support; otherwise they would be reduced to the intolerable condition of depending, like Dissenting ministers, on their congregations, and having to adapt their teaching to the sentiment of their flocks. What they needed they would find in Apostolical Succession combined with the sacerdotal view of the clerical office and the sacraments.

Oxford, with her half-monastic colleges, the fellowships of which were celibate, clerical, and charged for the most part with no educational duties, was the natural seat of the Tractarian movement. Enough has been written upon this subject. The writer was a student at Oxford at the time, and remembers how the mediæval Church, idealized by Newman,

took hold of the fancies of young men who had before known nothing but the chilly decorum of the Anglican service and the preaching of the "high and dry" pulpits. The Tractarians were gradually drawn on, by the thorough-going members of the party, to "embrace the whole cycle of Roman doctrine," and the natural result followed. Newman had certainly not originally contemplated secession to Rome. He meant to remain head of a party in the Church of England, to win that Church over to his views, and perhaps ultimately to treat with Rome for reunion. But his hand was forced by the impetuous Ward. Though Newman was, of course, perfectly sincere, he was always in quest of system rather than of truth. Pusey, for his part, was pretty well proof against logic or logical deductions; so was Keble, who, moreover, was married. Pusey certainly relished his position as head of a party in the Church of England and spiritual director of a wide circle of devotees. In his "Eirenicon" he, in effect, avowed himself ready to join Rome if she would put limits to the authority of the Pope and the cultus of the Virgin. But Rome could never compromise even in what is merely matter of degree, since to compromise would be to renounce Infallibility.

The second movement, which commenced after an interval of partial collapse following upon Newman's secession, is Ritualism properly so called. It has its source, not in the desire of a basis for the Church independent of the State, or in any special theory or creed, ecclesiastical or theological, so much as in an emotional craving for sensuous worship, Church ordinances, and priestly ministrations. It is traceable in some measure to the decay of intellectual belief, which leaves a void in the religious nature to be filled by æsthetic emotion. Social fashion also plays its part, so far as the wealthy classes are concerned; Ritualism is the thing farthest removed from the vulgarity of Dissent. The present ascendancy of the party is largely to be ascribed to the progress of Rationalism, which has deprived the more masculine minds of interest in the affairs of the Church, thereby leaving her to the more emotional and æsthetic.

To one who has seen the movement in

both its phases it appears less serious in the second phase than it was in the first. Newman himself was not much of a Ritualist; that is to say, he did not care very much for church ceremonial or even for church art, compared with doctrine and the spiritual system, though the revival of Gothic architecture by the Oxford Architectural Society was of course due to his mediævalist inspirations. The same, it is believed, may be said of his principal associates, including Pusey and Ward. That first group impressed one more with its earnestness of thought and purpose than does the second. In fact, if the second group had the same earnestness of thought and purpose it could hardly fail to follow the first.

Ritualism is distinctly ecclesiastical and sacerdotal, not Biblical. It even appears to welcome, to a surprising extent, what is rather absurdly called the Higher Criticism. The principles implicitly accepted in "*Lux Mundi*" would, if pushed to their consequences, cast doubt on the whole theory of Inspiration and leave the Church very little of a Scriptural basis.

The Ritualist clergy have introduced the Mass with all its paraphernalia, with the elevation and adoration of the Host, and the reservation of the Elements. They have introduced the whole system of which the Mass is the corner-stone, including the obligatory Confessional. They have sued to Rome for recognition, but received in reply the usual intimation, courteously and lovingly conveyed, that if they will admit themselves to be heretics and their Orders to be a fiction, they can be received into the true Church through the gate of penance.

The legal and historical case is as clear as possible against the Ritualists and in favor of Sir William Harcourt and the Protestants. The State Church of England is unquestionably Protestant. The sovereign is its Head, and the Crown is expressly limited to Protestants by the Act of Succession and the Coronation Oath. It is forfeited by marriage with a Catholic. No one can read the Anglican Liturgy and Ordinal without seeing plainly that the intention was to exclude Transubstantiation and the Mass. When the question as to the validity of Anglican Orders was submitted to the Pope, he at once pointed out that the Ordinal did not even pretend to confer the miraculous powers. History points the same way. The

Church of England was represented in the Calvinistic Synod of Dort. Charles I. always called himself a Protestant. Laud, whom the Ritualists are now canonizing, declared on the scaffold that "he had always lived in the Protestant Church of England." Disabilities were imposed by law on Catholics for the purpose of guarding against them the Protestant State Church, and were strenuously upheld to the last by the Anglican bishops and clergy. Nor is it possible to deny that the Protestant members of the Church, including the bulk of the laity, have a very palpable grievance in the perversion of its endowments and authority to the destruction of Protestantism, the repeal of the Reformation, and the reannexation of England to the dominion of the Pope. At the same time the Ritualist may with reason protest against the submission of the religious conscience to laws made by a secular assembly like Parliament, including men of all religions and of none. The obvious remedy is Disestablishment. Of this the difficulties are very great, so closely is the National Church bound up with the general institutions and life of the nation. But the difficulties will have to be faced if peace and decency are to be restored.

The Ritualists, now that they are threatened with the enforcement of the law, plead for breadth and toleration as the happy characteristics of the Anglican Church. Have they forgotten that they prosecuted Colenso and Voysey, tried to prosecute Jowett, and for some years kept him out of his salary as a professor at Oxford on account of his Latitudinarian opinions?

Of the bishops, almost all are unwilling to assert the law against Ritualism. Most of them probably are Ritualists themselves. It is only natural that they should favor a movement which exalts their own authority; while the pastoral activity of the Ritualists, which is undeniably great, affords a ground for protecting them independently of the theological question. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Dr. Temple, was formerly, as one of the Essayists and Reviewers, in alliance with the rationalistic section, and his elevation to the episcopate was opposed upon that ground. His position appears now to be changed. He tenders, as a compromise, Consubstantiation, which, it is suggested, was held by the Protestant Luther. But there is

not the slightest warrant for Consubstantiation in the Anglican Prayer Book, nor has the doctrine ever been embraced by the Anglican divines; and while Luther's Consubstantiation was a way out of Transubstantiation, Archbishop Temple's is a way into it.

In the cities the Ritualist clergy have deservedly made way by ministerial energy and self-devotion. For the urban population also their æsthetic ritual has its charm. Among the rural population they do not appear to gain ground. "Hodge" is not æsthetic or historical; he prefers the meeting-house to the church; and he dislikes, on social grounds, the interference of the parson with his affairs.

The rock on which Ritualism was pretty

sure to split was the Confessional. In the exercise of this most perilous function the Roman Catholic priest is safe-guarded by his celibacy. He is, moreover, limited and guided by the strictest and most authoritative regulations. To the Ritualist Confessional these securities are wanting, and nothing can be more alien and repulsive to British sentiment than the interference of the spiritual director in the home.

The upshot is an explosion of the old Protestant, or, at least, anti-sacerdotal, feeling, for which, in this age of religious indifference, we were hardly prepared. A crisis in the history of the Anglican Establishment is apparently at hand.

GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, CANADA.

MUNICIPAL MISRULE: ITS CAUSES AND REMEDIES

THE growth of the cities is one of the most striking features of the social history of the last half-century. Everywhere the large town is drawing into its vortex a fast-swelling tide of rural immigrants. In 1850 twelve and a-half per cent of the population of the United States lived in cities of 8,000 inhabitants or over. In 1890 the percentage of the population living in cities of this size had risen to over twenty-nine per cent. This increase of the urban population at the expense of the rural has been brought about mainly by recent changes in the economic life of the people. Agriculture has declined, while industry and trade have expanded. At the same time the character of the industrial organization has undergone a complete revolution. The old system of small manufactures has given way to the factory system. The factory system has everywhere led to the concentration of the workmen in large towns.

While the rise of the modern machine industry has thus drawn the workmen together in towns, the introduction of machinery into agriculture has rendered a smaller population necessary in the country. Fewer laborers are now needed to produce the food supply, and the surplus laborers have drifted cityward. To these economic causes of the rural exodus is added another influence of a social character, namely, the attrac-

tiveness of city life. The social advantages of the city, its amusements, theatres, and clubs; the greater license in the mode of living; the very excitement of gregarious existence,—all these influences tend to draw the population into the great centres. The migratory movement thus caused is rendered easier by improvement of the means of transportation. Better transport facilities have overcome the inertia of the population. Change of residence is no longer difficult. Thus a complexity of causes, social as well as economic, have contributed to bring about the depopulation of the country and the concentration of the people in the cities.

The rapid growth of cities has complicated greatly the problem of city government. It has imposed on the municipalities new tasks; it has given them more work to do, and work of a more varied character. The management of a concentrated urban population involves a multitude of difficult problems in municipal government. Such are the paving and cleaning of the streets, the sanitary inspection, the maintenance of parks and open spaces, the management of the gas and the water supplies, the transit problem, the granting of franchises, the control of the liquor traffic, the organization of charities, and the housing of the poor.

Now these new conditions created by

city expansion have in general been satisfactorily met by European municipalities. The administration has kept pace with the growing needs of municipal life. The government is efficiently administered by fit men. In America the reverse is generally true. The new conditions have not been met. The government is inefficiently administered by unfit men. This fact has become notorious in recent years. Every person who has investigated the government of cities in Europe and in America has testified to the excellence of the European system and the slackness and corruption of the American. The Hon. Andrew D. White has said: "Without the slightest exaggeration we may assert that, with very few exceptions, the city governments of the United States are the worst in Christendom, the most expensive, the most inefficient, the most corrupt. No one who has any considerable knowledge of our own country and of other countries can deny this."*

What are the causes of misgovernment in American cities? Obviously the cause is not to be found in the size of the American cities and their over-rapid growth. This has often been brought forward as an explanation of the unsatisfactory character of American municipal administration as compared with the English and Continental methods. We have been told that American cities have grown so fast that the government could not keep abreast of the multiplying and diversifying needs of municipal life. But manifestly, if this were the root cause of the ills complained of, one might expect to find as bad a state of affairs in the European cities; for they have certainly grown as rapidly as the American cities,—in some cases they have grown even faster. Plainly, then, the root of the trouble must be sought elsewhere.

The chief cause of misgovernment in American cities is a wrong theory of municipal government, based on the mistaken idea that the city is a political body. The city has been treated merely as an organ of the State government. As such its affairs have been administered by politicians on party lines for party ends. This importation of State and national politics into the field of city government makes reform very difficult, for

it prevents the good citizens from uniting. They are divided by party lines. The good people who desire pure elections and the honest administration of the laws may be in the majority, but they seldom vote together. "They regularly split in city affairs, and the dangerous classes, the enemies of social order, as regularly do not split. These latter are the only persons who, as a rule, at municipal elections, vote on municipal issues. The respectable classes vote about the tariff, about Hawaii, about the currency, about everything except the city."* Thus national politics divides the good citizens into groups and delivers them over to the enemy. This is absurd on the face of it. It would be just as sensible for the members of each religious body to vote together in city elections as for the members of the national parties to do this. It is as unreasonable to insist that city officials shall be Republicans or Democrats as to demand that they shall be Methodists or Universalists. Neither religious nor political creed has anything to do with a person's fitness for municipal office.

This theory of the city as a political body has led to three harmful consequences, which may be mentioned as secondary causes of municipal misrule.

1. The spoils system has been introduced into city government. City offices are bestowed by the boss as rewards of party service, not for proved fitness for the discharge of duties imposed. Each party works to get and to keep the offices, not to give the city the best possible administration. The aim is not to serve the city, but to exploit it.

2. The State legislatures have interfered constantly with the management of municipal affairs, legislating for the cities, and leaving them small measure of local home rule. The New York legislature, for example, "has often claimed the right to appoint municipal officers and to fix and change the details of municipal organization, has legislated municipal officers out of office, and established new offices. In certain cases it has even provided that certain specific city streets shall be paved, has imposed burdens on cities for the purpose of constructing sewers or bringing in water, has regulated the methods of trans-

* See an article on "The Government of American Cities," in "The Forum" for December, 1890, Vol. X, p. 357.

* See contribution by E. L. Godkin on "The Problems of Municipal Government," in the "Annals of the American Academy," Vol. IV, p. 879.

portation.* In a word, the State legislature has continually dictated to the cities in purely local affairs in which it had no concern whatever. The result has been incessant change, to the entire destruction of simplicity and continuity of administration.

3. The best men have kept out of municipal politics, leaving the control of the cities to the incompetent and corrupt. As a rule, American cities do not get the services of representative citizens, the leaders in private enterprises. There are other reasons for the non-participation of these men in the government of the cities aside from the repellent influence of the spoils system and the interference by the State legislatures. Above all, this state of affairs is attributable to the strong attractiveness of mercantile pursuits. The best talent in this country goes into business. It doesn't pay to go into politics. The remark of a New York business man is significant in this connection. "We have thought this thing over," he said, "and we find that it pays better to neglect city affairs than to attend to them; that we can make more money in the time required for the full discharge of our municipal duties than the politicians can steal from us on account of our not discharging them."† Another reason that keeps able men from serving the city may be found in the fact that the range of duties assigned to municipal councils is so narrow that membership in these bodies is not attractive to men of great administrative talent. The city council has so little to do that really able men have slight inclination to throw themselves away in its service.

These are the main causes of municipal misrule. What are the remedies? In the first place the mischievous conception of the city as a political body must be abandoned. The city must be treated, not as a political body, a mere agent of the State government, but as a public corporation, organized for social ends. The management of municipal affairs must be separated from State politics. Again, the spoils system must be killed, and the interference by the State legislatures must

be stopped. The cities should have home rule in strictly local affairs. Finally, the best men must be got to take the offices. It has been well said by Mr. E. L. Godkin that "nothing can take the place of character in city government, no laws or checks or charters,—in fact, the main difficulty in getting good municipal government is the difficulty in getting good men to take the offices."*

How can this difficulty be met? The reforms already suggested will do much toward bringing into the municipal service a better class of men. But what is needed above all is a changed moral temper in the community,—a new spirit of municipal loyalty which shall overcome the selfish indifference that now paralyzes all efforts for better government. A spirit of honest devotion to the common weal is the indispensable basis of all reform. On the part of men of brain and power, of recognized integrity and commanding influence, there must be a ready disposition to place their organizing and administrative ability at the service of the city, to sacrifice the ignoble pursuit of private gain for the honorable career of public service. On the part of the great body of citizens there must be the steadfast determination to see to it that such men are nominated and elected to the city offices.

This is the sort of patriotism that will save the city. Hitherto American patriotism has vented itself too often in shouting and swaggering. It has been of the Fourth of July brand. This old patriotism will not accomplish much for the cause of good government. In its place we need a new patriotism that shall be calmer and saner than the noisy and extravagant patriotism of the past; a patriotism tempered by wholesome respect for the experience of older peoples, and chastened by honest confession of our national faults; a patriotism that shall manifest itself, not in empty boasting, but in quiet devotion to the public good. If this spirit shall prevail, the future of good government in the city, the State, and the nation is secure.

F. SPENCER BALDWIN.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY.

* See F. J. Goodnow: "Municipal Home Rule," p. 23.

† Quoted by Andrew D. White, ex-President of Cornell University, in "The Message of the Nineteenth Century to the Twentieth."

* See contribution by E. L. Godkin, on "The Problems of Municipal Government," to the "Annals of the American Academy," Vol. IV, p. 873.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

AS A university town, Princeton is admirably located. Midway between New York and Philadelphia, situated upon the line of the old stage road between these two cities, it derives all the advantages afforded by a proximity to these great centres, and yet, happily, is relieved of the many distractions and rival interests with which the student life in a large city has to contend. There is, on the one hand, seclusion without provincialism, and on the other, a wide horizon without the resulting confusion of sights and sounds. That which impresses the stranger upon a first visit to Princeton is the communal life of the undergraduates. The intimate relations which evidently characterize their daily intercourse are possible only where a number of students are gathered together upon one campus, where there is not merely a casual meeting in the lecture-room or recitation-hall, but where for four years, day in and day out, they live the same life within a limited sphere, a small world of their own, having common work and purposes, with similar interests and activities and a strong bond of inherited traditions and customs. Out of such relations there naturally arise a feeling of good comradeship, a vigorous

esprit de corps, a loyalty to one's Alma Mater, and enduring ties of staunch friendship.

One of the features of the Princeton campus, and that which more than any other has contributed to the solidarity of the undergraduate life, is the fact that the dormitories, which the friends of Princeton have so generously erected, render it possible for the students thus to live their lives together. There are altogether twelve dormitories. Of these the oldest is Nassau Hall, or "Old North," as the students lovingly call it. It is the original college building, erected in 1755, soon after the college had been transferred from Elizabeth, N. J., to Princeton. At that time it was the largest building that had ever been erected in America. There are now, however, only a few rooms in it still reserved for the students, the others having been converted into lecture-rooms, museums, and laboratories. The walls of Old North, covered with ivy planted by successive classes upon graduation, the severe architectural lines, and that sombre coloring which age alone can give, are strongly suggestive of the old colonial days,—of those days when the British soldiers, during the battle of Princeton, were driven



NASSAU HALL, OR OLD NORTH COLLEGE

from their entrenched position within its walls by a gallant company of American infantry. They remind us also of the days when the Continental Congress, forced to leave Philadelphia for several months, held their sessions in the old Prayer Hall of this building; when beneath its roof the Minister Plenipotentiary from the Netherlands was received by Congress; when at this same gathering, also, was announced the signing of the treaty of peace at Versailles; and when Washington and Lafayette entered its doors as honored guests of the college, whose president, Dr. Witherspoon, had been a fellow-patriot and friend. As a link with that far-away past which gave birth to our national life, Nassau Hall naturally arouses an interest and sentiment which the students feel long before they come to associate with the old building any of the scenes of their own college experiences.

Of these scenes, one of the most characteristic may be witnessed in front of Old North in the spring and early summer evenings, when the seniors gather together upon its steps in the half-light for their class singing, while the students of the other classes are lounging in groups upon the grass and beneath the elms. Here, also, the newly fledged graduates, on the evening of their Commencement Day, meet for the last time in an unbroken circle, and pledge anew, in solemn ceremonial, their loyalty to Old Nassau and their devotion one to another, before formally yielding possession of the steps to the next lower class, which then assumes all the prerogatives and responsibilities which such a transfer would naturally imply. The fact that Nassau Hall stands in the memories of Princeton men as a symbol of all they hold dear invests the



BLAIR HALL

old building with a peculiar and irresistible charm.

In the centre of the quadrangle back of Nassau Hall is the cannon of Revolutionary fame, the scene of many a freshman and sophomore rush, where every notable athletic victory is celebrated in flame and smoke, around which the seniors gather to hold their class-day exercises and enjoy their last pipes together before breaking them upon the cannon's front, upon which also their class numerals are painted in orange and black, and toward which graduates, both young and old, turn with that deep affection which inanimate objects can inspire only when they form the centre of manifold associations.

To the group of older dormitories—as West College, Witherspoon, Reunion, Edwards, and University Hall—there have been added the newer buildings, Dod and Brown Halls, the gift of Mrs. David Brown, of Princeton. Within the last three years also there have been erected the two Pyne dormitories and Blair Hall, the gifts of Moses Taylor Pyne, of the class of 1877, and of John I. Blair, a trustee of the college. Stafford Little Hall, the gift of H. S. Little, of the class of 1844, is at the present time in process of construction. Blair Hall forms a wall along the southwestern border of the campus,

the line of which will be continued by the Stafford Little Hall. The tower and archway of the former constitute a magnificent entrance to the campus from the railroad station. These two buildings, moreover, are to be connected by an arch spanning a roadway which is to be the continuation of McCosh Walk, a beautiful avenue extending for some distance beneath the branching elms which meet above it, and a favorite walk of Princeton's beloved president in his declining years.

The campus life of the students, moreover, has made it possible for the university to take a much higher rank in athletic sports than her numbers would naturally lead one to expect. Princeton has for years competed with the larger numbers of Harvard and Yale, always with honor, and often with the glory of victory as well. Mr. Patterson, commenting upon the football season of 1898, in "Leslie's Weekly," remarks that "it is always a source of surprise to see Princeton come up with crack teams year after year, when one remembers that she has only 1,000 students from whom to select her players, whereas the other big elevens are selected from the 2,000 to 3,000 men in

dates for their class or 'Varsity teams, are necessarily debarred from the privileges of the University Athletic Field. The Brokaw Field is a memorial to Frederick Brokaw, of the class of 1892, who sacrificed his life in attempting to rescue a drowning woman in the surf at Elberon during the summer following the baseball championship of 1891, which was in no small measure due to the skill of young Brokaw as catcher of the 'Varsity nine. It may be of interest to quote from an editorial in the New York "Times," which appeared soon after his death, and a copy of which is engraved beneath his picture, which hangs in the University Club House:

"More impressive, doubtless, than any of the baccalaureate sermons which have been preached this year will be the lesson taught to his college comrades and friends, and to the students of many another college, by the death of young Brokaw at Elberon. . . . His was distinctly and strikingly the death of a hero, and the noble flinging away of life in what seemed to him his path of duty. When college pastimes and exercises produce as brave and unselfish lads as he, they need no vindication."

Brokaw's is not an isolated case. Lamar, 1886, the famous football hero, who in the championship game of 1885 carried the ball in the last moments of the game through the entire Yale team, a distance of 100 yards, for a winning touchdown, met his death in a similar way. It is not, however, the exceptional deed, for which there is but rare occasion, that indicates the normal tendency of the athletic life of Princeton. It is seen rather in an unconscious schooling in the lessons of self-mastery, courage, and perseverance, teaching men how to play an uphill game and turn defeat into victory, not only on 'Var-

sity fields, but in the arduous work of life. Tributes by Governor Roosevelt and Mr. Davis to the heroism of Princeton athletes among the "Rough Riders" are so well known and so recent as to need only a passing reference.

One of the most useful buildings upon the campus is the Isabella McCosh Infirmary. It is a hospital equipped upon the



MARQUAND CHAPEL—MURRAY HALL IN RIGHT BACKGROUND

each institution." Athletics at Princeton, however, are not confined to the picked teams which represent her in the intercollegiate contests, but there is a general interest and participation in the outdoor sports. The new Brokaw Athletic Field, with its convenient dressing-rooms and swimming-pool, affords abundant opportunities to those who, not being candi-

most approved modern plan, built as a tribute to the untiring and gentle ministrations of Mrs. McCosh, who, toward the students who are ill, has been fulfilling for many years the sentiment which is wrought in mosaic work at the entrance to the infirmary,—*Non ministrari sed ministrare*.

In every university circle there is a prevailing tone which affects—insensibly, perhaps—the habits, the life, the ideals of its members. Princeton is distinctively a democratic community. There is an equality of privilege which is in no respect dependent upon birth or position. The men who become leaders in literary, scholarly, or athletic pursuits, and who are elected to representative positions in their classes or in the university at large, are men whose worth alone gives them a natural preëminence. There is to all a fair field and no favor. Wealth does not make for a man, nor the lack of it against him. The students live their lives upon one social level. There is a deep-seated intolerance of all snobishness and pretension. The dictum of the 'Varsity field, "No grand-stand playing!" obtains in all quarters of the undergraduate life. It signifies no cant in religion; no pedantry in scholarship; no affectation in manners; no pretence in friendship. This is the first and enduring lesson which the freshman must learn. He learns and he forgets many other lessons, but this must be held in lively remembrance until it has become a second nature. The rise of social clubs among the upper-classmen has brought together at a common mess, and under one roof, those who would naturally form more intimate friendships and train together, and yet these clubs have not destroyed, in any degree, the democratic spirit of the place. They intensify an intimacy among a few, without lessening the general good-will and fellow-feeling among the many.

That which reflects most credit upon the undergraduate life is the so-called honor system inaugurated about five years ago. The movement was a spontaneous

one, not suggested by the faculty, but conceived and urged by the students themselves, who petitioned that in the conduct of examinations they might be put upon their honor, and that the old system of surveillance be done away with forever. The honor system has worked most satisfactorily. Examinations are conducted with that complete freedom from even the suspicion of unfairness which can obtain



ONE OF THE HALLS OF THE LITERARY SOCIETIES

only among men of honor. The students are not watched. The instructor in charge of the examination feels no hesitancy in leaving the room, in perfect confidence that no one will take any advantage of his absence. There is no occasion for a professor to lose his self-respect by becoming periodically a proctor and engaging in a contest of wits with the students. On the one hand there is perfect confidence, and on the other a scrupulous observance of the trust thus implicitly reposed. A students' committee of the presidents of the several classes sits in judgment upon any offenders. For several years their office in this respect has been a sinecure, for no infringements of the code of honor have been recently observed. The student justice is summary; he who violates his pledge of honor is given twenty-four hours to leave the town, and ever afterwards there can be no place for him among Princeton men. In a university community a custom becomes a tradition in a surprisingly short time, for a generation is only four years in its duration; and when one generation honors a custom heartily and uniformly, it becomes an established



ALEXANDER HALL

tradition, binding the following generations of university men with a power which to the uninitiated may seem out of all proportion to its brief history. It is no exaggeration, therefore, to say that the honor system in Princeton has acquired that binding force and sanctity which attach only to an immemorial tradition. The honor system in reference to examinations has had, moreover, a pervasive influence in affecting the general moral tone of the university, so that to trust a man's word and to scorn a lie has also become traditional.

During the present academic year the students have of their own motion decided to abolish hazing in all its forms, and, that their action may prove the more effectual, the observance of it has been made a matter of honor in a manner similar to that which prevails in the conduct of examinations. Instead of the old prohibitions and penalties in reference to hazing, the burden of discipline, and the consequent friction between faculty and students, the odium of dishonor has now been attached to this custom, and therefore it cannot survive. The assurance as to the future in this regard is based upon the complete success of the other honor movement; for from the same kind of seed a like product may be reasonably expected.

Religious influences in Princeton are many. The university however, is not a sectarian institution. It has never been connected with any church organization. There is a marked spirit of tolerance as regards the religious predilections of the students, which is manifest even in the charter, which provides that "those of every religious denomination

may have free and equal liberty and advantage of education in the said college, any different sentiments in religion notwithstanding." Chapel attendance is required every morning and twice on Sunday. Any student, however, desiring to worship regularly in any church in the village is freely permitted to do so. The students have always showed a marked appreciation of the Marquand Chapel, as is evidenced by their reverent

participation in the services, their hearty singing, and the excellent attention given to the university preachers.

Murray Hall, in the immediate neighborhood of the chapel, is devoted to the interests of the Philadelphian Society, a religious organization, conducted by the students themselves, which was founded in 1825. This building was erected from a bequest of Hamilton Murray, of the class of 1872, who was lost at sea on the "Ville de Havre."

The St. Paul's Society, founded in 1875, is a similar organization, whose membership is among those students who are connected with the Episcopal Church.

A unique feature of Princeton life is the influence of its two literary societies, the American Whig and the Cliosophic. These rival societies have flourished for upwards of one hundred and thirty years. The American Whig Society was founded by James Madison while an undergraduate of the college. It is a matter of interest to note that recently Baron de Coubertin, of Paris, has established a prize for the Whig Society, of which he is an honorary member,—a gold medal to be awarded annually to the successful contestant in debate upon some question of French politics. Baron de Coubertin was a member of a committee which several years ago was sent from France to study the educational institutions of America; he was also one of the leading spirits in the revival of the Olympian games in 1896. The halls of these two literary societies were erected in 1838, similar in external appearance, both modeled after an Ionic temple on the Island of Teos. They have since been

replaced by marble buildings of the same general style of architecture. It is impossible to estimate the influence of these societies in affording to generation after generation of undergraduates a forum for the cultivation of those powers which, in the life for which he is preparing, train a man to express himself clearly and to state an argument with force and persuasion.

The students publish several papers and magazines, as the "Daily Princetonian," the "Alumni Princetonian," the "Nassau Literary Magazine," the "Princeton Tiger," and the "Bric-a-Brac." The Monday Night Club is an elective society composed of about a dozen members of the senior class, who meet weekly to discuss current questions of literary and political interest. The students have the privilege of hearing a number of distinguished lecturers each year, owing to the liberality of Spencer Trask, of the class of 1866, who has given to the university a fund for that purpose. These lectures, as well as the other public functions of the university, are held in Alexander Hall, the gift of Mrs. Charles B. Alexander, of New York.

The efficient administration and the masterly genius of President McCosh secured to Princeton an era of prosperity and a position of advantage which rendered possible that still larger development which the present administration has been abundantly realizing. The Sesquicentennial celebration, in October, 1896, emphasized the fact that Princeton had been passing through a stage of transition which closed the history of the College of New Jersey—the original charter name—and inaugurated the beginnings of her history as Princeton University—the new name then for the first time formally assumed. During the last few years there has been a rapid expansion in all departments of university work. Within fifteen years the faculty has doubled its

numbers. Within the same period there have been increased facilities for instruction and research,—such as the Biological Laboratory, the gift of the class of 1877, the Chemical Hall, the Magnetic Laboratory, and the Bacteriological Laboratory. In addition to these separate buildings the other laboratories have been refurnished, and a psychological and an histological laboratory have been newly established. There have been valuable additions to the various museums, notably the collection of fossils discovered by the various geological expeditions which have annually gone out from Princeton to the far West for a period of some twenty years; also the collection from Patagonia made by Mr. Hatcher, of the geological department, who was the first explorer in that region since the pioneer researches of Charles Darwin.

Of all the new buildings the most imposing in appearance, and the most valuable as regards the development of the university ideals, is the new library, forming a hollow quadrangle of about 160 feet square, connected by a delivery room with the old Chancellor Green library. There is a capacity for 1,200,000 volumes. In addition to the stock, distributing, and reading rooms, there is a large room,



THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY



INNER COURT OF THE NEW LIBRARY

for the exhibition of rare books, and fifteen so-called seminary rooms, designed for special research and investigation. These rooms contain reference libraries and various periodicals which bear upon lines of special study. A limited number of the best students in each department, also graduate students taking courses for the doctor's degree, are thus afforded every advantage in cultivating those scientific methods and scholarly habits which are the secret of success in original research.

In this connection it may be of interest to indicate Princeton's general educational policy. The ideal which Princeton has always had, and for the realization of which her curriculum is designed and her educational forces coöperate, is of a two-fold nature: to offer abundant opportunity and incentive to a broad culture and mental discipline; and also to encourage and develop, among those who have the ability and vocation, a high order of scholarly attainment. To this end candidates for the bachelor of arts degree are required to take courses in the classical and modern languages, mathematics, history, literature, science, political economy, and philosophy, upon the theory that in

this way a symmetrical development of all the mental powers is secured, and a man is best fitted for the varied activities of life, and that in this manner also the best possible foundation is laid for the work of the specialist, whatever may be the sphere of his investigation. A solid core of disciplinary and humanistic courses being assured to all, there is free scope for the exercise of individual preference, and the following of one's bent in the choice that is given—especially in the junior and senior years—of a large number of elective studies. A similar idea is carried out in the courses necessary for the bachelor of science degree, Greek, however, being omitted, and only a brief course in Latin required. A general literary and philosophical training is likewise insisted upon. Princeton, however, in its zeal for the humanities, has never relegated science to a secondary place in its curriculum, as the labors and achievements of Henry, Guyot, and Young bear witness.

In addition to the academic and scientific courses there is a course in civil engineering and one in electrical engineering. The graduate courses, leading to the higher university degrees, have

been developing during the past few years until it has been proposed to erect a building, as soon as the funds are forthcoming, for the exclusive purposes of a graduate school. Such a building would contain a dormitory, lecture-halls, laboratories, a dining-hall, reading-room, and library, so that within its walls and courts the graduate life of the university would be centred. A building of this kind, with appropriate equipment and adequate endowment, is one of the most pressing of Princeton's needs. A university which is fulfilling its present trusts and prosecuting a progressive policy must from time to time appeal to the public for additional benefactions, in order to realize the possibilities of a larger efficiency and a continuous growth.

The future of Princeton, however, depends not alone upon the benefactors who may endow graduate schools, professional chairs, and fellowships. One of the most potent factors which contribute to her present vigor and progressive spirit is the unbounded loyalty and devotion of the alumni to their Alma Mater. This devotion springs from a strong sentiment, deeply rooted and of a constant nature, bearing fruit in thought and effort to advance Princeton's interests in all possible ways. The alumni, both individuals and as classes, have endowed fellowships, prizes, and professorships, alcoves in the library, equipments for seminary rooms, provision for lecture courses, a building for laboratories, art collections, and books. The various alumni associations throughout the country have offered prizes for successful contestants at the university entrance examinations, and in many other ways have endeavored to keep the claims of Princeton before the public. The spirit of the alumni has proved contagious, so that the undergraduates have formed sectional clubs for the purpose of bringing to the notice of preparatory students in the States represented by these clubs the advantages which Princeton offers.

The following incident will serve to illustrate the devotion of a Princeton man to his Alma Mater manifested in supreme measure: A member of the class of 1889, whose ardent love for Princeton was a passion, had journeyed to California for his health. Being himself a physician, and one, too, of no little reputation and of still greater promise, he realized all too vividly the critical nature of his illness. His one desire seemed to be that he might see Princeton once more before his death. Nothing deterred by his extremely weak condition, he started upon his long journey across the continent alone, reaching Princeton at the beginning of the Commencement week in 1897. Insisting upon being carried to the campus, he visited the various haunts of his undergraduate days, even going to the 'Varsity field to witness the Yale-Princeton game, afterwards attending a club reunion that he might speak a parting word to those whom he loved, and who loved him, and then requesting that he might be taken to his old room in East College, there peacefully to breathe his last, while the class-day exercises were in progress around the cannon, only a few yards away. Even in his death he remembered Princeton, blending his loyalty to her with his loyalty to his country, for in his last will and testament he left a generous bequest to endow a chair of American history. It was peculiarly fitting that such a scene should have been the last to be enacted within the walls of old East College, a crowning memory among the many associations which that name recalls to the graduates of Princeton; for East College is now only a name, the workmen that same week starting to tear it down in order to make room for the new university library, then in process of construction. Thus the old Princeton still lives on in the new, and the spirit of those who have loved her in the past stirs in the hearts of her sons, on whose loyal devotion her future depends.

JOHN GRIER HIBBEN.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

THE president of Princeton University is the Rev. Francis Landey Patton, D.D., LL.D. Dr. Patton was born in Bermuda, Jan. 22, 1843, and at an early age accompanied his family to Toronto, Canada, where he received part of his education at University College. Later studying theology at Knox College, Toronto, he completed his course at Princeton Theological

Seminary, graduating in 1865. He held pastoral charges in New York, Nyack, Brooklyn, and Chicago, between 1865 and 1881. In the latter year he was appointed Stuart Professor of the Relation of Philosophy and Science to the Christian Religion, at Princeton Seminary. In 1885 he was appointed Professor of Ethics, and in 1888 he succeeded Dr. McCosh as president.

THE WORLD'S GREAT EPICS

"GREECE is the nursing mother of us all. Civilization drank at her breasts, and every civilized man is her foster-son and owes her some duty. The Past is half-brother to the Present, and, the farther back we trace in the Past, the more do we recede from the clear day of positive history and the deeper do we plunge into the unsteady twilight and gorgeous clouds of fancy and feeling."

When Greece was in her youth, as the Homeric epics have revealed to us, it was a period of beauty and splendor, exquisite refinement, and of artistic development in metal work, arms, armor, jewelry, furniture, and household utensils. The legendary age of Greece receives its principal charm from the "Iliad" and "Odyssey," those epics of "exquisite and unsuspecting simplicity." The myths were the entire intellectual stock of the age until the sixth century B. C., an age destitute of recorded history and positive science, but full of imagination, sentiment, and religious impressibility. These people of Greece possessed a craving for adventure and an appetite for the marvellous which we see embodied in marble and color, in comedy and tragedy, in science and philosophy of later periods.

Most, if not all, nations had myths, but no nation except the Greeks has imparted to them immortal charm and universal interest. The energy of a nation's glory, the bravery of a people, form the theme of these beautiful epics, a collection of songs, poems, and fragments of the heroic age. The honor is accorded Pisistratus, who advanced the arts, of compiling these fragments into a magnificent whole. The most eminent men of the day reduced them to writing, and their popularity has increased rather than waned.

Epic poetry, chiefly of a narrative nature, represents the subject it treats as a unit. In a wider sense it comprises the ballad, the romance, and even the fable, but in its more limited sense it may simply denote the popular tales or legends of a nation or tribe which have been collected or arranged.

They are styled epics because they represent a complete and true picture of the life and doings of a race, the form only possible to the early youth of a nation. Unity of sympathy, faith appertaining to

worship, and admiration pervade them all, as well as a remarkable analogy. While authorities differ, the essential points of accepted epics are conceded.

Among the earliest are those of India, the "Râmâyana" and the "Mahâ-bhârata," embracing the adventures of Rama, a popular national hero, and the valorous deeds of a nation, countless in number. Recited and sung by wandering minstrels or rhapsodists, as in Greece, trouvères and troubadours in Italy, France, and England, minnesingers in Germany, etc., these gorgeous tales inflamed the imagination and stirred the hearts of all who heard them. Valuable as literature to the scholar, they reveal the life of all grades of men, their beliefs, hopes, aspirations, joys, and sorrows, together with their modes of warfare, dress, and living. The test of Rama's strength was the bending of a mighty bow, drawn in by five thousand men. He not only bent it, but broke it, receiving the hand of Sita in exchange for the great feat. His adventures are numerous, but all ends as it should. Rama, after countless good deeds, indulges in suspicion of his loved wife, which was destroyed by a trial by fire. Later he forgets this, is again suspicious, but filled with remorse when he learns of her sufferings. To his dismay and subsequent shame, she is conveyed to a celestial abode, leaving him desolate. This beauty of expression is distributed through seven books of about fifty thousand lines, forming an Iliad, or Bible, of many of the Hindus. Unlike the hapless father of Rama, whose death is so exquisitely told,—

"Dwelling in that sweet memory, on his last bed the monarch lay,
And slowly, softly seemed to die, as fades the moon at dawn away."—

the epic of Rama will never fade.

The "Mahâ-bhârata" contains two hundred thousand lines, and is written in Sanscrit, as is the "Râmâyana." It relates chiefly to the myths and battles, historically speaking, to the invasion of India by the Aryans. Space forbids details of the records of deeds so generally known; suffice it to say that commentators and historians have gathered into many volumes the treasures contained in the two oldest, and hence the leading, epics of the world.

The epics of Greece are more familiar to the average student and reader, and, aside from the peculiarly interesting phases of domestic life and manners, they will compare, in point of imagery and philosophy, with those of India. The story of Helen of Troy, the wrath of Achilles, the death of Patroclus, the wooden horse, and the sacrifice of Iphigenia, are episodes well known. Mighty Ajax, wise Nestor, wily Ulysses, the interposition of the gods at critical moments, form themes and pictures of rare power and beauty. In the "Iliad" we have a "Mahâ-bhârata" or episodes; in the "Odyssey," the adventures of Ulysses and the fidelity of Penelope.

It was many years before literature again received an impetus, as the wonders of Greece became vitiated through individual thought. Universal coöperation had reached its height during the reign of Pericles, surpassing in magnificence all that had been known. With the decline of Greece, politics, art, and literature became but an echo of the past.

It was not until 19 B. C. that Virgil presented the "Æneid," in which, like Homer, he dashes into the heart of the story. It lacks the 'love-romance of a male character, the devotion of a Lancelot; but at that period there was quite enough love in the action of the poem to suit the tastes of the hearers. It is a unit; it is great; it is interesting,—three qualities applicable to an epic.

Nearly twenty years after, in the year 1 A. D., came Ovid's "Metamorphoses." This work is considered the greatest monument of Ovid's genius. It is made up of a mass of Greek mythology, such stories wherein men and women are changed from human form to animals, plants, or inanimate objects. Its valuable contribution to literature may be estimated when it is known as having been translated into every language of modern Europe. Its renown can best be told in the words of Ovid:—

"So crown I here a work that dares defy
The wrath of Jove, the fire, the sword, the tooth
Of all-devouring Time! Come when it will
The day that ends my life's uncertain term
That on this corporal frame alone hath power
To work extinction,—high above the stars
My noble part shall soar,—my name remain
Immortal—whereso'er the might of Rome
O'erawes the earth, my verse survive
Familiar in the mouths of men:—and, if
A bard may prophesy, while Time shall last
Endure, and die but with the dying world!"

Centuries passed until at Florence was born, in the year 1265, the prince of poets,

the immortal Dante Alighieri, who gave to the world that sublime work and sacred epic, the "Divina Commedia," written through nineteen long and weary years of the poet's exile. Was Florence dear to him? Read:—

"Sweet would it be to decorate my head with the crown of laurel in Bologna, but sweeter still in my own country, if I ever return there, hiding my white hairs under its leaves." Most noble and beautiful Florence, thy shame and glory in Santa Croce represent no more, for the dust of the great sad poet remains in exile.

"It is usual," says Boccaccio, "that hatred ends with the death of the person hated, but this did not happen on the death of Dante. The obstinate ill-will of his fellow-citizens continued as rigid as ever; no sympathy was shown by anyone, no tears were given him by the city, no public solemnity for his funeral. By which pertinacity it is evident that the Florentines were so destitute of knowledge that among them no distinction was made between a vile cobbler and an exalted poet."

The Comedy—so called because of its happy ending—relates to the threefold state of man,—sin, grace, and beatitude. As Christ was upon earth thirty-three years, so that number of cantos represent that fact. Later, the divinity recognized in this unparalleled work attached itself to the name—hence, the "Divina Commedia." It is the history of Florence, its crimes and intrigues, its hatreds and humiliations.

Although it does not appear that Ariosto had the intention of writing an epic poem, his "Orlando Furioso" ranks as one, if the "Chronicles of Turpin," the "Nibelungen-Lied," the "Knights of the Round Table," and many others, are so considered. The "Orlando" has been translated into all modern languages, and by the sole charm of its adventures, independent of its poetry, has long been the delight of the youth of all countries. The versification has been more distinguished for grace, sweetness, and elegance than for strength. It was published in 1516 and recounts the wars of Charlemagne with the Moors.

In this connection the "Song of Roland" may be mentioned, which celebrates the valor of Charlemagne. Indeed it is older than the "Orlando," which is more properly a sequel to it. Devoid of emotional power, it lacks interest and inspiration for the reader.

Burning for recognition from his loved

country, which refused him distinction, Camoens left Portugal on several expeditions, but invariably returned, as love of his country revived with fresh force as he trod those scenes made famous by the exploits of his countrymen. Writing a bitter satire on the abuses of the government, he was banished to the isle of Macao, on the coast of China. He remained five years and composed the great epic, the "*Lusiad*" (published 1572), which proved a memorial of him. The work commends itself to our notice for the national love and pride displayed throughout the whole poem. Combining the luxurious fancy of Ariosto with the enthusiasm of Tasso, the "*Lusiad*" is consequently a production of great intellectual worth. Hallam says: "The '*Lusiad*' is what its name implies,—the Portuguese reflecting the glory of her people, as did the '*Æneid*' reflect the glory of Rome as from a mirror; the scenes possess a certain charm of coloring, a mellifluous versification, and, above all, a soft languor which tones the whole poem."

At this point reference can be made to "*The Cid*," the Spanish poem written about 1200 A. D. For various reasons, notably careless versification, authorities disagree as to its being an epic poem. Three thousand seven hundred and forty-five lines, divided into two sections or cantares, relate the "*Triumph of Rodrigo Ruy Diaz, El Cid Campeador*," a real personage who slaughtered the Moors and acquired wealth with equal ardor.

At the court of Ferrara a conspicuous figure was the genius who honored Italy once more with an epic poem, "*Jerusalem Delivered*," a story of the Crusaders. The admirers of Ariosto were alarmed when this poem of twenty cantos appeared in 1581. Torquato Tasso, amid all the distractions of a suffering mind, defended himself against their attacks with warmth and shrewdness. The lament of Byron strongly expresses his indignation at the selfish and unfeeling prince who exerted his power so cruelly.

TO FERRARA

* And thou, when no longer dwell
The ducal chiefs without, thou shalt fall down,
And crumbling piecemeal in thy heartless halls,
A poet's wreath shall be thy only crown
A poet's dungeon thy most far renown."

It has been observed that Tasso was superior to Homer in the choice of his subject: the interest attached to the

death of Hector and the wrath of Achilles was slight compared to genuine recollections associated with the first Crusade. It was not the theme of a single people, but of Europe—not a fluctuating tradition, but certain history. In the delineation of character Tasso was affected by the age in which truth to nature is sacrificed, but the sweetness and nobility of his mind are ever present.

Before touching upon the next epic (English) let us retrace our steps to before the eighth century, and glance at a manuscript in the British Museum, wherein the unknown writer of three thousand one hundred and eighty lines recites the deeds of "*Beowulf*," the hero. Clash of armor, beautiful women, the melody of the harp, mingle in rude versification in this pagan poem. It is reminiscent with dragons, banners, gold cups, mighty men of giant stature, and valorous deeds.

Gibbon says that "the noble family of Spenser should consider the '*Faerie Queen*' as the most precious jewel in their casket." When England was honored by this poem in 1589, or '90,—which to-day is as fresh and fragrant as then,—the virtue and valor of the nation were represented. Spenser, it has been conceded, is the most luxurious and melodious of the descriptive poets of England. Ariosto and Tasso, while furnishing the texture, have not deprived him of the great design—the conception of allegorical characters and the structure of verse which bears his name.

For twenty-seven years John Milton refrained from writing poetry. He had choice of two subjects for the poem upon which he had been deliberating—the annals of England and the Bible. The legend of Arthur was too mythical to impress the strongly developed nature of the author of the subsequent "*Paradise Lost*"; the Conquest was too definitely known—too barbarous possibly—to handle with the poetic freedom of a delicate organization. That Milton esteemed his own poems has been demonstrated by thoughtful people. Lacking sympathy with his surroundings, high-minded and *spirituelle*, he shrank from contact and poured the fire and passion of genius into the sublime epic which stands in its unity, sublimity, and grandeur as a monument of enduring fame. Some one has said "the pictures in '*Paradise Lost*' are like the paintings on the wall of

some noble hall—only part of the total magnificence.”

“Milton created his epic by drawing it out of himself, not by building it up.” This poem appeared in 1667, netting the author at first only five pounds. Self-interest, antagonism—political or otherwise—influenced men who held the destiny of Genius in their power, but Genius, like Truth, triumphs in these later years, when an unprejudiced public lavishes tribute upon the undying name of John Milton.

Written by dictation during those sad years of blindness, the twelve books of “Paradise Lost” impress their solemnity and grandeur upon all. Taine styles the “Paradise Regained”—the story of Christ’s Temptation in the Wilderness—“a cold and noble epic.” Brevity characterizes it, which may account for the lack of interest by the public.

This may appear a digression, but to follow the epics through a line to the present, from the average student’s standpoint, required that the “Lay of the Nibelungen” (Germany), the “Shah-Nameh” (Persia), the “Volsunga Saga,” and possibly others, should be omitted in so limited a space as this article must cover.

The search for folklore of all nations has resulted in the past hundred years in collecting songs, episodes, and myths of various countries, arranging and compiling them as was thought best and wisest by eminent men of the period. As late as 1835, the “Kalevala,” the national epic of Finland, made its appearance through the efforts of Dr. Zacharias Topelius; and in the same manner did Wagner, the musician, utilize and present the “Nibelungen” through operatic scores.

Longfellow, it is surmised, inspired by the “Kalevala,” wrote “Hiawatha,” narrating the beautiful and kindred legends of the American Indian. Perhaps, in time, the heroes of the Revolution may achieve

distinction, surrounded by the imagery of flowery composition, when their valiant deeds will form a national epic.

To be minute in particulars, Klopstock’s “Messiah,” “The Lay of the Last Minstrel,” “Don Juan,” the “Henriade” of Voltaire, make some claim to consideration as epics, as well as Goethe’s “Hermann and Dorothea.”

In conclusion, the indefinite knowledge pertaining to the early epics verifies the statement that all nations had myths, but no nation except the Greeks has imparted to them immortal charm and universal interest as in the Homeric poems.

Human nature is combative, rebellious, outstretching; and we note the student, the genius—perhaps physically weak or disabled, but magnificently proportioned intellectually—record the aspirations of a life, which proves an enduring, undying memorial to him. When the whirligig of Time places him in exile, the wish to battle for his country, as a hero of old, grows strong within his heart; he seeks solace in recording the deeds of others, while vainly opposing his own Fate, and the world recognizes him, in time, as an epic poet.

Battling for truth, justice, religion, country, and love, has produced the World’s Great Epics. A sightless Homer, a sightless Milton, the exiled Dante, Camoens, and Tasso, have given, through love of country, love of religion, and alas! through Love’s keen anguish, immortal words unequalled. The vivid word-painting of the World’s Great Epics has proved as impressive as the sublime creations of Phidias, Praxiteles, and Canova; has proved as enduring as the glorious coloring of Da Vinci, Michelangelo, Titian, and Raphael; has proved as melodious as the majestic and sonorous strains of Beethoven, Handel, and Wagner.

GISELLE D’UNGER.

CHICAGO, ILL.

A WRITER in an English periodical has just given admirers of Ruskin, now in his eighty-first year, a pen-portrait of the author ten years ago as he stood in his favorite place on the hearth-rug in Brantwood drawing-room. His face, he writes, was fair-complexioned and refined, framed by long, straight, brown hair and beard, both hair and beard browner than gray, though there was much of gray in both. His eyes were the youngest eyes I have ever seen in an adult face, blue and clear like a child’s, with the child’s large, direct gaze. A slender,

stooping figure, but full of forcible, quick gesture. By tea-time—that pleasant time between the darkness and the day—every table, chair, and most of the floor would be littered with a wonderful profusion of sketches, photographs, priceless missals, Greek coins, and uncut gems. “Now we begin to look comfortable,” he would say gleefully when there was nothing left to sit upon, and we had to pick our steps among the treasures scattered at our feet; and we *were* comfortable. He spared neither himself nor his possessions to give pleasure to his guests.

THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS OF THE UNITED STATES—II *

HAWAII consists of eight inhabited islands, extending from northwest to southeast over a distance of about 380 miles, and occupying a central position in the North Pacific, 2,089 nautical miles southwest of San Francisco, 4,640 from Panama, 4,950 from Hong-Kong, 3,800 from Auckland, N. Z., and 3,440 from Yokohama. The area is, approximately, 7,000 square miles, almost equal to that of Massachusetts, or about 600 square miles greater than that of Connecticut and Rhode Island combined.

adapted to the raising of coffee, but not available for sugar.

The population of the islands, according to the census of 1896, was 109,020, the nationalities being apportioned as follows:—

Hawaiians.....	31,019
Part Hawaiians.....	8,485
Chinese.....	21,616
Japanese.....	24,407
Portuguese.....	15,191
Americans.....	3,086
English.....	2,250
Germans.....	1,432
All others.....	1,534
Total.....	109,020



The photographs in this article are published by the courtesy of "Tabor's," San Francisco.

BANANA PLANTATION, WAIKIKI

The soil consists entirely of decomposed lava, and in productiveness equals the soil of any other country in the world. The chief products are sugar, coffee, rice, bananas, pineapples, guavas, and many other tropical fruits. There are on the islands 59 sugar plantations and about 250 coffee plantations. The cultivation of coffee is rapidly increasing and will soon rival sugar in amount and value. On the island of Hawaii alone there are between 400,000 and 500,000 acres of rich land peculiarly

The population of Honolulu was 29,920.

The vessels flying the Hawaiian flag numbered 62, aggregating 34,066 tons. Of these 29 are steamers.

The foreign trade of the islands exceeds in value \$208 per capita for every man, woman, and child in the country—a record unparalleled in the history of the world. There are no poorhouses in Hawaii, and paupers, beggars, and tramps are unknown. Hawaiian cities and villages possess all modern conveniences and afford every comfort enjoyed by the people of any city in the United States.

*Concluded from *SELF CULTURE* for March, Vol. IX, p. 8.



EXECUTIVE MANSION, HONOLULU

In 1896 the Pacific Coast States sold to the people of Hawaii more than \$800,000 worth of food products. The total imports for that year exceeded \$7,000,000, almost \$5,500,000 coming from the United States. The value of their exports for the same year exceeded \$15,000,000, leaving a net balance of trade in their favor of over \$8,000,000.

The history of the islands immediately preceding the establishment of the Hawaiian Republic is too recent not to be reasonably well known. The reign of Kalakaua, as well as that of Liliuokalani, would seem to illustrate the well-known law of human history that as a rule mankind does not advance uninterruptedly. The natives of Hawaii had accomplished wonders in the way of assimilating civilization. Then came the inevitable reaction, which, however, the impartial historian will regretfully be forced to admit was caused by degenerate white men tully as much as by the natives themselves. Unfortunately the reactionary forces found the highest native authorities in full sympathy with them. The Government, in short, became, or was about to become, the executive tool of American lottery agencies and other disintegrating

forces plainly foreshadowing an era of total demoralization. Against all this the better element of the island arose *en masse* and forced the abdication of the Queen, who, consciously or otherwise, had become the chief abettor of the social ruin of her own country. Political chaos and even bloodshed ensued, but out of it there arose in legitimate triumph a Government at once intelligent, responsible, and adequate. It was the best of New England saving a demoralized nation from its own self-imposed destruction. That an American President should have stood willing to support—even to the extent of using American arms—the claims of the preposterous Queen to the Hawaiian throne, when it represented gross injustice to the Americans who had made the islands what they were, would appear utterly incredible. But it was attempted and—happily for all concerned—utterly failed.

No single feature of the Hawaiian Islands is so universally noticed as their mountains, and especially their mountains of fire.

A recent article in the St. Louis "Globe Democrat" says:

"The Hawaiian Islands are volcanic, and, considered with reference to their actual height

from the bottom of the sea, are the loftiest mountains in the world. They are, in fact, mountains beneath as well as above the ocean. The Pacific in their vicinity is about 18,000 feet deep, and as the islands rise nearly 14,000 feet above the sea, the Hawaiian group is a cluster of mountains about 32,000 feet in height. By the side of these stupendous masses of land the Rocky Mountains dwindle almost into insignificance. Few of the peaks among the Rockies exceed 10,000 feet in height, yet the Hawaiians are three times that height. From the ocean bed to the top of Mauna Loa is a distance as great as or greater than that from the sea level to the topmost peak of Mount Everest or Kunchinjinga. But Everest and Kunchinjinga do not rise from the sea level, but from the loftiest plateau in the world; thus the Hawaiians are more than one third higher than either of the great peaks cited in the geographies as the loftiest on the globe."

There are extinct volcanoes everywhere in the islands, the entire group being of volcanic origin. An authority on scientific matters says there are over three hundred active craters on the island, and disused chimneys of nature are so numerous as to attract no attention. There

are literally thousands of them. They are found in the most unexpected places. Plunging through the undergrowth of a tropical forest, the traveller suddenly feels his foot descending a yard further than it ought, makes an investigation, and finds he has stepped into a rounded hole that proves to be an extinct crater. Lava is everywhere present; disintegrated lava thrown out ages ago, which has become pulverized and constitutes the richest soil; black, hard lava, which flowed out during eruptions fifty, sixty, or a hundred years ago, and is still fresh; warm lava, which so recently flowed that its internal heat remains. So little respect have the natives for their volcanoes, to such an extent does familiarity breed contempt, that even the lava which is hardly cooled is utilized by the farmers. They spread over it a little soil, then sow their crops, and in due time reap their harvest.

Mauna Loa and Kilauea are often confounded, many persons supposing that the two names pertain to the same mountain. As a matter of fact the two are quite distinct, although they are but sixteen miles apart and are probably but different vents for the same internal fire.

Kilauea is much lower than Mauna Loa. The latter is one of the loftiest mountains on the globe, being about 14,000 feet above the level of the sea, while the former is scarcely 5,000 feet and quite a distinct elevation from the famous mountain which forms the most noted landmark in the world. Mauna Loa lifts its head above the regions of vegetation, and even under a tropical sun is covered with a perpetual snow. Its white top, sometimes mistaken by mariners for a cloud, can be seen at sea for a distance of 150 miles. Humboldt says that it is the best illustration in the world of the visibility of a mountain. Kilauea, on the contrary, is merely a hill by the side of Mauna Loa, but has a crater which for size exceeds anything of the kind in the world.

Captain Dutton, in his geological report to the United States Government on the Hawaiian Islands, thus describes Kilauea:

"The Kau trail first strikes the edge of the Kilauea amphitheatre upon its



LAVA TREE—THE VASE

western side, and, following the western rim, circles around the northern end until it reaches the Volcano House. A few hundred yards beyond this point, where the volcano first breaks into view, we reach by a sharp acclivity the loftiest point of the encircling crest line of the amphitheatre. It is a memorable spot. Behind us rises the dome of Mauna Loa, and nowhere else upon the island is the superlative grandeur of this king of volcanoes displayed to such advantage.

spotted and streaked here and there with red — not the red of fire, but of iron persalts, alternating with the magnetic black. Its general form is conical, holding a large crateriform depression within. But it is so shattered and broken that it has a craggy aspect which may well be called hideous. Around it spreads out the slightly undulated floor of the amphitheatre, as black as midnight. To the left of the steaming pile is an opening in the floor of



A SOLIDIFIED LAVA FLOW

When the curtain of clouds is drawn aside, we behold also, far to the northward, the almost equally majestic mass of Mauna Kea. In front of us and right beneath our feet, over the crest of a nearly vertical wall, more than 700 feet below, is outspread the broad floor of the far-famed Kilauea. It is a pit about three and a half miles in length and two and a half miles in width, nearly elliptical in plan, and surrounded with cliffs for the most part inaccessible to human foot, and varying in altitude from a little more than 300 feet to a little more than 700 feet. The altitude of the point on which we stand is about 4,200 feet above the sea. The object upon which the attention is instantly fixed is a large chaotic pile of rocks, situated in the centre of the amphitheatre, rising to a height which by an eye estimate appears to be about 350 to 400 feet. From innumerable places in its mass, volumes of steam are poured forth and borne away to the leeward by the trade wind. The color of the pile is intensely black,

the crater within which we behold the ruddy gleams of boiling lava. From numerous points in the surrounding floor clouds of steam issue forth and melt away in the steady flow of the wind. The vapors issue most copiously from an area situated to the right of the central pile and in the southern portion of the amphitheatre. Desolation and horror reign supreme. The engirdling walls everywhere hedge it in. But upon their summits and upon the receding platform beyond are all the wealth and luxuriance of tropical vegetation heightening the contrast with the desolation below. . . .

"We descend to the floor of Kilauea, which is reached without difficulty. As soon as we reach the bottom we find ourselves upon brand-new pahoehoe of the most typical kind. We travel over rolling, smooth-surfaced bosses of rock without difficulty for a distance of about a mile and three-quarters, when we reach a rapidly ascending slope which rises a little more than a hundred feet. Gaining the summit we

find ourselves upon the brink of a pool of burning lava. This pool is about 480 feet long and a little over 300 feet in width. Its shape is reniform. It is surrounded by vertical walls fifteen to twenty feet in height. When we first reach it the probabilities are that the surface of the lake is coated over with black solidified crust, showing a ring of fire all around its edge. At numerous points at the edge of the crust jets of fire are seen spouting upwards, throwing up a spray of glowing lava-drops and emitting a dull simmering sound. The heat for the time being is not intense. Now and then a fountain breaks out in the middle of the lake and boils feebly for a few minutes. It then becomes quiet, but only to renew the operation at some other point. Gradually the spurting and fretting at the edges augments. A belch of lava is thrown up here and there to the height of five or six feet and falls back upon the crust. Presently, and near the edge, a cake of the crust cracks off, and one edge of it, bending downwards, descends beneath the lava, and the whole cake disappears, disclosing a naked surface of liquid fire. Again it coats over and turns black. This operation is repeated edgewise at some other part of the lake. Suddenly a network of cracks shoots through the entire crust. Piece after piece of it turns its edge downwards and sinks with a grand commotion, leaving the whole pool a single expanse of liquid lava."

Captain Dutton is the recognized expert of the United States Department of Geology in all matters relating to volcanoes. The above extract from his exceedingly able report on the volcanoes of these islands probably takes rank with the most authoritative utterances on that subject. It was not to be expected, however, that he should have an eye for anything save the strictly scientific features — although his reports give ample evidence of his discernment of the unique grandeur of the scene. But to the people of the Hawaiian Islands the volcano of Kilauea possessed another aspect — more significant to them than all scientific aspects can be. The Goddess Pele dwelt in the gigantic crater, and on her good or ill will hung the destinies of the islands and their denizens. This was not a mere legend; it was to them a living reality; and the fact that the Hawaiian islanders became Christians *en masse*, as it were, was largely owing to the fact that one of their principal women, Kapiolani, the wife of Nahi, and herself a conspicuous chief of the highest feminine rank, boldly went to the crater, determined to die or to prove that the Goddess Pele was but a phantom. With the introduction of



LAKE OF FIRE, KILAUEA



WOODLAWN PINEAPPLE RANCH, PEARL CITY

Christianity came the abolition of the fearful *tabu*, or the abominable restrictions put on all women of Hawaii and vigorously enforced by the priesthood. Christianity, therefore, represented emancipation to Hawaiian women. Kapiolani was one of the first to avail herself of this liberty, whereupon the whole priesthood threatened her with the vengeance of the Fire Goddess. She then decided to descend into the very heart of the great crater. "If," said she, on arriving at the rim of the crater, "I do not return, continue to worship Pele." Arriving at the bottom she called Pele and stirred the volcanic ashes. The natives expected the flaming goddess instantly to destroy the daring woman, but she returned unscathed, and all present then and there acknowledged the greatness of the God of Kapiolani, and the offerings to the Goddess of Fire ceased thenceforth.

Among the inevitable results of United States annexation will be a rapid increase in tourist travel to the islands. It is one of the most delightful of sea trips in the world, and lands the traveller in a spot full of the rarest enchantments. Probably no writer ever caught the charms and portrayed the attractions of this journey as

has Charles Warren Stoddard. His South Sea Island sketches are yet unexcelled, and we quote the following from them:

"In exactly seven days from the date of our departure from San Francisco we are to enter the harbor of Honolulu. For a couple of days we were reminded of the land we had left. An eager and nipping air blew over us, the troubled sea was a measureless waste of cold suds and blueing. Then came a gradual transition: sky and sea grew brighter and more exquisitely blue; we were hastening toward the calms of 'Cancer.' The temperate atmosphere (it is too often intemperate) in the temperate zone was already becoming semi-tropical. The great ports of the ship stood wide open to the balmy breeze. The decks were filled with loungers. From the social hall at twilight floated the half-melancholy refrain of a waltz. Light feet skimmed the deck, and between the floods of moonlight and the silver sea, the joyous coteries in the saloon (where a wilderness of electric lights glowed like loops of red gold and made summer sunshine bright as day), the minstrelsy, and the delicious languor that was beginning to possess us, the 'Mariposa' seemed like a floating casino drifting toward Paradise on an even keel.

"In the tropics at last! Such a flat, oily sea it was; so transparent that we saw great fish swimming about 'full fathom five' beneath us. A monstrous shark swam lazily past, his dorsal

fin glistening like polished steel, and now and again cutting the surface of the sea like a knife, his brace of pilot-fish darting hither and thither like little one-legged harlequins.

"The exquisite nautilus floated past us with its gauzy sail set, looking like a thin slice cut out of a soap bubble; the weird anemone laid its pale sensitive petals on the tips of the waves and panted in ecstasy. Down dropped the swarthy sun into his tent of cloud; the waves were of amber; the fervid sky was flushed; it seemed as if something splendid were about to happen up there in the heavens, and that the secret could be kept no longer. The purplest twilight followed, wherein the sky blossomed all over with the biggest, ripest, goldenest stars: such stars as hang like fruit in sun-fed orchards; such stars as lay a track of fire in the sea; such stars as rise and set over misty mountain tops and beyond low green capes like young moons—every one of them.

"On the morning of the seventh day an island rises like a small blue cloud out of the sea; then another and yet another; and toward the last we make our way. It is a transformation scene; the mountains turn gloriously green. Valleys, vistas in Eden, dawn upon the eye in quick succession. The sea rises in long voluptuous waves and fawns upon the reefs, while within the surf the tranquil water is like a tideless river, where only the water-lilies are lacking; but in their stead are troops of Hawaiian swimmers—veritable water-

nymphs, with a profusion of glossy locks floating about their shoulders like seaweed.

"Canoes dart out upon the water as if they were living things, part fish, part flesh, part fowl, with one skeleton wing for an outrigger, a fin paddle, and a bare, brown Kanaka amidships. Fish baptize themselves by immersion in space, and keep leaping into the air like momentary inches of chain lightning; there is the perpetual boom of the surf, the clang of joy-bells on shore, and a possible shower in the refreshing cloud that is stealing from the heights. 'Three cheers and a tiger,'—for the voyage has come to an end."

The debt we owe to the American Christian pioneers in the South Pacific islands can never be paid. With Hawaii, Guam, and the Philippines in our possession, with "ocean greyhounds" in our merchant service, we shall have almost a continuous bridge across the South Seas to the greatest and most legitimate markets of the Pacific-Asiatic shores of Dutch India, Siam, China, Corea, and Japan. A market of 500,000,000 people is available for our cotton, flour, oil, fruit, and manufactures. To a very large extent this result is made possible through our civilization becoming the dominating factor of the Hawaiian Islands.

OLAF ELLISON.

PALMY DAYS IN CUBA

DOÑA CAROLINA'S RECOLLECTIONS

THE island of Cuba long ago ceased to be El Dorado to the Spanish government, much as Spain may now mourn its loss. Its resources, however, are as rich as they ever were, and under an enterprising administration will probably yield large returns again; but oppression has always marked Spanish colonial systems, and within the memory of man the island has been saddled with a debt from which there was no hope of release, and which more than consumed the revenues. Officials constantly enriched themselves both legitimately and otherwise—chiefly otherwise—by the perquisites and "pickings" of the offices, which were, until recent reforms, held only by "old Spaniards," as those from the Peninsula were called.

Originally the revenue to Spain was derived from the price paid by traders for commercial privileges, but in 1717 tobacco became a government monopoly. This

caused the first lessening of the attachment of the colonists to the mother country. In 1777 Cuba was placed under a captain-general and a corps of Spanish officials, who always assumed a superiority to the Creoles (those born in the colonies), no matter what the latter's position, wealth, or education. This second blow produced a lasting distrust and dislike between Cubans and Peninsulars.

When the Spanish half of San Domingo was ceded to France in 1795, about 30,000 whites emigrated to Cuba and introduced there the cultivation of coffee, which soon became a staple of commerce. Chocolate and sugar had preceded this, as they in turn had superseded hides and beeswax. "That a plantation may produce two thousand boxes of sugar (worth in 1850 about \$48,000) it must have three hundred slaves," said Humboldt; hence it followed that slaves were a large part of the wealth of the island, all efforts and persuasions

from within and without toward their liberation being fruitless until 1887. Their final emancipation, however, produced no social disturbance, as gradual changes prepared the way for the new conditions.

The following reminiscences of life and conditions in Cuba (or more properly in Havana)—given to the writer by a dear old lady whose narratives of her girlhood there were like Arabian Nights' tales of wealth and marvel to us of a colder clime and milder customs—describe a period before final emancipation, and long before the days of horror that immediately preceded the overthrow of Spanish dominion in Cuba. Many of them were jotted down for me by their narrator, and on coming across the yellow pages recently I thought they might be of particular interest now that our soldiers and sailors are coming home with far different accounts of the present condition of the island.

"One of my earliest recollections," says Doña Carolina, who was born about the year 1830, "is of hiding in fright, with my little playmate Carlitos, under the table in our *sala*, when the procession of blacks, according to their tribes, passed by. This was on Kings' Day, January 6, when they were allowed to revive all the memories of their African homes and customs. These blacks were so horrible that they were called "*diablillos*." Half-naked, tattooed and painted, and jumping and skipping to the noise of drums and savage instruments, they paraded the streets to the terror of us children, and I think even the grown people must have felt some dread as well as curiosity at their appearance. As far as I can recall the different tribes, there were about seven.

"The *Lucumí* (one of whom was my nurse Merced), tattooed their arms and chests in fanciful patterns, and their faces with long marks running from the temples to the jaws. Merced was good and honest, but stubborn, sulky, and always threatening suicide,—so as to return to her native land, she said,—but her great love for me withheld her from it. Many of this tribe have hung themselves in that belief, however, though they were generally hard-working, honest, and faithful.

"The *Carabalí* had sharp-pointed teeth, artificially cut so,—as being prettier, they said; but I am afraid it was more from a secret instinct that ruled their nature, for they were very carnivorous, fond of cat-

flesh, and, by all accounts, of human flesh also. They had hasty tempers, but were mainly docile and kind. Their color was reddish black, and their faces were marked with thick welts or cords.

"The *Congos reales* were very black, well-formed, tall, and stately; their arms and chest were much tattooed, but their faces very little. They were honest, frank, and industrious, and each seemed to count a prince in his family, so that many were met with who realized their degradation keenly. Some queens were sold into slavery, and some died broken-hearted on the passage or on arrival.

"The *Congos Loangos* were blacker still, thick-set, short, and strong, and were generally employed among the wharves and shipping.

"The *Gangas* were the most humble, gentle, and affectionate, very fond of their masters, and of children particularly; they made good nurses on account of their even and jovial disposition, and could be trusted in all things.

"The *Mandigos Moros* were copper-black, with soft, silky hair, large eyes, and good features; they were tall and well-formed, but slender, and thought a great deal of themselves. On the day of the native dances they always wore their Moorish dress and sword.

"The *Arraraks* were much tattooed, very set in their ideas, and not easily reconciled to the life of slavery, on which account they were frequently in trouble. I remember most of these people as being good and faithful, but there were many treacherous ones, who were so perhaps not so much from evil instinct as from bad treatment on the plantations, adopted as a mistaken means of subordination.

"The tribal distinctions are now almost lost, but the Creole Africans have united in a sort of Masonic fraternity called *Nañigos*.

"In my young days the negroes gave two grand balls a year, on the Feasts of the Purísima Concepción and the Cinta de la Virgen, under the patronage of their masters, who took pride in having them as richly dressed as possible and always watched the scene from a gallery or platform. I have seen thousands of dollars worth of diamonds on the black 'ladies,' who were always introduced in the most ceremonious and aristocratic manner by the names of their mistresses. One mulatto girl, I remember, was dressed by a

marchioness, and she looked like a marchioness herself, with her long silken train and jewels. Nothing was ever lost, and their deportment was all that could be desired. We gave them money for gloves, silk stockings, and satin slippers. The men sometimes wore knee-breeches, silk stockings, and gold buckles. They invariably began with a stately minuet, and I never saw them made ridiculous by laughter or other improprieties. They were very attentive also to the white guests, and treated them to sweets and ices.

"We had Chinese coolie laborers in after days, but they never won the personal regard that we entertained for the blacks. Certainly their condition was even more pitiable, and they committed suicide by the score, for even the blacks would not condescend to them and were despised if they did. There was a song which began,—

'La negra que quiere á un Chino
No tiene ni amor propio,
Porque los Chinos fuman opio
Y adios, Merced!'

"In my childhood the African trade flourished; there was plenty of money and gambling was public. I remember seeing tables in the streets and squares, where passers-by stopped to look on or to take a chance. Wealth was so abundant that I knew many families who had a room expressly for storing bags of gold and silver, and have frequently seen the slaves unload and carry the bags into the house,—so many, in fact, that if there was not time to finish storing them they were set on the floor of the *zaguán* by the street door.

"But I think the public gambling must have led to avarice and thieving, as nobody was careful of his abundance, and at last it became dangerous to go out after dark and we no longer lived in tranquillity. Then followed murder, and a reign of terror which was put down by General Tacon; but Cuba has never been the same since then. Ease and luxury are things of the past, and the romance has faded away, but I remember, when I was twelve or fourteen, to have seen young men with long hair and a guitar, troubadour fashion, playing at some iron-barred window at dead of night, while the watchman, crying the hour, would add, 'Un jóven parado á

una ventana!'

* as he reported the state of the weather or any noticeable occurrence,—but he could be paid to keep silence!

"I say troubadour fashion, but I do not mean the fashion of some hundreds of years ago; rather the fashion of the beautiful play by Antonio Garcia Gutierrez, from which the Italian opera† is taken. Its fine lines were upon everybody's lips, and, besides, the romantic spirit of Victor Hugo was wafted to us from France along with the delicate fabrics made especially for West Indian wear, the like of which you seldom see in the north. How lovely the ladies used to look in their floating mulls, with bare head, neck, and arms, as they sat in their *volantes*, with the gaily dressed *calisero* on the horse, around the Plaza de Armas before the palace of the Captain-General, while the band played and the young men walked up and down swinging their canes, or stopped to talk with the beauties in one carriage or another which they called 'baskets of flowers.'

"The houses that I knew in my childhood have mostly been torn down or remodeled, but I lived first on the Plaza de San Francisco, near the church of that name, which has for many years been used as part of the custom-house, being near the wharves. From our balcony I could beckon to my favorite playmate, Carlitos, and hear his parrot, which I loved and thought so beautiful. Near by was also the church of *El Angel*,—very pretty nowadays, but not so much so when we were children. That was where we went to mass. Carlitos attended the school of San Carlos, attached to the cathedral, on San Ygnacio Street, opposite Tejadillo, where he lived later. He used to go to a riding-school kept by an American in a circus. Perhaps it was the one at the end of the Prado (afterward called the Teatro de Villanueva), where the first firing began in the revolution of 1868, when the Cubans gave a benefit ostensibly for some charity, but really for the purpose of making a demonstration of republican sentiments. A song called *El Negro Bueno* was to be sung, and at the words '*Viva la tierra que produce la caña*,' cheers were to follow—and they did, but so did the shots and shrieks. I was staying at the house of a sick friend near by.

*A negress who loves a Chinaman has no self-respect, for he smokes opium—and good-bye to you, Merced!—or, in other words, 'look out for trouble!'

**A young man stopping at a window.*

†Il Trovatore.*

and never shall I forget the noise and confusion.

"There was another song, a beautiful song, containing another objectionable line,—as every devout mention of Cuba was objectionable to the government. I do not know just when it was composed, or to what 4th of November it refers, but the year was probably about 1866, and the author Jacinto Valdes, of Santiago. It was first read or sung at a republican feast, and came to us, with much caution, through friends engaged in the conspiracy.

'EL CUATRO DE NOVIEMBRE. *

'Corre la brisa por sus risueños campos
De mi patria, feliz como las fuentes,
Cuando su linfa de cristal luciente
Desata sobre alfombra de verdor.
Lejos del fausto populoso y vano
De la vida social goza el poeta,
En sus delirios, ay! de su mente inquieta,
Ilusiones dulcissimas de amor.

'Aqui el surrio de las verdes palmas,
Y al murmurar de arroyos y cascadas,
Viven ocultas hechiceras hadas
Que revelan misterios del Señor.
Naturaleza de esplendor se viste
Y entre el follaje de la selva oscura
Un eco blando, ay! sin cesar murmura
Mi Cuba espera un porvenir de amor,
Sí, mi Cuba espera un porvenir de amor.

"I have seen more than one uprising in Havana, one of the most needless and disastrous being that called 'la Batalla de Punche-leche.'† The owner of the Tacon (the famous theatre named for Captain-General Tacon, which in its day has heard the greatest singers and actors of the world) wished to prevent the opening of a new café on the opposite side of the Plaza Isabel, and secretly obtained from the governor the privilege of paying for all the illuminations (on what occasion I do not know, except that it was Carnival time, 1848), on condition that no café except that attached to his theatre should remain open after

* Freely rendered:

'THE FOURTH OF NOVEMBER.

'Softly the breezes thro' the smiling valleys
Of my country run like happy fountains,
Whose limpid crystals, gliding down the mountains,
Are scattered o'er a carpet green and fair.
Far from the splendora, vain and sordid,
Of the social hurry, cherishes the poet
In his delirium, ay! in his mind unquiet,
Ilusions breathing the ecstasy of love.

'Here, 'mid the sighing of the verdant palm-trees,
And 'mid the murmur of streamlets and cascades,
Live hidden spirits, like sweet fairy maids,
Who are revealing the mysteries of the Lord.
Nature in splendor all her charms displayeth,
And amid all the foliage of the darkling forest
A gentle echo, ay! murmurs never ceasing,
My Cuba awaits a future day of peace and love.*

† The Battle of Milk Punch.

ten o'clock at night. The new café opened, however, with great *éclat*, and when ten o'clock struck no one was disposed to leave until the place was closed by the police at one. The second night the same thing occurred, although the proprietor, hat in hand, politely requested his customers to leave at the proper hour; but the people held possession with cheers and cries of 'Down with Pancho Marte!' The third and last night of Carnival they determined to keep the café open all night, which brought out the Captain-General, Leopoldo O'Donnell, in his carriage, and the dragoons and foot-guards, who, sword in hand, knocked down all the beautiful tents that filled the avenues (handsomer even than those at Sevilla in Holy Week), and collared the people who were making hot milk punch. These, as they ran from the soldiers and horses, often tripped over the boiling kettles and were scalded, so that there was much suffering and many deaths, even among the aristocracy, who sat there when not watching the maskers on the *paseo*. The proprietor of the café was fined two hundred ounces,* until O'Donnell—who was new to the island then—learned that it had never been the custom to close the cafés on Carnival nights, when he returned the money. He was very indignant at being deceived, and since then there have been no fine Carnivals. This is all I can remember about the affair, except that Purser Southall, of the American navy (considered at the time the handsomest man in Havana), had his right hand pierced with a lance.

"General O'Donnell was a handsome man also, fair, with blue eyes and many evidences of his Irish blood. It was he who rebuilt Morro Castle about 1840. It was a very different place when I was a child and used to go there and to La Cabaña a week to visit the daughters of the governor.

"Did you ever hear about the crabs that frightened the invaders at Havana as the geese on the Capitol at Rome frightened the barbarians? I knew an old black woman—they said she was a hundred and five years old when I was about fifteen—who used to tell us of the events of her young days and declared she could remember seeing the first stone of the Morro laid. She told us how the English attempted a landing by night at Cojima, just beyond, and when they heard the

* The ounce, or *onza*, was about \$17.

great crabs scuttling away over the rocks, they supposed it was the feet of the enemy and retreated! Crabs are yet seen sometimes creeping into the houses, and I have seen them in Cardenas and Matanzas when they made a noise like many people walking. The present Morro Castle is beautiful from the sea, and I have often loved to look upon it as the steamer was approaching, and the beautiful harbor and strange, many-colored city lay spread out beyond.

* Yo te amo, Cuba querida,
No hay otra patria para mí!
Fuistes en un tiempo un Paraíso,
Hoy, que han hecho de ti? **

With this original and pathetic little stanza, Doña Carolina's reminiscences come to a close. Let me only add that she sleeps now in the Spanish peninsula, far from that Paradise of her youth, but we who remain cherish the hope that for her *querida Cuba* there is dawning "a day of peace and love."

FANNY HALE GARDINER.

CHICAGO, ILL.

ON BOARD A MAN-OF-WAR*

THE recent memorable achievements of our navy under Rear-Admirals Dewey at Manila, and Sampson and Schley at Santiago, have made that branch of our national defences the centre of a world-wide admiration that is as grateful to us as it is surprising to those who are thus compelled—in some cases grudgingly—to yield it; for Uncle Sam is not always popular with all of his Old-World relations. These splendid victories, which resulted in the promotion of the three heroes to their present rank (with the additional glory in Admiral Dewey's case of a vote of thanks from Congress, thereby adding ten years to his term of active service—a fact not generally known), have added lustre to the brilliancy that already belongs to the history of our sailor boys through the deeds of Jones, Perry, Decatur, Lawrence, Farragut, and Porter, who, with a host of others, lead the world in dashing and impetuous exploits on the seas. Yet, in spite of the importance and value of our men-of-war, there is a surprising lack of

knowledge on the part of our citizens generally in regard to the life of their officers and men. Believing that a clear and comprehensive statement of facts illustrating this subject, shorn of technicalities, would prove of interest just now, especially if spiced with some narrative of naval experience, which, even in its dullest aspect, is inexpressibly attractive to most landsmen, the writer has prepared this article.

A modern man-of-war is a very different affair from that of even a few years ago, so rapid has been the growth and development of the navy, and it may be freely and positively stated that our so-called new navy, ship for ship and gun for gun, is, as far as it goes, the peer of anything that floats. Recent events conclusively bear out this statement, and in point of discipline, intelligence, training, and general fighting and sailing qualities, our ships have always ranked exceptionally high.

The evolution of the modern steel-clad battleship and cruiser, which is simply an enormous floating fortress, every detail of which, from the gigantic engines that propel the screws to the hoisting and dropping of the anchor, is now controlled by steam, has naturally enhanced our superiority, as America is essentially a nation of mechanics as well as of sailors, and no navy admittedly possesses as much intelligence and ability among its common sailors as that of the United States.

The personnel of a big ship like the "New York" or the "Brooklyn" consists

*For the details here given and much of the language, the writer is indebted to Mr. H. Webster, Chief Engineer, U.S.N., who within a short time will have completed a term of forty years' service, having been mustered into the navy under Farragut in 1862. Mr. Webster was on the monitor "Manhattan" at Mobile, in that memorable conflict when Farragut was lashed to the rigging of the flagship "Hartford," and directed the fleet past the storm of shell from the forts and directly over more than three hundred torpedoes, with the remarkable record of only one ship lost, the monitor "Tumseeh." That ship was but a boat's length ahead of the "Manhattan" when she foundered, and the latter was compelled to reverse her engines and veer off sharply to prevent striking her. He was also with Farragut at Port Hudson, in the battle in which Dewey first came into public notice. His experiences on the "Vandalia" (mentioned herein) were of a very different but infinitely more trying character, and are a striking example of the many dangers which beset our sailors in time of peace.

** I love thee, dear Cuba,
There is no other country for me!
Once thou wast a Paradise,
To-day what have they done to thee? *

of the line officers (or those in the line of promotion to the command of a ship), namely, the captain, executive officer, navigating officer, and four watch officers; and the staff officers, consisting of the surgeon and his assistants, the paymaster, and the chief engineer and his assistants. These are the commissioned officers; the rest of the crew is composed of warrant officers, able seamen, seamen, landsmen, and machinists, all being enlisted men. The duties of these various officers are clearly defined by the naval regulations.

The captain—whose word is absolute law—is, as his name indicates, the controlling force of every action, great or small, that occurs on board. Reports of the routine work of his crew of nearly six hundred men, passing through stated channels, must be made to him daily by the executive, navigating, and watch officers, the surgeon, the paymaster, and the chief engineer. To pass upon these reports, which show the condition of the ship and the efficiency of the crew, and to order changes where circumstances indicate their necessity, are among the most important duties of the captain, whose responsibility, thus in charge of millions of dollars worth of property and hundreds of human lives, is enormous.

Next in rank is the executive officer (or captain's aide), whose principal duty is to attend to the thousand and one details of the daily routine, and who is directly responsible for the discipline of the men, being in fact the chief of police of the ship.

Following the executive comes the navigating officer, whose name is self-explanatory, he being in entire control of the movements of the vessel after she is afloat. It is he who pricks her course upon the chart, and is responsible for her safety when away from her moorings. In addition to his duties as navigator this officer is usually designated as ordnance officer, and as such is responsible for the condition of every piece of cannon from the thirteen-inch monster down to the machine guns. As these must be kept in a state of absolute perfection, ready for use at any moment, it can be readily seen that the assignment is a most important one. None of these officers are required to be on duty at any specified time, but, like the surgeon, paymaster, and chief engineer, are subject to call at any moment when needed.

Then come the four watch officers, among whom is divided the duty of taking direct charge of the ship in watches of four hours each. These officers, who are selected from the lieutenants and ensigns, are the direct representatives of the captain while they are on duty, and as such are charged with responsibility for the ship's safety, within the lines indicated, during their watch. The lieutenants are advanced from the ensigns, and the latter are graduates from the naval academy at Annapolis.

Any line officer, from an ensign up, may become a captain, commodore, rear-admiral, vice-admiral, or admiral, as circumstances may warrant; but staff officers can get no higher than the position at the head of their respective departments, although their relative rank, and consequently their pay, are advanced along established lines until the Chief of Bureau is ranked with a commodore.* The petty officers—the boatswain, boatswain's mate, yeoman, gunner, gunner's mate, coxswain, etc.—are advanced from the enlisted men. The engineer's department is perhaps the most important of all on a modern warship, every movement of which, including those of its gear and armament, is now performed by steam. Thus, from the moment the signal to heave the anchor is given, and the windlass engines are set in motion, until the anchor again drops or the vessel is moored or fastened to her dock, the chief engineer is the practically responsible officer for the efficient working of the vessel. The assistant engineers, the machinists, the water-tenders (who keep the boilers properly supplied with water), the oilers, firemen, and coal-passers, form the large portion of the crew for whose faithful and skilful performance of duty the chief engineer is answerable.

The crew is divided into messes of sixteen men, each mess being provided with a cook. At sea each man is allowed a daily ration of thirty cents, be he coal-passer or captain, although the messes are allowed to purchase food for their own use provided the same is approved by the ship's doctor as suitable for the climate in

* Since this article was written the Navy Personnel Bill has passed both Houses of Congress. The bill provides for promotion by selection, raises the pay to correspond to that of the army, and practically amalgamates the line and engineer officers. Line officers must in future be trained engineers as well as expert gunners, navigators, and fighters.

which the ship is in service. The ward room, or officers' mess, is also provided with a cook, and the general arrangements are similar to those for the men.

In the officers' cabin the executive officer occupies the head of the table, with the line officers on his right hand and the staff officers on his left, each one occupying a place as near the head of the table as his rank entitles him. Thus, among the staff officers, the chief engineer occupies at the table the first seat on the port side of the ship, and a like rule governs the assignment of his stateroom. The positions of the staff officers, as regards the table and their staterooms, never change, while those of the line officers change according to their assignment on the ship. The paymaster's stateroom being fitted with a safe, which it would be utterly impossible to move during a voyage, renders this arrangement for the staff a necessity. These regulations may seem burdensome to one unacquainted with the details of the service, but long experience has demonstrated their usefulness in maintaining discipline.

In addition to her regular crew the flagship of each squadron carries a band, and in time of need its members have their duties to attend to, usually assisting the surgeon in taking care of the wounded.

All assignments of officers are made by the naval authorities at Washington, and each is selected with special reference to his capabilities for the work to be performed. Fitness, determined from the very complete reports on file with the Department, covering the entire term of service of every commissioned officer in the navy,—and fitness alone,—is the guide in determining these assignments, and in consequence every crew of officers may be said to consist of picked men only, every one of whom is capable of taking charge of a ship in any emergency and navigating her to port. It can readily be seen that these conditions contribute much to the efficiency of the service.

In time of peace every day has its routine of drill duties, including gunnery and target practice; all calculated to keep the men at the highest stage of proficiency. Our navy has introduced—and England, France, and Russia have copied—what we call sub-calibre gun practice, which is a very important departure from the old plan, as it enables our gunners to keep in perfect training without the enormous expense and damage attendant upon the

actual firing of the guns. The method is as follows: A musket-barrel is carefully fitted into a spider or frame, which in turn accurately fits the bore of the large gun, so that the centre of the musket-barrel is identical with the centre of the bore. Thus fitted, the gun is operated—breech-block, ammunition-hoists, and all—exactly as if to be fired with full service charges. The tables of elevations and wind interferences are reduced to correspond with the lesser bore and distance, so that a gunner who can make a bull's-eye at sub-calibre practice at one thousand yards could do equally well with the gun itself at ten thousand yards. The effective range of a gun being, roughly speaking, a mile for each inch of calibre, a two-inch gun is effective at two miles, a ten-inch gun at ten miles, etc. In action the heavy calibre guns can be fired once in about four or five minutes, those of medium calibre four or five times a minute, and the small ones much more frequently. The value of this sub-calibre practice is incalculable, and the results are plainly to be seen in the work done by Dewey's gunners at Manila, where the relentless storm of metal accurately poured in by our men swept the entire Spanish fleet out of existence before they recovered from the first surprise of the attack.

The flagship of a squadron is usually a vessel constructed for that purpose, and contains a separate cabin and staterooms for the admiral as well as for the captain, each of whom lives alone, except when in official contact with the crew, and, if he sees fit, dines alone, year in and year out. At the admiral's and at every captain's cabin door there is always stationed an orderly, usually a marine (a salt-water soldier), and everyone except the executive and navigating officers and the actual heads of departments, such as the chief engineer, must send in his name before being admitted. Notwithstanding this formality every man down to the humblest deck-scrubber has an inalienable right to see the captain and be heard at any time he desires it. However, nearly all the intercourse between the captain and his crew is held through the executive officer or the officer of the watch, the preservation of good discipline making this necessary.

When the vessel goes into action, however, all this is changed. Every man goes at once to his station, the captain to the

conning-tower or the bridge (according to recent usage), and the lieutenants and ensigns to their guns, and then the captain is in direct communication with every man of his crew. He signals to the helmsman, the gunners, the engineers, and every other part of the great machine directly and at once. Red tape goes by the board, and every short cut known to modern electrical science is put into full operation to save time, every moment of which may be freighted with marvellous opportunities for action. Boilers are put under forced draught; steam is raised and kept at the highest possible point, being exhausted into the ship's condensers when not used to propel her; every opening in her shell is tightly closed and secured; and the monster is ready, if need be, to spring at her prey like a tiger, or to stop, back, or turn around in an instant, as necessity requires, having tremendous power and reserve force in her boilers ready for use at a moment's notice. Then it is that the results of the weary weeks and months of drill become apparent; what has heretofore been a mere form becomes a stern reality, and everything moves as smoothly and evenly as clockwork. Every man knows his place and takes it quietly, with a full knowledge of his duties, and every possible emergency is provided for. If Number One at any gun is killed or wounded, Number Two takes his place, and, though shot and shell deal carnage on every hand, each man works as coolly as though he were at practice instead of in actual warfare. This adaptability is the result of native courage turned to the best account by perfect discipline and drill.

An excellent illustration of this may be given in the words of Mr. Webster, who thus describes his experience while chief engineer of the "*Vandalia*," which, with two other vessels and two German war-ships, was wrecked during the frightful hurricane at Apia, in the Samoan Islands, March 15-16, 1889.

"When the cyclone struck us we stood it fairly well for a time, but the force of the wind finally drove us upon a reef and we were soon helpless. The order to abandon ship—the saddest one that can ever come to a crew—was then given, and it was my duty to go below, order everyone to leave his post, and then follow them myself. The scene as I gained the boiler-room was beyond the power of words to describe: gauge-glasses were broken; steam and scalding water were flying everywhere; every few moments tons of water came into the

hold through the broken hatchways, enveloping everyone and flooding the ship to such an extent that our pumps could scarcely keep the engine-room free; the pounding of the vessel had broken the fire-doors, and every lurch spread hot coals among the men; the air was filled with noxious gases and vapors; the noise of the storm, of the escaping steam, and of the pounding of the ship's keel upon the reef, were deafening and terrifying to the last degree; but without a single exception every man was at his post and was performing his duties as collectedly as though riding at anchor in a smooth harbor.

"It was wonderful, but no better than any of our trained crews would do under similar circumstances. It did not take the men long to clear out when the order was given, and in less time than I can tell it, below decks was empty of men. I followed last, and as I went up the ladder to the deck I remember giving the safety valve a twist so that she would not explode when she went down. After several hours on deck, part of which we were under water, so frightful was the sea, some of us succeeded in reaching the '*Trepton*,' which had weathered the storm, and shortly afterwards the good ship '*Vandalia*' went to pieces on the rocks.

"Every man who stood at his post in spite of the dangers which he could not see as well as those he could both see and hear, you may rest assured, was mentioned in the despatches to Washington—an honor of no small degree among sailors."

History tells us much of the faithfulness of the Roman soldiers, especially of those at Pompeii, and they are no doubt worthy of the praise; but "Uncle Sam" can furnish thousands of men who would do and are doing just as much in emergencies to-day.

The recent memorable exploits of Admiral Dewey and his men will cause our navy to take front rank among the naval Powers, and it is sincerely to be hoped that Congress will take prompt steps to put the service on a proper footing with the Old-World nations. Admiral Dewey's work has demonstrated the superiority of American ships, American rapid-fire and heavy-calibre guns, American seamanship, and American marksmanship, and has inaugurated a system of new and effective tactics among ships of war,—that of concentrating the squadron's fire on each ship of the enemy in turn until all are riddled and fairly exterminated by the well-directed and frightful weight of metal modern guns can throw.

Even in times of peace the duties of naval officers are exacting and arduous to the last degree, and every man of the

ship's company has his regular allotment of work, which keeps him busy from early till late. Social life on board ship has many pleasant sides, especially if the captain, as is often the case, is inclined to be agreeable with his men; and the interesting sights seen in all parts of the globe compensate in a measure for the absence from home and other unpleasant features of the service.

An important component of the navy is the Marine Corps, or sea soldiers, as its members are called,—a force of several hundred men with a regular army organization, an assignment of which, under a suitable officer, is to be found on every warship. These men do sentry duty on board, and shore fighting when there is any to be done. One of them is always on duty at the captain's door; one at the scuttle-butt or water-tank; one at the ship's brig, or prison, when it contains an occupant; and one at the door of any officer who may be confined therein for the violation of some point of discipline.

There is frequently much feeling between the sailors and the marines, but the

latter occupy a very important place in our naval service, and are sure to be found on the side of law and order—something that has not always been true of "Jack."

History fails to record a single instance of a marine who has joined in mutiny or in any insubordination. The marines are a distinct organization of themselves, in and yet not of the ship, and all under a colonel-commandant at Washington. While some effort has been made to transfer the control of this force to the Navy Department, it has thus far come to naught. The marine is as old as the navy, and will unquestionably remain where he is,—a valued and indeed an invaluable adjunct to every man-of-war, large or small.

All Americans should be proud of their navy, for its history is an unending story of brilliant and conclusive victories, many of them marking the beginning of epochs of national greatness. Recent events are quite likely to prove no exception to this rule.

FRED H. COZZENS.

DETROIT, MICH.

THE GERMAN ARMY AND ITS ORGANIZATION—II*

THE constitution of the German Empire, adopted April 16, 1871, determines the command of the German forces, the arrangements, however, differing in peace and war. It is in the hands of the Emperor, the chiefs of the army inspections, and corps, division, brigade, and other commanders. Only in war alone is the Emperor's command complete over all the imperial forces. He represents the empire internationally, and is empowered to declare war, to conclude peace, and to enter into compacts and treaties with foreign states. Except in the case of actual or threatened invasion of German territory, the Emperor must obtain the consent of the Federal Council before declaring war. He has a general supervision of the army, determines the arrangement of the contingents into divisions, corps, etc., and the organization of the *landwehr*. He has the right to determine the location and strength of the garrisons within the German federal territory; to direct that any and every part of the German army shall

be placed on a war footing; to declare martial law in case the public safety be threatened; to appoint the commanders of fortresses; and to select officers from any contingent for military positions which he has to fill.

The immediate auxiliaries of the Emperor, who is the Commander-in-Chief, are the Minister of War and the Chief of Staff, each of whom has special duties. The former is charged with the organization of the army,—with the preparation of the instrument of war, so to speak. The Chief of Staff, during peace, devises the methods of employing that instrument to the best advantage in war. Properly speaking, the Minister of War exercises no right to the command of the army. He is responsible only for the uniformity of the organization, the observance of rules, etc.

In the military hierarchy, next to the Emperor, are the chiefs of the "army inspections." The country is divided into five "army inspections" and nineteen army corps districts, for purposes of command, recruitment, administration, and

*Continued from SELF CULTURE for March, 1899, Vol. IX, No. 1, p. 60.

inspection of troops. The Prussian Guard Corps is not thus included, being recruited from all Prussian territory and inspected by the Emperor in person. The "army inspectors" are really commanders of military districts, and the probable army commanders in case of war.

The First Army Inspection, with headquarters at Hanover, comprises the 1st, 2d, 9th, 10th, and 17th Army Corps; the Second, with headquarters at Dresden, embraces the 5th, 6th, and 12th; the Third, with headquarters at Berlin, comprises the 7th, 8th, 11th, and 13th; the Fourth, with headquarters in Munich, includes the 3d and 4th Army Corps as well as the 1st and 2d Bavarian Corps; and the Fifth, with headquarters at Karlsruhe, embraces the 14th, 15th, and 16th Corps.

The command of troops belongs to the officers of the army corps, who are the direct representatives of the Commander-in-Chief. The chief of the army corps is styled "the commanding general." His staff consists of three officers of the general staff, two officers of the "adjutantur," one officer on waiting orders, the military intendant, corps judge advocate, corps surgeon, corps chaplain, and corps veterinarian. The division commander is a lieutenant-general; the commander of a brigade is a major-general or colonel. A colonel, lieutenant-colonel, or major commands the regiment, while the battalion is under the control of the major in accordance with his instructions from the regimental commander. There are a number of special authorities, such as inspectors of cavalry, field artillery, and engineers, of pioneers, fortresses, and military telegraphy, of jäger and schützen battalions and of train depots; also the chief of the "gendarmérie."

As a matter of fact there is no such thing as an imperial German war ministry. Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, and Würtemberg have their own war ministries and their own administrations; the two latter, however, sharing in the Prussian war academy, etc.

Bavaria maintains a distinctive contingent of two army corps, having an independent administration under the King. The Bavarian troops have a different uniform from all other German soldiers; they have a separate general staff, war academy, military training, and educational establishments; but in formation, strenght,

and equipment they are identical with the rest of the Imperial corps.

The Prussian war ministry, located at Berlin, takes the initiative in matters of organization and administration, and in this way takes the place of an imperial war ministry; though it requires the concurrence of the Imperial Chancellor and the Committee of the Bundesrath for the Army and Fortresses in all matters involving the votes of the Bundesrath and Reichstag. Among the seven sections of the general war department are the so-called "technical section," which has to do with such matters as the technical establishments of the artillery; the administration of the experimental station for high explosives; the management of the relief funds for the sick; and the department of accident, invalid, and old-age insurance. The "technical section" directs the artillery shops at Spandau, Deutz, Danzig, and Strasburg; the artillery construction office at Spandau; the pyrotechnical laboratories at Spandau and Siegburg; the gun foundry at Spandau; the shell foundry at Siegburg; and the powder factories at Spandau and Hanau.

THE MILITARY HIERARCHY.

The same proofs of instruction and education are required from all aspirants to the rank of officer in the German army. These proofs established, the officers' corps is open to all classes of the nation. From this absolute uniformity of requirement arises the natural rule of advancement by seniority—from the beginning of each official career. When the Emperor judges an officer incapable of filling a position to which time has promoted him, the latter observes the usage of retiring from active service. The exceptions to this general rule are confined to a limited number of officers of quality, who, after passing through a school of war, enter the service as staff majors. For those of this class who reach seniority everything possible is done, either by personal advancement to the corps of staff officers, or by means of the roll,—a feasible medium between the service of staff major and the troop service, and by virtue of which it is not a departure from custom to replace officers in the troops and advance them to regimental titles. Any rank above that of major is not commonly procurable outside of the active service. Whether setting out from one of the



seven cadet schools, or admitted by a chief of corps as *avantager*, an aspirant to the rank of officer must submit to the sword-bearer's examination, and enter one of the nine regular war schools. After passing an officer's examination he re-enters the corps to which he belongs, and

follows that advancement in the German army is a very slow, if not a tedious, process, but, despite this fact, young men throng the schools of war, because, however modest may be an officer's rank, it gives him a high standing in the eyes of the nation. All officers are *cour-fahig*,

Wo ein deutscher Mann in seinem
Pflichterfüllung für sein Vaterland
fallen begraben liegt, und so der
deutsche Geist zum Sieg in nicht
unterliegen fort, das Land ist deutsch
und wird deutsch bleiben!

Wilhelm
F.R.

[FACSIMILE OF THE HANDWRITING OF EMPEROR WILHELM II.]

[Translation]

Wherever a German sleeps, dying after the faithful discharge of his duty to the Fatherland, and wherever the German eagle has sunk his talons into a land, that land is German and will remain German.

WILHELM, I. R.

remains there until he attains his seniority, serving meanwhile, perhaps, as a second lieutenant, providing there is a vacancy and he is accepted by his superiors.

All degrees of hierarchical rank may be conferred without the commission. Even on receipt of the latter the incumbent is simply "characterized," and he can count his seniority only from the date of his commission. On account of this system it

that is to say, included among the persons admitted by right to the court.

The German military body is divided into two great categories: (1) Those who have duties and rights incident to their position as soldiers, officers, etc.; (2) the military employees.

The high officers comprise the field marshal, the general of infantry, the general of cavalry, the lieutenant-general, and

the major-general. The superior officers comprise the lieutenant-colonel and the lieutenant-major. The captains are divided into two kinds, for payment only. The subaltern officers are the first and second lieutenants.

The subordinate officers form several classes, including those who have the right to wear the silver sword-knot (such as the chief pyrotechnists, sergeant-majors, vice-marshals, guards of fortification, field outriders, veterinaries, clarion and trumpet majors, etc.), also those not having the right to wear the sword-knot (the gendarmes, regimental and battalion drummers, kettle-drummers of the body-guards, trumpeters of infantry, clarions of the cavalry belonging to the paid corps, veterinary aides, farriers, etc.). Classed as first-class soldiers are the appointed aides and sub-aides of lazaret. The step to the second class is regarded as a degradation whose consequence is the irremediable loss of the right to wear any decoration. This second class includes the fusiliers and those appointed from the schools of under-officers, the drummers, nurses, litter-bearers, etc. While in certain circumstances the subordinate officers have the right to command, they have no disciplinary right.

In Germany the rank is often widely distinct from the employment. For instance, a lieutenant-colonel of infantry may command a regiment of cavalry. Moreover, it is upon the functions of rank, and not upon the title, that the disciplinary power depends,—a power given only to those officers in whom the responsibility of maintaining discipline is vested. The under-officers who have the right to command include the sergeants not wearing the sword-knot, the vice-sergeants, and the majors who do wear the sword-knot. Where equality of rank between two officers comes in conflict, the command always belongs to the older one. The sergeant-major is the direct superior of all other under-officers in his own battalion or regiment. The ensign sword-bearer comes before the oldest sergeant only, but he becomes the superior of the sergeant-major when he gains the right to wear the sabre or sword of an officer.

Each company, squadron, battalion, battery, and regiment has an under-officer—called captain of arms in the infantry, and quartermaster in the artillery

and cavalry—who is charged with the direction of the magazine. In each company an under-officer, chosen from the best sharpshooters, has surveillance of the armament. The quartermaster has general management of the barracks in so far as the quartering of the company is concerned. The working soldiers do not form a part of the effective force. They are chosen from the annual contingent of trade workers. They come to the corps before the arrival of recruits to assist in putting in order the magazines, etc. The service of orderly on horseback is performed by cavalry officers in a special uniform.

No limit of age is set for the resignation of officers, and many remain in the service until very much advanced in years. Others resign early and constitute a reserve force of officers subject to mobilization. As a rule, they have a right to resign after ten years' service; under-officers and soldiers, after eight years of active service; and those suffering from wounds or infirmities contracted in service are entitled to pensions. The regular military pensions are awarded to those still able to perform certain duties, but who are semi-invalids, and to those who are total invalids. These pensions are paid monthly; likewise to the widows and orphans. Moreover, a number of aid societies exist, whose object is to assist both the pensioned and old military men not pensioned.

The tribunals of honor are an institution which belongs alone to Germany. Their mission is to protect the honor of officers—taken individually or in corps. Sentences rendered by these tribunals condemn the unworthy officer and reinstate the unjustly accused. All active officers of the reserve, non-active officers, and those resigned, who have the right to wear uniforms, are answerable to these tribunals, which are established wherever one of the army corps is stationed. These tribunals are invested with the power of acquittal and remand, and are empowered to erase names from the army list with loss of brevet.

THE DISTINCTIVE MARKS OF RANK.

The generals wear a dark-blue coat, with buttons extending to the bottom of the skirt. The collar, facings, braid, and lining are of poppy red. The pantaloons are of dark grayish blue, ornamented with

a broad red stripe. The vest is black for infantry generals, and blue for those of the cavalry and artillery. The epaulets of the coat are trimmed with bullion formed of two gold threads and one of silver, streaked with silk. The infantry helmet is decorated with gilt and a silver star of the order of the Black Eagle. For generals of the artillery the point of the helmet is replaced by a ball. The coat and trousers of the Bavarian generals are of sky blue, the collar, facings, etc., of bright red. The Brunswick generals wear a black coat with a broad gold thread on the collar, and one, two, or three silver stars, according to rank.

The distinctive symbols of rank are placed on the epaulets: major-generals having no star; lieutenant-generals, one silver star; infantry and cavalry generals (with rank equivalent to that of commander of an army corps), two silver stars; general field marshal, two silver truncheons, crosswise. The officers of staff wear the dark-blue coat with crimson trimmings, the collar being ornamented with two silver galoons. The buttons and ornaments of the helmet are of silver. The epaulets are of the general pattern, and crimson bands adorn the trousers. A scarf crossed from right to left is worn, except by officers under the staff major. The officers in the service of the adjutant wear the uniform of their corps, with the scarf crossed. All the other officers wear the scarf attached to the belt. The colonels wear two gold stars as distinctive marks of rank; the lieutenant-colonels, one gold star; the majors, silver bullion without a star; the captains, shoulder-threads in silver interwoven with the national colors and two gold stars; the first lieutenants, the same insignia with one gold star; the second lieutenants, the same insignia with no star. The ensign sword-bearers wear a gold or silver galoon on the collar and facings of the coat, with the sword-knot and cockade of an officer, also the sabre of an officer, when they have successfully passed their examinations; sergeant-majors wear the same insignia as the sword-bearer, save that an heraldic button of large pattern on the collar replaces the galoon. In the reserve the distinctive marks of rank are like those of the field army, except that the reserve is distinguished by the cross worn on the head-piece.

MILITARY ORDERS.

Foreign orders can be accepted, and decorations worn, by the military, only by the Emperor's consent. A bureau attends to the examination of propositions made for German orders, and they are referred to imperial authority. The insignia of the granted orders are not the positive property of the recipients. In case of death the insignia of the Black Eagle and the Red Eagle—of the first class—must be remitted to the Emperor. The insignia of the other orders are returned to the commission after the holder's death. The commemorative medals must be deposited in the parochial church of the deceased, where they are preserved, with the name of the title-bearer. When a sentence has deprived a soldier of the right to wear a decoration or medal, the brevet and insignia must be returned to the commission.

The most distinguished order is that of the Black Eagle. Then come successively the Red Eagle, with its various degrees, — the orders of Hohenzollern; the Crown; the Merit; the Iron Cross; the war medals and crosses of the Danish war, of Düppel, Alsace, and the campaigns of 1866 and 1870-71; besides the cross for distinction of service given to officers of twenty-five years' service or more; orders of merit reserved for pursuing science or art; and lastly, medals of salvage. Individual distinctions are conferred by the Emperor by special order for deeds of bravery in the face of the enemy. Collective distinctions are also accorded to corps for particular valor. These are generally represented on the uniform.

THE RESERVE TROOPS.

A United States government report says in regard to the military forces of Germany:

"Calculating the *ersatz* reserve as 90,000 annually, and making the same deductions, twenty-five contingents will yield 1,700,000 men, part of whom have received slight training; and the men assigned to the first levy of the *landsturm* annually, also about 90,000, will likewise yield 1,700,000 men. The total number of men between twenty and forty-five years of age, available for national defence, would thus be 7,697,856, of whom 4,297,856 are thoroughly trained soldiers."

At the time of mobilization the reserve troops are thus arranged: Corresponding with each infantry regiment are two battalions of the *landwehr*, and, in addi-

tion, each corps has a section of the reserve force, which section forms one regiment of the *landwehr*, of which the officers remain at home in time of peace. A certain number of them, however, including some under-officers, are transferred into the active regiments, which, by way of compensation and the better to ensure cohesion, send the regiments of the *landwehr* their officers and under-officers. The result is a mixture of two lists of officers who during a campaign form but one, and in which each officer takes the rank to which his seniority entitles him. But as in peace the officers of the *landwehr* cannot rise above the grade of captain, the command of troops, the battalions and regiments, is entrusted to superior officers of the standing army. Thus are formed 300 battalions, divided into regiments, and constituting 18 detachments of infantry, with a brigade, besides 83 battalions for garrison defence.

Each battalion, comprising from 20 to 30 companies, is attached to divisions of the *landwehr*.

The cavalry forms 34 regiments of reserve. The artillery includes 75 mounted batteries, 39 columns of its own, and 10 companies of reserve, and the train provides for the wants of the reserve service and recruited men. The supplementary service is organized on the same principle. The militia (*landsturm*) has the same kind of organization, the same armament and equipment, as the standing army, from which it is distinguished by the white cross of the *landwehr* in the ornamented headgear. The army in garrison is therefore formed according to its needs, with resources to supply officers and men expeditiously.

Details of the organization of the regular army will be given in the concluding paper next month.

LEON MEAD.

BINGHAMTON, N. Y.

BREAD, MEAT, AND POPULATION

IN THE September issue of SELF CULTURE* it was shown that improved industrial and economic conditions, as affecting the mass of the population of the United States, were largely due to enhanced returns for the labor and capital employed in agriculture. Agriculture continues to be the most important of the nation's industries, although any improvement in the manufacturing industry attracts vastly more attention and comment, notwithstanding the fact that in 1890 agriculture employed 8,300,000 labor units as compared with 5,100,000 in all mechanical and manufacturing vocations.

While exports of agricultural products are larger in volume than in recent years, and much of the increase in the aggregate export value thereof is measurably due to this cause, yet the prices received for such products, compared with those received prior to 1897, have been still more potent factors in swelling the aggregate from \$636,000,000 in the eleven months ending with November, 1897, to \$750,000,000 for the corresponding months of 1898. It is true that wheat brought a higher price in the autumn of 1897 than in the autumn of 1898, but prices for other food staples have

ranged higher in 1898 than in 1897. This is notably true respecting meats, which contribute so largely to farm revenues. Wheat, being the principal object of gambling operations on the produce exchanges, is kept constantly before the public, yet the aggregate value of the great crop of 1898, officially considered to be the greatest ever garnered, is placed by the Department of Agriculture at barely \$393,000,000, while the value of the cattle, sheep, and swine slaughtered in 1898 certainly exceeded \$600,000,000, and probably reached \$750,000,000 when leaving the farmer's hands. That is, farm revenue from live-stock, including horses and mules, is twice that derived from wheat. It is in great measure because of advances in prices for animals and animal products that the farmer's revenue has largely increased, and his power to buy of the products of others has been so greatly enhanced.

As indicating the changes in the farmer's condition by reason of the advance in the value of the meat-producing animals, it is only necessary to state that the 45,000,000 of cattle upon the farms and ranches in 1898 were worth \$125,000,000 more than the 54,000,000 owned by farmers and ranchmen in 1892. Reducing the number of cattle a sixth increased their

* "Prosperity, Present and Future," Vol. VIII, No. 1, pp. 11-17 (1898).

value a seventh, while relieving the grower of the great expense and labor involved in breeding, feeding, and housing twenty per cent of his herds, that is, animals that not only reduced his capital and revenue, but withheld from other uses lands which might be employed with profit. Moreover, this depletion of the herds, which the orthodox economist will denominate a loss of wealth, has liberated more than 10,000,000 acres of hay lands, thus enabling the farmer to add 10,000,000 acres since 1894 to the wheat-bearing lands of the United States, and thereby increased the wheat area by thirty per cent and added the entire net product of such added acres to the exportable surplus. By this means the balance of trade is swollen in a manner that should be most gratifying to Americans. But such increase of the wheat area does not result in any increase whatever of the world's food-bearing area, but simply registers a change in crop-distribution that adds nothing to the sum of food available. In 1892 we were producing too much wheat as well as too much meat, and during the following years the price of wheat fell to the lowest level known since the year 1600, while the prices received for cattle and other animals were often less than the cost of production. Now, however, population has so increased and the number of the meat-producing animals has so diminished that the unit supply of meat available by the slaughter of what may be termed the normal consumable proportion of the herds is but two thirds of that available seven years ago. Under such conditions there will probably be a very material further advance in the price of meats that will not only enhance the prosperity of growers, but in some measure that of those who will grumble greatly because this increasing prosperity involves increasing expenditures on their part.

While the value of the products of agriculture exported during eleven months of 1898 was \$114,000,000 greater than the value of such products exported in the corresponding months of 1897, the increase in the value of manufactures exported in the same months was but \$23,000,000, or nine per cent as against the increase of eighteen per cent in the value of agricultural products. Still this increase of nine per cent should be especially gratifying as an assurance that we shall soon become, if we are not already, a creditor

instead of a debtor nation. When our population shall require nearly or quite all the products of the farm except cotton, the ratios of export values will be reversed in favor of manufactures. That such conditions will obtain in a not very remote future is indicated by the fact that of the acres added to the cultivated area since 1889 only 2,200,000 have been added to the areas under the primary food staples, and but for the liberation of immense areas of hay-, maize-, and oats-producing lands, as a direct result of a reduction of nearly one fifth in the number of farm animals, we should have been forced to make large drafts upon lands employed in growing wheat for export instead of adding 10,000,000 acres since 1894 to the lands devoted to that purpose, every acre of which is likely to revert to its former use when the herds shall be increased sufficiently to meet the requirements of the 1,400,000 units yearly added to the population, and supply the animal products and services demanded by existing units.

Anomalous as the statement may appear, it is a fact that the meat supply has been deficient for several years, and has only been made to appear sufficient by the annual slaughter of great numbers of breeding animals. In other words, while normal requirements demand a stock of cattle equalling 72 animals per 100 population units, and a stock of swine equal to at least 65 per 100, the existing stocks are equivalent to but 58 cattle and 51 swine per 100, the defect being in the ratio of one fifth of normal needs. This defect must, if possible, be remedied while meeting the requirements of a population increasing by more than two per cent per annum. To do this necessitates increasing the supplies of hay and maize; and material increase in this direction requires the gradual restoration to meadows and maize fields of the acres recently diverted to the production of wheat for export. Since 1892 we have not only consumed all the increase of the herds of meat-producing animals, then numbering nearly a fifth more than now, but we have eaten nearly one fifth of the required foundation stock. How are we to supply a sixth more people with meats from herds depleted one fifth? What prices do these conditions imply? They certainly imply a sharp demand for all the staple products of the soil, advancing prices, and great and continuous prosper-

ity for the agricultural population, with material enhancement of its power to purchase of the products of manufacture.

While the world, thanks to the fields of North America, has probably grown in 1898-99 the greatest crop of wheat ever harvested, as one result of the depletion of American herds and the devotion of an otherwise impossible 10,000,000 acres to wheat production, yet we must not lose sight of the fact that, while the year's harvest probably exceeds the great world crop of 1894 by some 50,000,000 bushels, requirements have increased by more than 100,000,000 bushels, and that the product of the harvest of 1898-99 was drawn upon a month earlier than usual in order to eke out defective supplies from the harvest of 1897-98. That is, while the world harvest of 1898-99 appears to be some 50,000,000 bushels greater than the greatest preceding one, yet it is defective by reason of a great increase in requirements since 1894, as well as by the fact that it must meet the needs of thirteen instead of twelve months.

Basing an estimate of requirements for the 1898-99 harvest year upon the known increase of population and the consumption of recent years as indicated by estimates, mostly official, of production in such years, the "bread-eating" populations of European lineage inhabiting Europe, the United States, Canada, Australasia, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, South Africa, Siberia, and the whites of the island and tropical colonies of Europe, will need some 2,360,000,000 bushels of wheat plus the 160,000,000 or more bushels required to cover the thirteenth month. Accepting the highest reputable estimate of the out-turn of the 1898-99 harvest in the regions named, and adding 40,000,000 bushels for possible imports from southern Asia and north Africa, the available supply aggregates 2,380,000,000 bushels. Granting that these estimates are approximately correct, it will be necessary to make anticipatory drafts upon the harvest of 1899 for about 140,000,000 bushels, showing that even with the largest out-turns the accumulation of reserves to tide over such defective harvests as that of 1897 is no longer possible, the power to make such accumulations having disappeared in the absence of acreage increases proportioned to the increase of the consuming populations.

The annual additions to the populations of European lineage now aggregate about a half more than at the beginning of the

eighth decade, and are increasing in a ratio hitherto unknown. This is wholly contrary to the general belief. Computations from national censuses show that, while the population of the regions previously named increased, as a whole, 12.4 per cent between 1870 and 1880, the increase equalled 13.4 per cent between 1880 and 1890. Such censuses as have been taken since 1891 indicate a still higher rate of increase in the tenth decade. This marked enhancement of the rate of population increase is doubtless largely if not wholly due to improvements in the economic and political conditions of the mass of national populations other than in Russia. These improved relations have been accompanied by beneficial changes in sanitary conditions as well as in national dietaries. This is notably true in relation to Austria-Hungary, where the population increased but 5.3 per cent between 1870 and 1880, yet increased 9.2 per cent between 1880 and 1890. Also, contrary to the general belief, this change in economic relations, resulting in most cases from improved political conditions, has been accompanied by a great—we might say an enormous—change in unit consumption of wheat among the bread-eating populations as a whole. That is, since the eighth decade the requirements for wheat of the bread-eating populations, as a whole, have increased 180,000,000 bushels per annum, in addition to the increase resulting from an increase of numbers. Only in Scandinavia has the increase of unit consumption of wheat exceeded that obtaining in Austria-Hungary, although there are few European countries, except Russia and Italy, that do not show a material increase in this direction.

Tabulating the wheat officially reported as grown in, exported from, and imported into Austria-Hungary year by year, and by decades from 1871 to 1896 inclusive, it is found that, exclusive of required seed, the supply of wheat available for consumption equalled 2.2 bushels per annum for each unit of the population from 1871 to 1890, 3.4 bushels from 1881 to 1890, and no less than 4.1 bushels from 1891 to 1896 inclusive, the annual unit supply in the last-named period being 86.9 per cent greater than in the eighth decade? It should be remembered that this nearly doubling of the unit's quota was coincident with an increase of 21.5 per cent

in the population, and a proportionate increase of the wheat consumed, resulting directly from an increase of the number of consumers, and wholly independent, we may say, of the increase of the average unit's ration. That is, requirements increased 21.5 per cent because of an increase of population, and 86.9 per cent by reason of an improvement in economic conditions. This better feeding of the population accounts for the fact that Austria-Hungary has ceased to be an exporter of wheat, and become an importer, despite the fact that between 1871 and 1896 the area under wheat increased 49 per cent, or nearly two and a third times as fast as did consumers of wheat!

While in Austria-Hungary there has been a decline in the consumption of such minor bread-making grains as spelt, maslin, and buckwheat, as there has throughout Europe, yet the volume of the unit's ration has increased greatly if we include the grains mostly used in feeding live-stock, as appears in the following table:

UNIT SUPPLY OF GRAINS AND POTATOES.

PRODUCTS CONSUMED	1871-80 BUSHELS	1881-90 BUSHELS	1891-96 BUSHELS	INCREASE OR DECREASE PER CENT
Wheat.....	2.18	3.39	4.10	86.9+
Rye.....	2.40	2.77	2.66	11.0+
Spelt, buckwheat, etc.....	0.48	0.46	0.37	24.2-
Barley.....	1.69	1.92	2.03	19.6+
Oats.....	2.77	3.27	3.59	29.6+
Maize.....	2.53	3.22	3.65	44.1+
Potatoes.....	6.92	9.41	9.62	39.0+
Totals.....	18.97	24.44	26.02	38.5+

Each population unit appears to have had some 38.5 per cent more of the primary food staples in the third than in the first period tabulated; and while a large part of the added barley, oats, and maize was doubtless consumed by animals, and especially by a stock of swine increasing nearly three times as fast as population, yet the unit's ration of the bread-making grains proper (wheat, rye, spelt, maslin, and buckwheat) increased from 5.06 to 7.13 bushels, or by 40.5 per cent. Only areas under wheat, maize, and potatoes increased as rapidly as population, and neither the acres under wheat nor those under maize increased as rapidly as did either unit or national consumption; hence the change from an exporting to an importing nation. An increase of popula-

tion is not unlikely to produce similar results in the United States at no very remote day.

All Western Europe has shared with Austria-Hungary, in greater or less degree, in changes wrought by improved economic conditions, although in the more backward countries the change has been far less radical; but neither Belgium, Holland, nor Germany has lagged very far in the rear, and in each of these countries, as well as in Denmark and Sweden-Norway, there has been a material increase of unit consumption of wheat, accompanied by a decline in the consumption of the minor bread-making grains.

In Germany, as is not unusual after the waging of a victorious war, population increased more rapidly in the ten years immediately following the Franco-German war than between 1880 and 1890. Germans increased 10.2 per cent in the eighth decade, and but 9.3 per cent in the ninth. The quinquennial census taken in 1895 shows, however, a rate of increase exceeding that of the eighth decade by one eighth, and that of the ninth by nearly a fourth. This, too, is contrary to the generally accepted belief that the rate of population increase is rapidly declining in Europe, and especially with the larger populations; doubtless because the decline in the rate in France has been so much exploited by the daily press. With the exception of France, and possibly Turkey and two lesser peoples, European populations are increasing more rapidly than ever (or they did in the ninth decade), while such censuses as have recently been taken indicate a rate of increase materially greater than that giving an increase of 10.5 per cent between 1880 and 1890 as against 9.2 per cent in the preceding decade. Wherever, among the bread-eating populations of Caucasian race, the rate of increase has declined, as in the United States, Canada, Australasia, and Argentina, the declines result from a decrease in the proportion (not necessarily in numbers), added by immigration, and are far from indicating declines either in local fecundity or in the bread-eating force as a whole, but may accompany an increase of the rate at which the populations affected augment by births.

Remembering that the population of Germany has since 1871 increased as never before, as respects both annual aggregate additions and rate of increase, we shall

the better appreciate the significance of a material increase of the German unit's annual supply of the great food staples as shown in the following table, the quantities named being those available by the average population unit exclusive of required seed:

UNIT SUPPLY OF GRAINS AND POTATOES.

PRODUCTS CONSUMED	1872-80 BUSHELS	1881-90 BUSHELS	1891-96 BUSHELS	INCREASE OR DECREASE PER CENT
Wheat.....	1.90	2.04	2.55	34.1+
Rye.....	4.85	4.51	4.81	1.0-
Spelt and buckwheat.....	0.45	0.43	0.36	20.0-
Barley.....	1.88	2.31	2.65	40.7+
Oats.....	5.70	5.85	5.98	4.9+
Maize.....	0.12	0.20	0.46	385.0+
Potatoes.....	15.12	16.49	18.05	19.4+
Totals.....	30.02	31.83	34.86	16.1+

An increase of one sixth in the unit supply of the great primary food staples as affecting the third largest of the bread-eating populations is most significant, as it has the effect of enormously increasing its dependence upon exterior sources of supply, and increasing the proportion of both grains and meats imported. Despite what might be termed the frantic efforts of the agrarian party, imports of food stuffs have multiplied wonderfully, as is apparent from the following table, where average annual net imports are shown for three periods, it being understood that wheat and rye include the net imports of wheaten and rye flour in equivalent weights of grain:

AVERAGE ANNUAL NET IMPORTS OF GRAIN INTO GERMANY.

PRODUCTS IMPORTED	1872-80 NET IMPORTS BUSHELS	1881-90 NET IMPORTS BUSHELS	1891-96 NET IMPORTS BUSHELS	INCREASE OR DECREASE BUSHELS	PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE
Wheat.....	3,500,000	15,500,000	36,900,000	33,400,000+	953.3+
Rye.....	30,300,000	28,600,000	28,200,000	2,100,000-	6.9-
Buckwheat.....	200,000	1,000,000	1,200,000	1,000,000+	500.0+
Barley.....	5,700,000	18,500,000	39,000,000	33,300,000+	584.2+
Oats.....	11,700,000	14,500,000	17,000,000	5,300,000+	45.3+
Maize.....	5,100,000	9,400,000	23,700,000	18,600,000+	364.7+
Totals.....	56,500,000	87,500,000	146,000,000	89,500,000+	158.4+

German imports of grain increased from an annual average of 56,500,000 bushels in the eighth decade to one of 146,000,000 bushels in the six years ending with 1896,

the increase equalling 158.4 per cent. This, however, does not indicate the extent of the increase, or the accelerating rate by which imports multiply. Additions to Germany's cultivable area have practically ceased; and, the population increasing at a higher rate than ever before, all increase of requirements must be met by importation. The result is that imports of grain reached 202,000,000 bushels in 1896 and were much larger for 1898. In 1896 net imports of wheat alone exceeded 52,000,000 bushels, being second only to those of Great Britain; and, the population increasing much more rapidly than that of Britain, imports must augment at a proportionate rate.

Possibly the most interesting feature of German imports of grain for Americans is an increase of 364 per cent in those of maize since the eighth decade, those of 1896 exceeding 32,000,000 bushels. Yet it is more than questionable if the consumption of maize as human food can be credited with one tenth of one per cent of this stupendous increase. Fortunately for American farmers and all Americans, it is such a difficult matter radically to change national dietaries as respects the food constituents that the "maize propaganda," so called, has been unable to induce Europeans to substitute in their bread ration a bushel of maize, that brings the American farmer but 25 cents, for a bushel of American wheat, which brings 60 cents or more and employs twice as much land as does the bushel of maize. Owing, however, to a rapidly increasing demand throughout Central and Western Europe for feeding-stuffs, and

the related fact that areas devoted to the feeding-grains in Europe as a whole have ceased to expand, all increase of requirements for such stuffs must be met by imports from other continents. In this trade our only competitor of any importance whatever is the La Plata region, and that is far from being

a formidable one. Until recent years Western Europe has depended very largely upon Russia and the Balkan States to supply the needed feeding grains; but

population and requirements increasing in the eastern part of the continent much more rapidly than cultivated acres, we are called upon to supply rapidly increasing quantities, although the demand slackened after 1892 by reason of the harvesting of three exceptionally large crops of oats and feeding-barley by Russia. Russian and Balkan crops of oats and barley having been but average ones since 1895, Europe has made great demands upon American stocks, and the depletion of our herds has enabled us to export, in the two years ending with June, 1898, more than 510,000,000 bushels of maize, oats, and feeding-barley as against but 381,000,000 in the preceding four years when Russian crops were such as to meet the most of this great demand. In Europe, as in this country, the growing opulence of a material fraction of the population has resulted in a great increase in the number of town-kept horses, and, pasturage being unavailable for much increase of the meat supply by an increase of the herds of cattle, the demand for meat is met in part by great increases in the herds of swine. Animals of this class increase much more rapidly than population, additions to the number of horses and swine increasing the demand for feeding-grains more rapidly than increase either population or the consumption and demand for the bread-making grains. These facts show the futility if not the fatuous character of the maize propaganda, and that officials would be more usefully employed in making known actual conditions.

In Austria-Hungary swine increased 61 per cent between 1871 and 1896, as against a population increase of 21.5 per cent. In Denmark the increase was 101 per cent, while population increased but 26.4 per cent. The swine of Germany increased 71 per cent, as against a population increase of 20.7 per cent, between 1873 and 1892. Between 1871 and 1895 the swine of Holland increased 108 per cent, and the population but 32 per cent. Even belated Spain shows an increase of swine five times as great as the increase of population, while in France a population increase of 6.7 per cent between 1873 and 1896 was accompanied by an increase of 11.2 per cent in the herds of French swine.

The increase of the town-kept horses of Europe, of which, however, we have no

means of measuring the ratio, and an immense increase of European herds of swine, with a material increase of herds of cattle even if below the increase of population, account for an enormous increase in the requirements for feeding-stuffs and that increase of our exports of the feeding-grains which so puzzles our statesmen, who seem to have no conception of underlying causes, but believe they can augment such exports by sending politicians to the Paris exposition equipped with a few cooking utensils, two or three sacks of corn-meal, and formulas for compounding the delicious hoe-cake.

This increasing European demand for feeding-stuffs, which can only be fully met by gradually restoring to maize and oats production the acres recently diverted to wheat, will aid in enhancing prices for all staple food products, and may even affect that for cotton by rendering it possible profitably to employ part of the cotton lands in growing grain.

Probably there has been little or no decrease in unit consumption of meat in Central and Western Europe during the last twenty-five years, although there has been a marked decrease in the domestic supply relatively to population. If the ration has been maintained in former volume, however, it has been done by importation from other continents, and most of the needs of additions to the population of Europe must hereafter be met in that way. Should our supply of meats prove as defective in the immediate future as it now promises to be, with a consequent decrease in exports, the European meat ration can be maintained at its present level only by still further increasing European stocks of swine, and this implies rapidly increasing demands for American maize in primary form.

Of European countries only France, Denmark, and Sweden-Norway are able to show that cattle have, since 1871, increased at a rate equalling the rate of population increase, while in Russia, since 1877, there has been an absolute decrease in numbers, which emphasizes a marked decline in the nation's dietary, shown also by a decline of more than an eighth in the bread ration. With the possible exception of Turkey, which furnishes no data in relation to either the production or importation of food staples, there is not a single country in Europe, other than Russia, that does not show an improvement

in the condition of the mass of the population, as respects food, since 1871.

Since 1884 the wheat area of the regions inhabited by the bread-eating population of European blood has expanded from 154,000,000 to 170,000,000 acres; but this has been accomplished only by reducing the areas under such bread-making grains as rye, spelt, maslin, and buckwheat by more than 10,000,000 acres, and by a reduction, since 1890, of more than 10,000,000 acres in the hay lands of the United States. That is, an increase of 16,000,000 acres in the wheat-bearing lands has been effected only by reducing areas under other primary food staples by 20,000,000 acres! In other words, not an acre has, since 1884, been added to the world's aggregate bread-bearing lands except such as results from temporary conversions of acres that must revert to former uses whenever American herds of meat-producing animals shall have been so increased as to bear a normal relation to population and requirements. This con-

dition obtains despite such additions to the bread-bearing areas as have been made, since 1884, in Argentina, Uruguay, Australasia, and Manitoba,—all of which aggregate less than the 10,000,000 acres diverted from the meadows of the United States by reason of the reduction in American herds of meat-producing animals.

With the world's bread-bearing area largely defective; America's supply of meat twenty per cent below the normal; Europe increasing its demands enormously for supplies of both the bread-making and feeding grains; and only such additions to the cultivable area of the United States practicable as will meet the demands of additions to our population for the minor products and the cotton required at home and abroad,—every condition exists for rapid and material advances in prices for all food products, and such continuously increasing prosperity for the American farmer as will enable him to buy most liberally of the products of others.

C. WOOD DAVIS.

PROTONE, KAN.

THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS

THE blizzard that swept over the country on the 12th and 13th of February was no respecter of persons or organizations. Three important assemblies—the Woman's National Press Association, the National Council of Women, and the National Congress of Mothers—were to meet in Washington that week, and all found conditions equally baffling. The first session of the National Congress of Mothers was postponed from the 14th to the 16th, to permit the streets to become passable, and snowbound delegates and speakers to arrive. By Thursday morning about sixty delegates out of the two hundred expected had reported to the secretary, but some of the officers were still detained in the suburbs. The crowds of Washingtonians that usually throng the Mothers' Congress were doomed to disappointment. Before noon "the rains descended," and by night traffic was checked and the streets were as impassable from ice and water as they had been from snow on the previous Monday. In spite of these adverse conditions a fair audience was in attendance both morning and afternoon. At night the undaunted officers gathered

the delegates and committees in the parlors of "The Cairo" for one of the most enjoyable sessions of the Congress.

Perhaps the few who are persevering get nearer to the heart of a movement under these conditions than when a curious but enthusiastic throng is pressing for admittance. The mothers had called together acknowledged experts on all subjects pertaining to the physical, intellectual, and moral well-being of the child. In the presence of these devoted mothers, educators, and reverent students of child life, who can fail to remember that "He called a little child unto Him and set him in the midst of them"? We wonder if the thinkers of the future, as they look back upon our great achievements, may not regard the recognition of the child's personality in literature, science, and sociology as the crowning glory of this century of progress.

The president, in the "Address of Welcome," reminded the audience that the 17th of February was the second birthday of the Mothers' Congress. On that day, the year before, at the invitation of Mrs. Phoebe Hearst and of the president, Mrs.

Theodore Birney, mothers and educators who believed with them that "in the home lies the only solution of the problems which confront the world to-day" came together to organize this national movement. Mrs. Birney then said:

"National evils require national remedies. I claim, without hesitancy, that the greatest evil to-day is the incompetency, the ignorance of parents, and it is because of this evil that others exist. Most sin is the result of ignorance in one guise or another. . . . When character-building begins in the cradle and is given the greatest prominence in all educational work, then will principle rather than policy dominate the lives of men and women, and truth and justice—twin attributes of character—will sit enthroned in human consciousness. Then will cease the wild, mad worship of Mammon, for mere wealth will not be accepted as a substitute for that which is above all price—a noble manhood or womanhood. The question will not be 'What has he?' but 'What is he?'"

The programme of Thursday may be taken as typical. Mrs. Mary E. Green, M.D., followed the president with a thoughtful address on some of the needs in the education of mothers. She spoke of the importance of women knowing all about home hygiene and the preparation of foods. She thought daughters ought to be trained in domestic science, and believed that modern women, members of numerous clubs, are familiar with about every art except the art of living. Many women take a lively interest in the cleaning of the streets of cities, while the sinks at their homes are neglected. In the opinion of the speaker the duties of a wife and mother constituted a profession, and there should be a proper education and training before entering upon the life work.

Dr. Green was followed by Mr. Horace Fletcher, author of "That Lost Waif," who spoke on the children of the slums. He said that the effort to improve social conditions ought to begin in the lower ranks, in the slums, and especially with the children. He urged the delegates, on their returning to their homes, to seek to create a sentiment in favor of educating and caring for the children of the city. In this way such a revolution would be wrought that in the course of a few years no child would be neglected or allowed to grow up in ignorance.

Dr. G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., read a scholarly paper on the results of investigations into

the development of children in the period of adolescence. This was received with an eagerness and attention that goes far to prove that the mothers are determined to have the best expert knowledge at their command.

The papers of the afternoon were by L. Emmett Holt, M.D., of New York ("The Physical Care of Children"), and by Hasting H. Hart, of Chicago ("Heredity versus Environment"), each followed by an able discussion.

The first address in the evening session, on "The Supreme Peril of Modern Civilization," by Dr. Josiah Strong, author of "Our Country" and president of the "League for Social Service" of New York, was profound, and startling in its revelations. Dr. Strong believes that the supreme peril of our age is materialism. He said in substance:

"The movement of population toward the city is a permanent one. Our great cities have shown themselves incapable of self-government. At present these great centres of population are restrained by the State legislatures. But in twenty years these cities will outvote the rural districts and control the States. Here, mothers, is your opportunity; you have time to raise up a new generation that shall be capable of self-government. There is time, if we will use it, to change the character of the submerged population who are a menace to our civilization."

Dr. W. H. Tolman, secretary of the "League for Social Service," followed with an illustrated talk,—"Industry Idealized, or Studies in a Labor Institute." He spoke first of some studies in social and industrial betterment in the Old World. The first illustrations were of the works of Cadbury Brothers, at Birmingham, England. One of the most striking was a scene of the noon hour, when the women and girls were resting on the grass in a beautiful park. Of his experiment Mr. Richard Cadbury says: "We find that nothing pays us better than looking after the comfort of our employees, and certainly nothing gives so much zest to life as to see so many happy about us." The social experiment of the Peterson Brothers, at Dayton, Ohio, was the most interesting to Americans. Here a business firm that had never been successful while following the usual factory methods determined to raise the character of their employees by the recognition of their individual humanity. The

first steps were educational,—schools for salesmen and mechanics; primers of instruction; prizes for best suggestions; superintendents chosen from among the men and serving one month. Improvement in the physical comfort of the employees went hand in hand with industrial training until these factories became the most remarkable revelation in our country of what can be done in the social betterment of the industrial classes. The home was not forgotten. The kindergarten, with a department of domestic economy, was early introduced, and its work seems so important to the employers that the announcement has been made that after the year 1915 no applications for employment will be considered from anyone who has not had a kindergarten or industrial training.

At the close of the lecture Mr. Horace Fletcher spoke briefly of his observations at Dayton. He emphasized the point that an unprofitable business had become one of the most successful under this plan. "These men have proved that the unit of labor is the potential energy of a happy thought." He predicted that the report of this experiment at Dayton would, "like the shot fired at Concord by the 'embattled farmers,' be 'heard round the world,' and with as great results."

The second day was devoted to the kindergarten and other educational discussions. Delegates reported on Saturday, and several important papers were read. That of Mrs. Hermann H. Birney on "Literature for Children" was especially helpful, and should be discussed in every mothers' club.

Fortunately the influence of the Congress is not dependent upon large audiences or upon the days of the session. Each delegate carries knowledge and inspiration to hundreds. "Mothers' Clubs"

are formed; kindergartens are established; hearts are quickened to the child's need of better training; hands are stretched out toward the poor and ignorant mother and the homeless little ones—"the have-to-do-bads"—of our great city slums.

The National Office of the Mothers' Congress is a bureau of exchange, through which book-lists, subjects for club study, and especially useful papers may be circulated, thus bringing scattered clubs in closer touch and developing a sense of kinship, besides being an immense saving of time and labor by preventing clubs from undertaking work which has been well done before, and by which they are free to profit.

Like every other movement of its class, the Congress of Mothers comes in for its share of ridicule. A delegate whose fifteen years of married life and devotion to scientific child-study had not dimmed the roses in her cheeks was told by a gentleman, on her journey to Washington, that he understood that no mother of children was allowed to address the Congress. She promptly replied: "I am the mother of three children, the eldest being fourteen years of age, and I expect to take part in the proceedings." This same mother, when asked to be chairman of a certain committee, gave this reason for declining: "I have a little boy at home, who, if I train him properly, will do more good in the world than I ever can." The reply of this conscientious mother will explain one reason why the Congress has called to its aid all women who are interested in children and their education. As a rule these mothers realize the prior claims of their own children, and are seeking expert knowledge for themselves as well as to help others. "The harvest truly is plentiful, but the laborers are few."

E. A. V.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

THE FRANCO-SIAMESE DIFFICULTY

THIS question appears in the newspapers every now and then with more or less regularity. The facts are represented by a few brief and unsatisfactory telegrams, the original sources of which are generally unknown. The weekly papers, as a rule, dismiss the question by an editorial notice neatly balanced on the fence,

to decide the position of which would require the services of an expert boundary commission. Occasionally a lengthy article or letter appears, purporting to be a statement of the facts of the situation. These either emanate from Paris or, with rare exceptions, can be traced to a French source. The object of this article is to

endeavor to present a "statement of facts" from the under-man's point of view.*

During the past two months accounts of another unfortunate collision have been published. It is reported that Siamese troops fired upon a French official. The affair occurred at a place called Ken Tao. Editorial comments show a deplorable lack of knowledge of the real difficulties between France and Siam. This seems to be due to confusing two separate documents, viz., the Franco-Siamese Treaty, dated October 3, 1893, and the Anglo-French Convention, dated January 15, 1896. For a proper appreciation of the difficulty it is necessary to know the exact provisions of the treaty and the convention that bear particularly

France of all Siamese territory on the left bank of the Mekong River and of all the islands in the river. It also provides that within a radius of twenty-five kilometres on the right bank of the Mekong, and in the provinces of Battambang and Siam-reap, no armed force, regular or irregular, and no fortified post or military establishment, shall be maintained by the Siamese. The police must be carried on according to custom, by the local authorities only, with the contingents strictly necessary. Attached to the treaty is the declaration that the French troops would occupy Chantaboon "until the complete evacuation and pacification" of both the left bank and the zone indicated above. When Prince Devawongse asked for an explana-



CIVILIZED SIAM: NATIVE TELEGRAPH FORCE

upon the question. Let it be remembered that the treaty represents an ultimatum accepted by Siam under threat of bombardment.

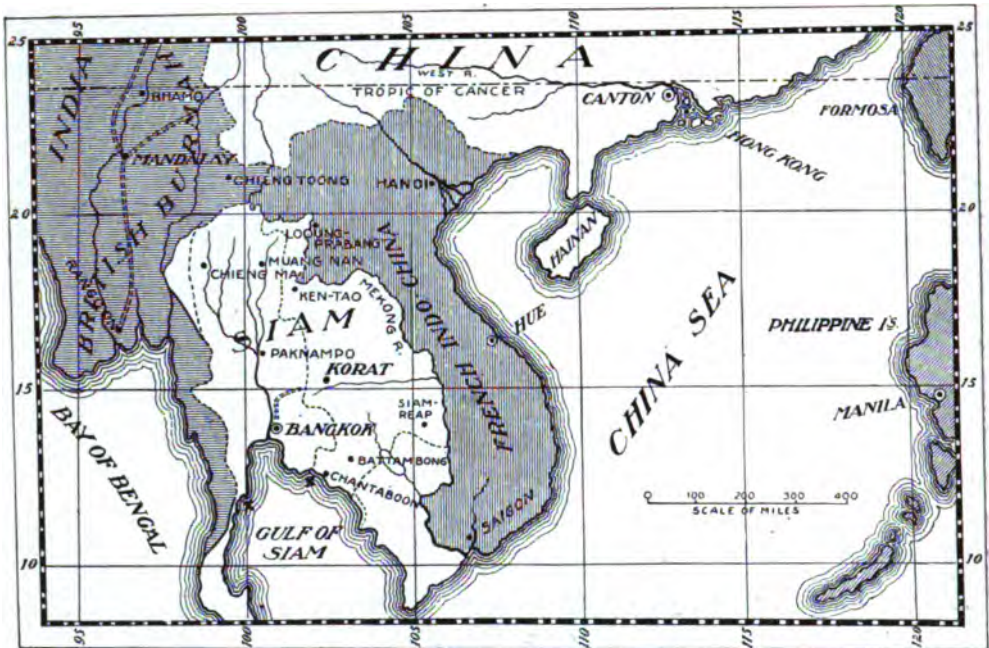
The treaty provides for the cession to

*During eight years' residence in Siam, from 1890 to 1898, the writer has had an opportunity to study the situation there from as nearly as possible an unprejudiced standpoint. France deserves our recognition of her evident desire to improve the material condition of the people in her Indo-China colony of Annam. In this she ought to have the sympathy of all right-minded people. Her policy of the "closed door," which she carries out in every department, seems to many of us fatal to her colonial success. Be that as it may, the question of the Franco-Siamese difficulty ought to be decided in the balance of strict justice.

The writer is a missionary. The position taken by all missionaries in Siam is one of strict neutrality and non-interference with political questions. It has, however, seemed that a definite setting forth of the essential facts is but a matter of common duty, and the writer is glad of the opportunity of dealing with the matter.

tion of "pacification," the French plenipotentiary replied that "the French government had made this reservation in view of the troubles or rebellion which might be fomented by the Siamese." The Prince then expressed his fear that "under these circumstances a motive may always be found for declaring that the pacification is not accomplished and that the Siamese are fomenting trouble."

The British government has been faithful in endeavoring to persuade France to cancel those provisions in the Franco-Siamese treaty which refer to the twenty-five kilometre zone, it being evident to any rational man that the condition forced upon Siam is an impossible situation. A distant and extensive section of country was to be pacified, but the responsible



Railroads thus == The dotted line from X to X (on the Gulf of Siam) indicates the boundary of that part of Siam guaranteed by the Anglo-French Convention.

government in Bangkok was and is allowed no control whatever over the "local authorities." The events of the past five years prove that the words of H. R. H. Devawongse, quoted above, were a veritable prophecy. Numerous are the circumstances which have offered motives for declaring that the "Siamese are fomenting trouble." The "local authorities" have no police force. The government of Siam has been prevented from supplying police, on the ground that they were "armed forces."

On January 15, 1896, the English and French governments engaged "that neither of them will, without the consent of the other, in any case, or under any pretext, advance their armed forces into" a certain area, the boundaries of which are given on the accompanying map. Foreseeing and wishing to forestall misunderstanding and misrepresentation of the Anglo-French Convention, Lord Salisbury gave an official explanation. He said: "We recognize the full right of Siam to the full and undisturbed enjoyment, according to long usage, of the entire territory comprised within her dominions. Nothing in our present action would detract in any degree from the validity of the rights of the King of Siam to those portions of his territory which are

not affected by the new agreement. We have selected a particular area because it is an area which affects our interests as a commercial nation." Notwithstanding the clear wording of the convention and the official explanation of Lord Salisbury, some of the latest American atlases have the kingdom of Siam cut down to that "particular area."

It is an open secret among the foreign population of Siam that France has been unceasing in her attempts apparently to drive Siam to desperation. The French officials, with good intentions from their point of view, and in many cases with benefit to the people, have carried on a system of securing Siamese subjects, labelling them French *protégés*, and providing them with French registration papers. If these *protégés* were drafted solely from the ranks of the slave population it would not be an unmixed evil; but humanity does not seem to figure largely in the distribution of these documents. The people who receive them (at a nominal price) occasionally look upon them as licenses to break the laws of the land and defy the Siamese authorities. This condition of affairs is not confined to the twenty-five kilometre zone, but obtains throughout a large part of the kingdom of Siam. In some parts of the zone,

where a few years ago there were apparent peace and prosperity, to-day there is a pitiable spectacle of ruin. Whole towns are practically deserted, and the general appearance of this long ribbon of territory suggests "No Man's Land" as an appropriate name for it. Under present conditions it certainly must offer a safe shelter for thieves and dacoits, border fugitives, and criminals of varied complexion.

France has an appetite for the earth. She is not content with one third of Siam and a peace offering from England of all the British Shan States to the east of the Mekong. For some time she has been endeavoring to force Siam into recognizing as French territory a small but valuable district in the northern part of the Muang Nan Province near the Mekong. According to the Franco-Siamese treaty this district is clearly Siamese territory; but the French claim it on the ground that this section at one time was under the "local government" at Looung Prabang, which city is included in the territory ceded to France. What would become of the boundary between the United States and Canada under similar conditions?

The late trouble at Ken Tao is evidently only one of a series of attempts on the part of the French to force the Siamese into retaliation, and thus give France her golden opportunity. Ken Tao is not within the twenty-five kilometre zone. The French, not the Siamese, are evidently the

fomenters of trouble. There is no necessity to eulogize the government of Siam, which, with all of its civilized paint, exists in a large measure for silly show, and in the not-long-ago lived by farming out the very life-blood of the peasantry of the country. It is also true that the government of Siam, in common with other Eastern governments, has a genius for instability and incompetence. Nevertheless there has been a very decided improvement during the past few years. Its patience and wisdom in dealing with France since 1893 certainly deserves recording. On the other hand, we have the very disagreeable fact before us that a so-called Christian republic is deliberately sacrificing its honor and breaking its solemn treaty by a determined attempt to strangle into subjection a small helpless kingdom called, as if by the irony of fate, "the Country of the Free."

In the meantime the Anglo-Saxon watchdogs pretend to be asleep. The British government, however, is evidently keeping Siam on her list of differences with France. British interests—and, let us say, the interests of the United States, which are increasing every year—demand that Siam shall have fair play. Siam is struggling against the firmly established customs of past centuries. The king and many of his generation are making a brave fight, with somewhat deformed ideals, let us confess,—endeavoring with commendable success to better the condition of their country and people. The



GROUP OF KAH MOOHS, A MOUNTAIN TRIBE IN INDO-CHINA



THE AMERICAN MINISTER TO SIAM ON AN ELEPHANT

internal difficulties are certainly sufficient, without those unwillingly imported from Paris. Those who deal leniently with the pranks of the Siamese government are the false friends of Siam. The United States, by her firmness and judicial impartiality, so successfully carried out by Minister John Barrett in two serious instances, has won the admiration and respect of Siamese and Europeans alike.

The interests of common humanity, of commerce, and of Christian civilization ask fair dealing for Siam, and that the first opportunity be used to accomplish the emancipation of Siam's vast population of slaves, so that the "land of brooks of water, of fountains and depths that spring out of the valleys and hills," may be in fact, as it is in name, "the Country of the Free." NAN CHAILUNGKA.

MARY E. WILKINS AND HER NOVELS

IT is now two centuries since the witty Dean of St. Patrick's, Jonathan Swift, wrote his famous satire, "The Battle of the Books," and the dust and tumult of that mighty war of words subsided long ago. The din of another literary conflict falls on the modern ear. For the champions of realism and romanticism are fully as valorous in attack upon the heights of Parnassus, and as watchful in defence of their claims to its storied pinnacles, as were their forerunners, "the Ancients and the Moderns." If there is not so much dust in the air to blind the eyes of the combatants as in the historic conflict, that is only because the lovers of

romance do not permit dust to collect upon their beloved volumes. The pity of it is that no modern Swift has arisen to immortalize this new "Battle of Opinions." There have been realists, to be sure, since the days of "Euripides, the human." Chaucer, Shakespeare, Defoe, Fielding, and Jane Austen, all knew the secret of painting life as they saw it. But the theory of realism and its claim to supersede romance belongs to our own self-conscious era. The modern realist differs from the early masters of his art in working from a conscious theory and in his analytical method. Jane Austen's art was as instinctive and unconscious of literary

theory as the purism of Fra Angelico. With the exception of Chaucer and Shakespeare, these earlier writers concerned themselves chiefly with manners and customs. They paint character vividly, but from the outside. The close study of character in its local environment, and the analytical method of presenting it, are the natural product of our scientific age.

The work of Mary E. Wilkins is the most striking example of instinctive, unconscious realism since Jane Austen. In a little country town far away from this new "Battle of the Books," this demure New England maiden watched the people around her with keenness and insight. While still in her girlhood she began to describe the characters that interested her, in a fresh childlike manner all her own. These clear-cut pictures are drawn with a vividness and truth seldom surpassed by masters of the art. It seemed that a new wild flower had sprung from the soil to perplex the literary botanists. Her first "grown-up" tale was a prize story. The next, "Two Old Lovers," she sent to "Harper's Bazaar." Her contributions to this and to "Harper's Monthly" were the wonder and delight of the critics, who at once hailed her as a realist. In these early stories—"An Honest Soul," "A Souvenir," "A Far-Away Melody"—there is a directness and simplicity and an absence of literosity that reminds the reader of some of the pen pictures of Turgeneff. "A Symphony in Lavender" was admired by a Frenchwoman who translated it into her own tongue.

The critics are wont to congratulate George W. Cable and James Lane Allen upon the felicity of a field unturned by the "literary plough." Miss Wilkins had

no such good fortune. She is content to be a gleaner after the early New England poets and novelists. It matters little to her that the romantic stories of New England have all been told, for she is more interested in character than in adventure. It is her compensation that she grew up in a small village uninvaded by the modern spirit, where the simpler mode of existence which the poet is fain to think of as the better way of living still prevailed. This helped her to realize the primitive life and character of New England before



MARY E. WILKINS

what was quaint and picturesque and characteristic in the old life had wholly disappeared. She may have listened to that "old chimney-corner English" now almost extinct. In such primitive, unconventional society character tends to

develop with peculiar strength and originality. New England may not compare in romance and brilliancy of coloring with French Louisiana, but there is a core of character, a way of thinking, and a freshness of expression that is peculiar to the soil. Like the Yorkshire moors that left their mark upon the characters of Laurence Sterne and Charlotte and Emily Brontë, its rugged hills and rocky fields were favorable to the growth of eccentricity. Here the Puritan character, always stern and retrospective, flows, like the streams of New England, in deep and narrow channels. It is the charm of Miss Wilkins that she draws the veil from the reserve of the New England character and reveals the soul beneath the commonplace exterior as well as the outer shell. She shows the compensations of these narrow lives and the heroism of their poverty.

She does not transfer the material of everyday life, as observed by her, to her stories. These tales come to her as "a series of pictures that flow from fancy's own inward suggestion." Because of their genuine human reality these sketches have humor and that sympathetic touch which makes her pictures of life seem like Millet's paintings. Her two volumes of tales, "A Humble Romance," 1887, and "A New England Nun," 1892, assured Miss Wilkins a place among the acknowledged masters of the short story. The latter contains some of her choicest work. In "A Gala Dress" and "Calla Lilies and Hannah" there is a pathos all the more genuine for its homely flavor and moderation. "The Scent of the Roses" has a poetic delicacy and charm that lingers in the memory like the imperishable perfume of a Damascus rose. These elderly lovers, prim maiden ladies, and garrulous housewives soon take their places among our literary acquaintances,—beside Peggotty and Betsy Trotwood, Miss Mehetable and Mrs. Katy Scudder.

It is perhaps too much to expect so gifted a writer to go on painting these simple and fascinating sketches. It is only natural that she should wish to write a novel. But it is doubtful if the novels will ever be as great favorites as the short stories.

"Jane Field" appeared as a serial in "Harper's Monthly" for 1892. This is a study of the New England conscience under rather abnormal conditions. The char-

acters are sketched with the same precision and unconventional manner that makes her short stories so attractive, but the looseness of structure detracts from the sense of unity.

In "Pembroke" (1894) the writer yields to her tendency to select eccentric, unusual characters. That trait of Puritan temperament which the Scotch call "dour," the capacity for dogged, passionless endurance, is the leading *motif*. The characters are drawn with a vigor and intensity unequalled in her earlier work. It is difficult to believe that any New England village can produce so many obstinate men and broken women all closely associated. The effect of the hardness of heart, and dumb, useless suffering, is to throw a benumbing influence over the reader. There is something uncanny about it.

In her next novel, "Madelon," Miss Wilkins relies upon a family of French Canadians, who, unlike most of their people, have been assimilated into the village life, for most of the passion and romance usually wanting in New England character. The result is a thrilling tale, full of intense life, but lacking something of the sense of reality which we usually feel in her work.

The historical drama, "Giles Corey," published in "Harper's Monthly" during 1892, is a distinct success in quite another line. Although a realist, Miss Wilkins does not shun the historical. It is the sombre, isolated lives of the early New Englanders that attract her. Sometimes she finds them surviving in a retired village. Again she pictures them as they were in the past. She enters with peculiar insight into that early period when Indians lurked in the forest and witches disturbed the peace of the colonies. One of her later stories, "A Little Maid at the Door," is a vivid and touching picture, drawn with rare tenderness and grace, of the psychological effect of that strange witchcraft delusion. "Giles Corey" is a powerful portrayal of the history of that unhappy time. The folly and fanaticism which swept over the colony and bereft people of all judgment is vividly realized. The innocence of the victims, the petty spite and irresponsibility of the bewitched girls, the credulity and superstition of the magistrates,—in short, the cause and effect of the whole tragedy,—are dramatically presented. The appeal of Martha Corey at

the trial, so in keeping with the rustic character of the woman as the first scene showed in her home, is a marvel of dignity and pathos. She saves her daughter and goes to her own death with a noble patience worthy of a Christian martyr. Giles Corey himself illustrates the stoical side of Puritan character. Seeing the madness that prevailed, he refused to plead, and suffered, without opening his lips, the fearful penalty of being crushed to death by heavy weights. Because the episode is too painful to give any real pleasure, this drama will probably never have the popularity it deserves.

"Jerome"—Miss Wilkins's latest novel—is a distinct advance in art. For the first time she has availed herself of that distinguishing trait of the modern novel, the "growth idea." She appeals to the perennial interest in childhood by making her hero a lad of twelve, and introducing two little girls whose development is a vital part of the story. In this novel nature plays a more prominent part than in the earlier books. The effect of the bleak New England climate, of the rocky hill-sides and barren soil, upon the character and circumstances of the people, is more apparent. The mellowing influence of Nature's milder aspects is felt by the more receptive souls.

The story opens in the springtime, when Jerome is planting his garden. The little hero's sensitiveness to the subtle influence and beauty of the awakening spring endears him to the reader from the first and makes his hardships all the more touching. "As Jerome spaded, the smell of the fresh earth came up in his face. Now and then a gust of cold wind, sweet with unseen blossoms, smote him powerfully. A bird flashed past him with a blue dazzle of wings. The boy gazed at it, leaning on his spade. Jerome always looked hard out of all his little open windows of life, and saw every precious thing, outside his daily grind of hard, toilsome childhood, which came within his sight."

Later in his struggle with poverty he learned that roots and herbs had a money value, and had to make his old pleasure haunts in woods and swamps a source of gain. "The sense was upon him—a shamed and helpless one—of selling his birthright. Jerome had in the natural beauty of the earth a budding delight which was a mystery and a holiness in itself. It was

the first love of his boyish heart; he had taken the green woods and fields for his sweetheart, and must now put her to only sordid uses—to her degradation and his."

The squire had a peculiar regard for trees. "He loved a tree past its usefulness as faithfully as he loved an animal. He had the roots of the old trees carefully dug about and tended, though not a dead limb lopped. . . . A great struggling rose vine grew over the hood of the door, and its young leaves were pricking through the leaves of the latticework; it was old and needed trimming; there were many long barren shoots of last year. However, Squire Merritt guarded jealously the freedom of the rose and would not have it meddled with."

But these nature touches soften the sharp lines of a story full to the brim of struggling life. The mysterious disappearance of the father, and the consequent battle for existence that closed around the little family, the invalid mother, Jerome, and his young sister Emily, "spurred the poor lad out of his boyhood into manhood to meet the new demand." The mother, Ann Edwards, with her unbending pride of independence and dogged disregard of suffering, is a character such as Miss Wilkins delights to depict. There is less, perhaps, of stoical reserve and more of passionate feeling in this nervous invalid than in others of this class. "There was a scorn of fate itself in the toss of that little head, with its black-lace cap and false front; and her speech also was a harangue, reproachful and defiant, against fate, not against her earthly creditor,—that she would have disdained."

The village life is fairly represented, and, as in most of Miss Wilkins's books, the sombre side predominates. Yet the effect is not so depressing as in "Pembroke," because of the greater variety of characters. The genial squire and his family, the lawyer, the retired colonel, are a grateful relief to the narrow lives of the poorer people with their mortgaged farms. The generous-hearted squire—a "rare fool" in business matters—is a pleasing foil to the country doctor, whose bills for medical attendance had eaten up most of the farms in the neighborhood. He restores our confidence in human nature. His sister, Miss Camilla, is one of the most fascinating of those middle-aged gentlewomen whom Miss Wilkins paints so exquisitely.

We can see her sitting in the arbor in that dear old-fashioned garden with its rows of box, writing leisurely upon her tablets. The graduated flounces of faded lilac silk, the shawl of soft white lace draping her shoulders and shading her face with its soft mesh, made her look like "the bride of some old spring." "She was old as a poem or angel might be, with the lovely meaning of her still uppermost and most evident. Her delicately spare cheeks were softly pink, with that elderly bloom which lacks the warm dazzle of youth, yet has its own late beauty. Her eyes were blue and clear as a child's, and as full of innocent dreams—only of the past instead of the future. When she smiled it was with the grace and fine dignity of ineffable ladyhood, and yet with the soft ignorance, though none of the abandon, of childhood."

Near her aunt sat little Lucina. She had set up her doll in a corner of the arbor and was knitting her stent. Four great yellow cats of famous breed came one by one and coiled themselves for sleep on the sunny side of the arbor. The soft tints and precision of outline make a picture such as Watteau might have painted, but the faces have more character.

But the chief interest of the story centres in the humbler folk, whose proud independence is not crushed by their sorrows and grinding poverty, whose aspirations are never measured by their hopes. These people had never heard of Henry George or the single tax, but "the problem of the soil of the old earth" was upon them. Ozias Lamb, the shoemaker, was a primitive socialist, though he may never have heard the word. He realized that "the world was buttoned up wrong"—just one button out of the way. It was his harangue against the rich that led Jerome to exclaim that if he ever had a large sum of money he would give it all to the poor. For in Jerome the spirit of intense pride and independence went hand in hand with the burning sense of the wrongs of the needy.

In order to show the effect of the hero's generous spirit upon the doctor and the miser, the richest and most grasping men in the town, the author, though a realist, does not hesitate to call in the aid of romance. The generous hearted old

soldier, Colonel Lampson, is made to act the part of fairy-godfather in this little village. He leaves Jerome a legacy of twenty-five thousand dollars, believing that he will keep his word and divide it among the poor of the town. In this way "the poor young man" has the opportunity that seldom comes in life of carrying out the best impulse of his youth, and even surpassing his boyish dreams in generosity. The distribution of the legacy leaves Jerome still poor and as far as ever from the prize he had been striving to win, the hand of Lucina, the squire's daughter. Finally he is led to sacrifice his pride and take her without waiting for his fortune to equal hers. We are not so sure of his complete happiness as the writer seems to be; for Lucina, a beautiful and attractive child, seems never to have grown up. She is the same tender-hearted gentle creature, incapable of apprehending the complexity of life. Most of the characters in the book are thoroughly alive, but she is vague and shadowy.

Happily Miss Wilkins still writes short stories. Her latest volume, "Silence," contains some of her most fascinating work. There is the same soft odor of roses and lavender that cling to our earlier favorites. Nature draws nearer both to heal and to stimulate. She has lost little in freshness and originality, and gained much in mastery of her art. In her latest story, "The Love of Parson Lord," we feel a deeply sympathetic touch too often lacking in her earlier sketches.

Delightful as are Miss Wilkins's stories and novels, they should not be taken as representing New England rural life as a whole. Her pictures are true of isolated cases, but the eccentric and peculiar has too great a charm for her. The warped abnormal people of Pembroke do not fairly represent New England character. The hard-fisted doctor in "Jerome," we are happy to think, was an exception in his profession. Many a New England village can boast of a physician as heroic and self-sacrificing as Ian Maclaren's Doctor McClure, a humorist as mellow and light-hearted as Tammas. The reader who wishes to understand New England should supplement Miss Wilkins with Hawthorne, Mrs. Stowe, Rose Terry Cooke, and Sarah Orne Jewett.

ELLEN A. VINTON.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT IMPERILLED

"GREAT captains, with their guns and drums,
Disturb our judgment for the hour,
But at last silence comes."

—Lowell.

THE silence has come in which but the echoes of the guns and drums of our great captains remain. The time has arrived which calls for the exercise of judgment undisturbed by excitement or passion. We stand face to face with problems which require prompt solution. Those who represent us, with sword in hand, demand of millions of people but just escaped from one foreign oppressor, humble submission and blind obedience. Unconditional surrender and unquestioning acceptance of another military authority are made conditions precedent even to a definite statement of our purposes in respect to a great archipelago in which our doubtful interest is but a probable quit-claim deed of a title by force. We are about to succeed to Spain's contested title. We have already, at least for the present, succeeded to her methods. Whether we are merely to take her place does not yet appear. The President only ventures to propose "the success of our arms and the maintenance of our own honor," and to relegate the "whole subject" of "the welfare and happiness and rights of the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands" to Congress, which he says is "the voice, the conscience, and the judgment of the American people." This want of a definite policy has already led to dire results. To wait until the proper time comes to act is one thing; to let loose the dogs of war and wait for a programme is to confess that we are adrift.

The necessity, the wisdom, even the justice, of our war against Spain are still widely doubted. Whether our interference in a quarrel that was not ours, whether our breach of the peace of the world after Spain had conceded our reasonable demands, can be justified, depends almost wholly upon our execution of the far greater task that remains. The final verdict upon our action will depend on its results rather than its manner or occasion. The problems which now confront us involve vastly more than a few petty additions to our trade, or even the welfare of the alien peoples of some remote islands.

The fundamental question arises, By what authority and under what restraints may Congress undertake to rule subject peoples? The acquisition of distant islands, already fully occupied by half-civilized races wholly unfit for self-government, and having a climate in which white men cannot or will not live, is but an incident in an established national policy or a vital departure from that policy. If the former, we have but promptly to admit these islands to statehood, as we have done with all earlier acquisitions of territory of sufficient population. If the latter, we cannot too soon determine to what extent we may assume to govern or share in governing their people without the exercise by Congress of self assumed and arbitrary powers.

The Constitution created a nation of States, "an indissoluble union of indestructible States." It called into being a "United States of America," not a "United States of America and Asia." It was its purpose "to form a more perfect [not a less perfect] union . . . and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." Every person born or naturalized within the Union was to be a citizen of the nation and of the State of his residence. All the people of the nation were to constitute a brotherhood of citizens having equal rights before the law, which might not be denied or abridged because of race or color. There were to be no subjects, but only citizens. The government was to derive its powers from the consent of the governed. This consent was to be manifested by something more than mere acquiescence. It contemplated the active participation by the governed in a government which was to be only theirs, and which they would alone control. Congress might organize Territorial governments for the administration of the sparsely settled national domain outside the States; but the Territorial form of government was to be but temporary and merely preparatory to statehood. Such was our scheme of popular government; and until by the chances of aggressive and almost uncontested

warfare we blockaded a single part of a distant archipelago inhabited by half-civilized and savage men, there was none among us to wish it otherwise.

The question now is, Can these islands be acquired without their becoming the property, the territory, of the United States? If such territory, they will at once be subject to our Constitution and general laws. The moment new territory is incorporated into the national domain its inhabitants, without naturalization, become citizens of the United States, and as such "entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States." The Supreme Court has held that "the provisions of the Constitution relating to trials by jury for crimes and to criminal prosecutions apply to the Territories of the United States";* that Congress, in legislating for the Territories and District of Columbia, is subject to those fundamental limitations in favor of personal rights which are formulated in the Constitution and its amendments;† and that all citizens of the United States have "the right to come to the seat of government," to have "free access to its seaports," and to pass freely from one part of the country to every other part.‡ The Supreme Court has also, within a year,—under the clause of the Fourteenth Amendment which provides that "all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside,"—held that American-born Chinamen of alien parentage are citizens and free from the provisions of the exclusion acts and treaties; also that Congress has no authority "to restrict the effect of birth, declared by the Constitution to constitute a sufficient and complete right of citizenship."§ Section 1992 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, passed by the Congress which framed and proposed the Fourteenth Amendment, provides that "all persons born in the United States, and not subject to any foreign power, excluding Indians not taxed, are declared to be citizens of the United States." This does not make residence in a State a condition of citizenship

of the United States. As it was framed by the same Congress at the same time, it and the Amendment may safely be assumed to be in harmony.

The Supreme Court has also said: "The power to expand the territory of the United States by the admission of new States is plainly given; and, in the construction of this power by all the departments of the government, it has been held to authorize the acquisition of territory not fit for admission at the time, but to be admitted as soon as its population and situation would entitle it to admission. It is acquired to become a State, and not to be held as a colony and governed by Congress with absolute authority. . . . Whatever the political department of the government shall recognize as within the limits of the United States, the judicial department is also bound to recognize, and to administer in it the laws of the United States so far as they apply, and to maintain in the Territory the authority and rights of the government; and also the personal rights and rights of property of individual citizens, as secured by the Constitution."*

The same court, as late as 1884, said: "The personal and civil rights of the inhabitants of the Territories are secured to them, as to other citizens, by the principles of constitutional liberty which restrain all the agencies of government, State and national; their political rights are franchises which they hold as privileges in the legislative discretion of the Congress of the United States."†

Here lies the distinction. Congress possesses the same general powers, subject to the same limitations, over Territories and their people as it exercises over the States and their inhabitants. In addition it has the same powers in respect to the local affairs of the Territories, subject only to the same constitutional restraints, as the States exercise over their local affairs. Congress has in the Territories the sum of national and local legislative powers, subject to the limitations and restraints of the Constitution.

The Supreme Court, after the acquisition of California and before its admission as a State, applied to it the constitutional provision that "all duties, imposts, and

* *Thompson vs. Utah*, 170 U. S. 343, 346; *Callan vs. Wilson*, 127 U. S. 540, 550.

† *Mormon Church vs. United States*, 136 U. S. 1; *McAllister vs. United States*, 141 U. S. 174, 188; *American Publishing Society vs. Fisher*, 166 U. S. 464, 466.

‡ *Crandall vs. Nevada*, 6 Wall. (U. S.) 35.

§ *United States vs. Wong Kim Ark*, 169 U. S. 649, 703.

* *Dred Scott vs. Sanford*, 19 How. 393.

† *Murphy vs. Ramsey*, 114 U. S. 15, citing *Dred Scott vs. Sanford* with approval; *Mormon Church vs. United States*, 136 U. S. 1.

excises shall be uniform throughout the United States," and said: "By the ratification of the treaty, California became a part of the United States. . . . The right claimed to land foreign goods within the United States at any place out of a collection district, if allowed, would be a violation of that provision of the Constitution which enjoins that all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States. Indeed, it must be very clear that no such right exists, and that there was nothing in the condition of California to exempt importers of foreign goods into it from the payment of the same duties which were chargeable in the other ports of the United States." *

The Supreme Court has further said: "It cannot be admitted that the King of Spain could, by treaty or otherwise, impart to the United States any of his royal prerogative; and much less can it be admitted that they have capacity to receive or power to exercise them. Every nation acquiring territory, by treaty or otherwise, must hold it subject to the constitution and laws of its own government." †

The constitutional power of Congress to "make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property of the United States" thus appears to have important limitations. If the Constitution is to remain the supreme law of the land, if its historic and natural interpretation is still to be given effect, certain definite conclusions are irresistible. Among them are these: All islands acquired through the war against Spain, and made part of the territory of the United States, will be subject to its Constitution and general laws. Their inhabitants—at least those hereafter born—will be citizens of the United States and of the several States in which they choose to reside. As citizens they will come and go at will throughout the entire country. Their government by Congress will be subject to the fundamental limitations in favor of personal rights, which are formulated in the Constitution and its Amendments. By high tariff imposts under the constitutional requirement of uniformity, we shall grind their people into the dust as Spain has done before us.

These conclusions follow, as the night the day, from the interpretation of the Constitution of a century by the highest

judicial authority. This interpretation was directly due and incident to the enormous acquisitions of territory which are now so much relied on as a justification for acquiring the Spanish islands. Yet there are those who, while protesting that the acquisition of these islands is but an incident of an established policy, deny these conclusions. Indeed, a new school of constitutional interpretation is arising among us to meet the exigencies of what is in fact a novel national adventure. Professor Langdell of Harvard and Dean Judson of the University of Chicago have already supplied a construction of the Constitution calculated to enable those in authority to do in the Spanish islands whatever the ground reports anybody else desires done. It is not easy for a lawyer seriously to regard a constitutional interpretation based on an express denial of a conclusion of Chief Justice Marshall. That the new doctrine ignores a long line of decisions by the Supreme Court of the United States but adds to his difficulty. However, the novel doctrine announced as the result of these academic reexaminations of the Constitution calls for serious inquiry. If sound, it provides a plain and easy road to the destruction of constitutional government.

Professor Langdell,* as the result of his inquiry into the meaning of the term "United States," cheerfully overrules the conclusion of Chief Justice Marshall that "it is the name given to our great republic, which is composed of States and Territories," the District of Columbia and the Territories being "not less within the United States than Maryland or Pennsylvania." He also disregards the line of decisions to the same effect above cited, and finds that the term "United States," when used to designate extent of territory, means only "the States in the aggregate," and that "the Constitution of the United States does not extend beyond the limits of the States." He concludes that the United States "comprise the territory of the forty-five States, and no more"; that "it does not follow, because a department of the government is created and organized by the Constitution with reference solely to a given territory, that therefore the power of that department and its sphere of action are limited to that territory"; that the judicial department of the government of the United States is

* Cross vs. Harrison, 16 How. 198.

† Pollard vs. Hogan, 3 How. 312.

** Harvard Law Review for February, 1899.

so limited, but not so the legislative and executive departments; and that "the legislative and executive departments are sovereign in their nature, and therefore their power and sphere of action are co-extensive with the sovereignty of the United States, of which sovereignty they constitute the vital part." It follows that "in the legislative and executive departments is vested all the sovereign power in our new Territories that has been delegated by the people." Professor Langdell also concludes that this power is without other restraint than the clause of the Thirteenth Amendment which forbids slavery or involuntary servitude, "except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."* Dean Judson† having reached quite similar conclusions, they may be assumed fairly to represent the trend of thought among such of those who favor the retention of the Spanish islands as have yet seriously tried to meet the grave difficulties of a vital change in our national policy.

Thus is found an assumed basis for legislative and executive absolutism, free from a judicial restraint which has heretofore held both Congress and the President to the observance of the Constitution throughout the entire territory over which the sovereignty of the United States has extended. While the Supreme Court may be relied upon to make short work of the extraordinary proposition that its jurisdiction extends only to the territory of the forty five States beyond whose limits the legislative and executive powers are without restraint except as to slavery, what its production at this crisis signifies is worthy of serious attention. Professor Langdell admits that resort to it heretofore has been unnecessary, because, "first, all the different parcels of territory acquired by the United States from time to time (with the unimportant exception of Alaska) were contiguous either to existing States or to territory previously acquired; secondly, none of them differed more widely from the States in soil and climate than the States differed from each other; thirdly, they were all virtually without inhabitants and were expected to be peopled by emigrants from the States, from the British islands, and from western Europe; fourthly, they were all expected,

at an early day, to be formed into States, and as such to be admitted into the Union; fifthly, none of them produced (to any extent) dutiable articles . . . ; sixthly, they all bordered upon navigable waters, through which the products of all foreign countries could easily be imported, and, if admitted free of duty, could be smuggled thence into the States." It is perfectly true, as Professor Langdell adds, that "with the acquisition of Hawaii and the Spanish islands, however, all these conditions are radically changed." It is not as certainly true, as he claims, that "none of these islands have been acquired with a view to their being admitted as States." Indeed, if we may believe the President, they have not been acquired with any view whatever, but solely in pursuit of a fatalism in the form of a vague destiny which we might not escape. Our authorities are, after acquisition in fact, professedly groping for a purpose and a programme.

The propositions that Congress and the President may without restraint acquire and hold territory that shall not be subject to the Constitution and general laws of the United States, that mere creatures of the Constitution may exercise powers conferred by it to lay and collect taxes and raise and equip armies forcibly to acquire personal possessions to be by them despotically ruled, are subversive of constitutional government. These proposals are truly imperial, and have in view a republic at home and an empire abroad. They mean that it is now seriously proposed among us to establish a dual government at Washington, half representative and half despotic in character. This is in pursuit of a recent English precedent under which Victoria is known as "Queen of England and Empress of India." It is already quite within the range of possibility that the President may be known as "President of the United States and Emperor of the Philippines." That will at least indicate his functions if the above proposals are sound and present action in their pursuit is to be permanent.

We have long rejoiced in a government of laws rather than of men. It has been our greatest glory that none among us might exercise arbitrary powers. All in authority over us — legislative, executive, and judicial officials — have exercised but delegated powers. They have acted as the servants and with the consent and

* There are, by the way, large judicial possibilities in the words "duly convicted."

† "Review of Reviews" for January, 1899.

coöperation of the people. They have in all things been subject to the Constitution and laws made in its pursuance. They have been solemnly sworn to support the Constitution of the United States, and strict obedience to its commands as the supreme law of the land has been the test of their official fidelity. It is now proposed that, in addition to their constitutional duties as the servants of a free people, Congress and the President shall arbitrarily assume functions of an entirely different character; that with one hand they shall exercise delegated and defined authority, and with the other self-assumed and arbitrary powers. In America they are to exercise certain powers with the consent of the governed; in the Philippines, and wherever else destiny may lead, they are to ask only "the consent of their own conscience" and what they shall be pleased to assume is "the approval of civilization." This hybrid may or may not be "imperialism." It certainly is not constitutional government.

Congress and the President are but creatures of the Constitution. It exists "to form a more perfect union, to establish justice, ensure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." They exist by its sole authority to carry out its great and worthy purposes, and for nothing else whatever. To say that officials created by the Constitution may exercise powers which it confers to do things without its purpose and beyond its authority, is to say that a stream may rise higher than its source. To say that Congress and the President may use the revenues of the United States and employ its army and navy to acquire territory which shall not be subject to the Constitution, is to say that they may exercise their constitutional powers for extra-constitutional ends, that they may use the public revenues and exercise public authority for other than public purposes. If only their action within the States is controlled by the Constitution, if beyond the States they may act at will and without restraint, then their will and not the Constitution is the supreme law.

The assumption that Congress and the President may, under any circumstances or upon whatever pretence, exercise powers derived from the Constitution for other than constitutional purposes, is not

only novel but fraught with the gravest dangers. It involves the admission that mere creatures of the Constitution may, without regard to its provisions, arbitrarily determine their functions. It is a fundamental canon of constitutional construction that the federal authorities can exercise only expressly delegated powers. To admit the contrary is to concede that their powers are without limitation.

This demand for a construction of the Constitution which will permit a government at Washington that shall be half representative and half despotic in character is, however, by no means all. It is but the first step in a backward course into which we are drifting. Those among us who have so suddenly awakened to what they are pleased to call our national "isolation" exhibit an ill-concealed contempt for the counsels of the fathers and a growing impatience with the Constitution itself. They have just discovered that the nation has become a giant who "is no longer content with the nursery rhymes which were sung around his cradle."* They regard the Farewell Address outgrown, and hold that even the Monroe Doctrine has become shopworn or at least of but one-sided application. It is said: "We have outgrown the Constitution. It is not worth while to discuss it."† "The Constitution must bend."‡ "Governments derive their just powers from the consent of *some* of the governed."§ "A Constitution and national policy adopted by thirteen half-consolidated, weak, rescued colonies, glad to be able to call their life their own, cannot be expected to hamper the greatest nation in the world."¶ Our great questions of administrative, civil service, and financial reform have suddenly become "parochial." The business of a mighty nation has as suddenly become "artificial and transient." Our people are called to abandon "the treadmill round of domestic politics" for "new thoughts, new questions, new fields, fresh hopes, broader views, wider influences."‡ These quotations, selected from many, are here produced merely to show a trend of thought which is believed to bode no good to constitutional government.

* President Northrup at Chicago Peace Jubilee banquet.

† General Merritt.

‡ Senator Platt.

¶ Attorney-General Griggs.

§ President Capen.

¶ Franklin MacVeagh.

It is the nature of arbitrary power to grow by what it feeds on. This is especially true of unrestrained military power. When wielded by "those who have things to do" it is apt to be much less tedious in its operation than are the slow processes through which government by public opinion works out its results. For this reason delegated authority and arbitrary power do not work well together. Indeed, those who are now trying to act at one and the same time as the public servants of a free people and as the despotic rulers of subject peoples already exhibit signs of impatience with the old methods, even at home. The words "treason" and "traitor" have been widely hurled at Senators of the United States merely because they were unwilling to surrender their constitutional duty carefully to consider and discuss the treaty of peace. The term "rebel" has been freely applied to people while yet Spanish subjects, who never owed allegiance to the United States. In the House, on February 25, Mr. Cannon said: "If the speech of the gentleman from Kansas, and those of some other gentlemen on the other side, made yesterday, had been made by them yesterday in Manila, they would have been arrested, tried by a drumhead court-martial, and shot." Members of Congress who fail to agree with Mr. Cannon are not at present in much danger of drumhead courts-martial; but we shall see the spirit of impatience with constitutional processes grow apace if our public authorities are permitted permanently to make large use of the agencies of arbitrary power. This may be good "imperialism," but it does not promote government by constitutional methods.

The question should now be pressed, To what end are these grave dangers which we have so lightly assumed and even sought? For what sufficient purpose is the character of our government to be changed? We hear much about destiny, and see many good men in the expansion current in pursuit of a vague philanthropy. Many stand ready to vouch for our ability to expand beyond seas, but few venture affirmative reasons why we should do so. Mr. Reid assures us that "the world will never again be in doubt whether, when driven to war, we will end it in a gush of sentimentality or a shiver of unmanly apprehension over untried responsibilities." Possibly this is important, if true. The

Filipinos have been advised "that the mission of the United States is one of benevolent assimilation." The President, in his Boston address, by way of defence of an insecure position, claims that we took the islands from necessity, and lays the blame on God. He says: "The Philippines, like Cuba and Porto Rico, were entrusted to our hands by the providence of God." If this be true, it ends the discussion. However, it is yet novel doctrine that public servants may substitute what they guess to be the will of God for the Constitution and laws of the land. In this entire matter there has been somewhat too much certainty as to the Divine will, and too little attention to constitutional requirements and difficulties. Constitutional restraints are of course annoying to those who see arbitrary power within their grasp. It must not be forgotten, however, that it is the main purpose of a written constitution to define the functions of public officials and to hamper their action. Our public authorities cannot too soon be called to account and made to know that "benevolent assimilation" of peoples wholly unfit to be incorporated into our citizenship is not within the province of constitutional government. There is no provision in the Constitution directing the President to use the army and navy in foreign missionary work. It is no part of the duty of a constitutional government to make "contribution from our ease and purse and comfort to the welfare of others." Congress has "power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States," and for no other purpose. Unless Congress may use the revenues and forces of the United States for other than constitutional purposes, it cannot use them to acquire, and to enforce its reign over, territory that is not subject to the Constitution.

The most extraordinary reason given for the proposed retention of the Philippines is that the inhabitants are wholly unfit for self-government. That is, they, or at least their children, are to be made citizens of the Republic for the express reason that they are unfit for American citizenship.

We have heretofore acquired territory only that it might in due time take its place in the sisterhood of States, and that its inhabitants might share with us on

equal terms the blessings of free institutions. All our constitutional amendments have had in view the extension of the principle that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. Every step in our national progress has been marked by new guarantees for the security of personal rights. Even aliens among us share the main privileges and immunities guaranteed by the Constitution.* The inhabitants of the Territories of the United States have thus far shared these rights. Shall this line of progress under free institutions now be interrupted? Is it not rather late for us to discover that governments derive their just powers from *some* of the governed? Shall we at this late day concede that Congress has discretionary power to make the Constitution and laws of the United States general or special? Shall we now admit that personal rights and immunities beneath the American flag are not fundamental, but discretionary with Congress? These questions are fundamental if free government is to continue even at home. The supremacy of the Constitution must be preserved unless ours is to become a government by men instead of a government of laws.

The United States may and should decline to accept the sovereignty of any of the islands of which it has deprived Spain. It may encourage and aid in the formation of the best native governments now possible. With such sovereign governments it may then enter into treaties providing for the "open door," for consular courts, with jurisdiction of all questions affecting foreigners, and for the supervision by the United States, for a time, of their foreign relations. In return for these concessions the United States might also for a time guarantee

such governments from foreign interference. In this way we can exhibit to the world a national disinterestedness which is now widely questioned, secure all proper rights for our commerce and that of other commercial nations, and discharge any real or supposed duty to the peoples of these islands. Thus will be secured to their peoples the greatest good, —freedom from outside aggression, and opportunity to work out their own salvation in their own way.

Our choice does not lie between a national self-interest which ignores all moral obligations to others and a policy that would steadily enforce such obligations by the warship and the Maxim gun. It does lie between an opportunity to lead the world voluntarily to accept the blessings of liberty and peace and a crusade to extend these blessings *vi et armis*.

It is a law of physics that two bodies cannot occupy the same space at the same time. Abraham Lincoln but stated the application of this law to be the realm of politics when he declared that "this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free." Under his own splendid leadership his prediction that the Union would cease to be divided was gloriously fulfilled. The question for our generation is whether we shall voluntarily again divide it; whether we shall permit to be set up at Washington despotic power, there to compete with delegated authority for final supremacy; whether, in our desire to rescue others from excessive taxation, we shall take it upon ourselves in perpetuity; whether, in the vain effort to share our institutions with half-civilized men, we shall destroy their character.

EDWIN BURRITT SMITH.

CHICAGO, ILL.

THE well-known French writer, M. de Presensé, in an article in the "Contemporary Review," says:

"In the United States of America we see the intoxication of the new strong wine of warlike glory carrying a great democracy off its feet and raising the threatening spectre of militarism, with its fatal attendant, Cæsarism, in the background. Under the pretext of 'manifest destiny' the great republic of the western hemisphere is becoming unfaithful to the princi-

ples of her founders, to the precedents of her constitutional life, to the traditions which have made her free, glorious, and prosperous. The seductions of imperialism are drawing the United States toward the abyss where all the great democracies of the world have found their end. The cant of Anglo-Saxon alliance, of the brotherhood-in-arms of English-speaking people, is serving as a cloak to the nefarious designs of those who want to cut in two the grand motto of Great Britain, *Imperium et Libertas*, and to make *Imperium* swallow *Libertas*.

* Wong Wing vs. United States, 163 U. S. 228.

APRIL ANNOTATIONS

OUR word April comes from the Roman Aprilis, and was given because this is the season when the buds begin to open. Anglo-Saxons called this month Ooster or Easter month, while to the Dutch it is Grass-month. The first day of April has long been the licensed joke-day. The origin of April Fool's day is not known. It is a custom among so many countries and of such long standing that it is thought to have come down from some very old traditions, possibly the relic of some heathen festival. On this day the playing off of little tricks which bring ridicule to the unguarded is observed more generally in France than in Great Britain or in America. The Frenchman who is caught by some carefully planned hoax is called "un poisson d'avril," that is, an April fish. In England or the United States such a person is called an April fool; in Scotland, a "gowk." The far-away Hindus practise similar pranks on the thirty-first of March, when they hold what is called the Huli festival.

Sometimes a joke has been played on a large scale, as in London on the first of April, 1860. Many prominent people received invitations sealed in a way to give them an official appearance, which read, "Tower of London. Admit the bearer and friend to view the annual ceremony of washing the white lions, on Sunday, April 1, 1860. Admittance only at the White Gate." Cabs came rattling up to the Tower all day in a vain effort to find the "White Gate"; and it was difficult to make plain to the many visitors that they were the victims of an April joke.

A bit of French history tells how Francis, Duke of Lorraine, and his wife escaped from bondage on April 1. They were in captivity at Nantes, and determined that the joke-day was an opportune time for passing out of the city disguised as peasants. A woman on the street recognized them and cried to the guards that the captives were escaping, but the sentries only laughed, thinking it a good hoax. Later, when one of the officers heard the joke, he ordered an investigation, when it was found that the prisoners had fled.

Perhaps few are aware how many of America's noted men began or ended

their lives in this month. Thomas Jefferson was born on April 2, 1743. Prof. Samuel B. Morse, artist and inventor, was born April 27, 1791, and died April 2, 1872. On April 3, 1783, Washington Irving was born. The death of William H. Harrison occurred April 4, 1841. April 11, 1873, General Canby was murdered by Captain Jack, the Modoc chieftain. On April 12, 1777, Henry Clay was born. On April 13, 1894, David Dudley Field died. Lincoln died April 15, 1865. On April 27, 1822, U. S. Grant was born. Ralph Waldo Emerson died April 27, 1882.

In the record of our nation the month of April holds an important place. The first President of the United States was inaugurated April 30, 1789. John Tyler was inaugurated President April 5, 1841. On April 21, 1836, was fought the battle of San Jacinto in Texas. With the fall of Fort Sumter, April 14, 1861, began the Civil War. On April 6 and 7, 1862, occurred the battle of Shiloh. On April 25, 1862, New Orleans was captured by Federal troops. Petersburg, after a siege of nine months, surrendered to Grant April 2, 1865. The Union army entered Richmond April 3, 1865. On April 9 General Lee surrendered to General Grant. On April 14, 1865, General Anderson again hoisted above Fort Sumter the very flag which had been hauled down four years before. April 19 is a memorable day in American history. The opening hostilities of the Revolution, the battle of Lexington and Concord, took place April 19, 1775. The first bloodshed of the Civil War occurred in a riot at Baltimore, April 19, 1861. War against Spain was declared by the Fifty-fifth Congress in the early hours of April 19, 1898.

The first American newspaper, the "Boston News Letter," was published April 24, 1704. The terms of the Louisiana Purchase were concluded on April 30, 1803. In a meeting of ex-soldiers at Decatur, Illinois, April 6, 1869, a society was planned to perpetuate the memories of the war. The first regular convention was held the following autumn at Indianapolis, where was completed the organization of the Grand Army of the Republic. On April 22, 1889, Oklahoma was opened to settlers. On April 18, 1890, the Pan-American Congress closed.

Though there is no national holiday in this month, yet we note several State holidays. The State election in Rhode Island occurs on the first Wednesday in April. Four of the southern States observe Decoration Day in April: Louisiana on the 6th, while Florida, Georgia, and Alabama have appointed the 26th as Memorial Day. On April 15 Utah observes Arbor Day, and Nebraska on April 22. Five years ago the legislature of Massachusetts abolished that old New England custom, the observance of Fast Day as a legal holiday, and put in its place Patriots' Day, the anniversary of the battle of Lexington. In 1894, while Coxey's Commonweal Army was marching on to Washington, Massachusetts celebrated the first Patriots' Day. Much preparation was made. There was something for all classes. Patriotic exercises and historic meetings for thoughtful people were held on the evening of the 18th. Enthusiasm began with the placing of the two historic lanterns in the tower of the old North Church, in Boston, and it fairly ran wild when a young man mounted on a black horse—a modern Paul Revere—set out for Lexington and Concord. At sunrise all through Massachusetts was heard the firing of cannon and the ringing of bells. While there were many celebrations in different parts of the State, yet the chief interest centred in the twin towns of the Revolution, Lexington and Concord, and the historic ground over which the British retreated in 1775. Patriots' Day is like no other holiday, and most of all it is unlike the Fast Day which it superseded. This year, at midnight of the eighteenth-nineteenth of April, the chimes in the old North Church will again peal out the notes of freedom, and at sunrise will be heard the boom of cannon. Mills and factories, shops and offices, will be closed, and old and young will have an opportunity to review events which are among the richest treasures of American

citizenship. Many will again visit the old battlefield at Concord, where—

—“once the embattled farmers stood,
And fired the shot heard round the world.”

April 21, San Jacinto Anniversary, is a holiday in Texas. San Jacinto is to Texas what Lexington is to Massachusetts. The massacre of the Alamo—a horror almost without parallel in modern warfare—turned the tide of Texan independence. Seven weeks later, while those sickening events were fresh in mind, General Houston and seven hundred patriots, with the battle-cry “Remember the Alamo,” rushed upon the Mexicans at San Jacinto and won a great victory. In the Alamo we find patriotism as unflinching as at Lexington. All New England will feel the impetus of Patriots' Day on April 19, and two days later far-away Texas will throb with patriotic loyalty as the anniversary of San Jacinto is observed. While the heroism of Massachusetts and Texas is a rich heritage to their own citizens, yet the glory of them both belongs to every American.

Though a movable feast, so frequently does Easter occur in April that the Anglo-Saxons seem justified in calling this Ooster month. Easter is the oldest and greatest of Christian festivals. Long before anyone thought of keeping Christmas, Christians observed with joy the anniversary of the Resurrection.

Though March with its bluster is said to usher in spring, yet that delightful season is not really inaugurated until April comes with its indescribable charm of awakening life. Something is wrong with the eyes, if not with the soul, of the individual who sees the beauties of this month and feels no thrill of pleasure. April is indeed

“God's daughter, and her airiest mood
Is deep with love and wise with ancient good.”

LENORA NEWLIN HOBBS.

BLOOMINGDALE, IND.

THE Giant Telescope that is to be used at the great exposition in Paris, in 1900, is well under way. The aperture will be 49.2 inches and the focal length 196 feet and 10 inches, and the estimated cost 1,400,000 francs (\$280,000). The telescope will not be swung in a domed building, but one of horizontal position on solid supports of masonry, and will receive the light of the heavenly bodies by reflection from a movable plane mirror two meters in diameter (78

inches). This plane mirror is 13 inches thick and weighs 3,600 kilogrammes (7,920 pounds). It has been in process of grinding for seven months and is not yet finished. It is expected that a magnifying power of 6,000 will be usefully employed, and occasionally 14,000 may be used. The highest existing telescope does not exceed 4,000, and there is great expectations from the working power of this new telescope.

THE WORLD AND ITS DOINGS : EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Philippines Situation All but the military caste affirm that war is an evil, while even some professional soldiers have been found who admit that it is "hell." Few, however, when in the most hopeful mood, can agree that it will ever cease, until, in the sum of things, the millennium shall be ushered in, and with it, as our faith bids us hope, the eternal and blessed reign of peace. Until that era dawns—unless the weapons of war shall meantime become so destructive of human life that no nation will face another in anger—such scenes as have of late been witnessed in the Philippines will no doubt continue to harry the philanthropic heart and mock our humanitarian professions. Let war have its due from those who, despite its hideous carnage, believe in it as a last resort, and who cherish the notion that in the past it has been the school of certain virtues; but let it not now be undertaken lightly, or for ends other than those of freedom as well as of right and justice. Destiny, we may admit, took our navy to Manila and thus gratified both the national lust of battle and the mad thirst for glory; but let it be Destiny, and not Providence, that we assert brought us to the Philippines and bids us to stay there to mow down with shot and shell the Filipinos and other natives of the islands, simply because they desire independence with relief from the Spanish or any other alien yoke.

Nor are the circumstances altered if we view the islands as a possession for which we have paid or agreed to pay money to a Power with which, for humane reasons, we were at war, and which was itself being extruded, for righteous reasons, by those who as natives have the most valid right to ownership. The pretext that took us to Cuba was liberation; why, may we ask, was the plea departed from in the case of the Philippines, and where is the justification for paying twenty million dollars for the culpable luxury of interfering,—for it is not possession we get, nor any desirable or really gainful acquisition? That we are now committed, what-

ever error of policy or judgment we have fallen into, to go through with the matter, may be true; but it is true only so far as we are bound to suppress lawlessness and protect life and property until we can replace a bad government with a good, and then leave the future decision of administration to those who, when they regain the status of good and law-abiding citizens, shall be free to govern themselves and reimburse us for our expenditure on their and the country's behalf.

To seek to maintain permanent sovereignty over the islands would seem not only to be inexpedient, but, if we look back upon our own history, a wrong. Nor is the trying and exacting work which our soldiers and sailors have been put to do—efficiently as it has been, and no doubt will still be, performed—such as we can feel any gratification in exposing them at Manila to accomplish. We say this independently of any sympathy, on moral grounds, we may have for the insurrectionary Filipinos and the rash and conceited Aguinaldo with his subaltern ambitions. Could we be sure, however, that the little self-constituted insurgent chief was misled in returning with Dewey to Manila, and was assured by our consuls at Hong Kong and Singapore that his people were to be treated by us as we pledged ourselves to treat Cuba and the Cubans, their case would then call for more toleration and a larger measure of patient consideration. But the milk is already spilled and we have now to make the best of it, trusting to the speedy suppression of the rising and the acceptance in good faith of such clement overtures from us as will attest the benevolence of our intentions with regard to the islands and their inhabitants, and give them the right, under proper safeguards, to rule themselves and establish an autonomous government.

★

**President
McKinley
at Boston**

Since our last issue the President has paid a visit to Boston, where he was the guest of the Home Market Club, an organization with which to-day, one would

suppose, he had little in common, however much in harmony he may have found himself with it in pre-imperial years. But the times change, and the mind of even an extreme Republican protectionist who has attained the presidency changes with them. There was a time when Mr. McKinley was wont to say to the Club, which still dutifully continues to honor him, that the United States was a continent sufficient unto itself, and that we need not go beyond the home market for trade; while all we wanted to safeguard it was a sufficiently rigid measure of protection, which we suppose he thanks Providence — rather than Destiny — that we to-day still enjoy. He and the good people of Boston, and especially the Club whose honored guest he was, have, however, reason to thank Providence for other and higher things than a home market, with a limited ring-fence of protection. We now have colonies and other nice and expensive things, together with armies and navies extending by force of arms our empire among subject-resisting peoples at the ends of the earth, and an administration at home doing its best to maintain a vigorous and far-reaching expansion policy, with the aid of a like expanding system of taxation or other money-raising machinery, to enable the country to sustain with dignity and credit the American "white man's burden." To make all this plain and palatable to the simple mind of Boston, President McKinley had, of course, no easy task. But his ingenuity, if not his sophistry, was equal to the occasion; and whatever was lacking or wherever there was a flaw in the argument, an abundant rhetoric hid all the inconsistencies and glossed over what was not meant to be further inquired into, or, at the present stage in the country's career of conquest, inconveniently revealed.

But President McKinley did not mean to be wholly reticent, nor was he. Yet he was not frank and penitent enough to admit his own responsibility for the situation in the Philippines. Nor was he sufficiently courageous and outspoken to say frankly what should now be done. He threw the burden of that upon Congress, with whom, he said, it remained (though after the grave condition of things at Manila had been created), "as the voice, the conscience, and the judgment of the American people, to determine what form of government will best subserve the interests of the Filipinos and our interest,

their and our well-being." He at the same time disclaimed the notion that any imperial designs lurked in the American mind, and in a guarded way asked, "If we can benefit these remote peoples (the Filipinos), who will object?" Benefit them — how? At the mouth of our cannon, or by humane preliminary overtures, that would have assured them from the first of our philanthropic and benevolent intentions towards them and their country, rather than by an attitude, the reverse of this, that has made them contumacious and obdurate rebels and caused the trenches around Manila and the vicinity to be dyed with their blood and that of our own brave soldiers? The President humbly exclaimed that he had no light or knowledge not common to his countrymen to unravel the situation or divine its future aspect; yet whose was the voice or pen that had brought it all about, and with whom did the initiation of the policy rest that had led to such complications and to so uncertain and embarrassing an outlook?

The question we have asked may now be a futile one, but it does not help the problem to let it be inferred that it came about of itself. Had the President from the first unmistakably repudiated imperialism, as he timidly did in his speech at Boston, the situation, it is true, might not have been altered in the Philippines. But we should not have had to blame ourselves, as we must, for assuming responsibilities after destroying the Spanish fleet in Asiatic waters and so making safe our western shores from attack, and seeing at the same time that the islands did not once more revert to Spain. Even though we remained, as we have done, at Manila, there seems to us little justification for bringing on hostilities with the Filipinos, since the assurance that we held the islands provisionally was all that was needed to satisfy native aspirations in seeking emancipation from the intolerable dominion of Spain. But back of that the prime mistake occurred, when we first went to Manila, in taking up with Aguinaldo as the leader of a revolution on the islands, and in putting him in a position to intrigue for the renewal of the rising. Our Government, of course, is not responsible for Aguinaldo's ambitions; but it is responsible, as it seems to us, for not telling his people at once that we were there, not to defeat local self-government, but —

when the time came safely to retire and without peril to the public well-being, native and foreign—to encourage and facilitate it.

★

*General Miles
and the Com-
missariat In-
quiry*

The Court of Inquiry into the character of the canned meats supplied to the army in Cuba and Porto Rico during the late war is developing some apparently scandalous facts. That the matter has had to be irksomely probed by General Miles, rather than by the head of the War Department, is a feature of the case which, besides the shielding of the suspended Commissary-General Eagan and the other glaring delinquencies of his administration, further discredits Secretary Alger. We hold no brief for the Commanding General of the army, who has sins of his own—in manner, at least, if not in deed—to answer for; but it is admittedly prejudicial to the national as well as to the military interests of the United States that so much hostility to General Miles should be shown by those high in office in Washington, when he seeks, on behalf of all concerned, to unearth a great scandal and bring home to rascally contractors responsibility for the issuance of army rations totally unfit to eat. This aspect of the affair, as it concerns the head of the army, must prove highly disadvantageous to the effectiveness as well as to the *morale* of the force, and it is no less deserving of censure than the matter which is now under inquiry.

The country, we need hardly say, wants no Cæsar in command of the army, but neither does it want ill-manners and incompetence in its official head; still less a functionary that is moved as a puppet by political intrigue or personal animus, with the result of bringing the military arm of the nation into public and professional discredit. A reprehensible instance of this outside interference with the administration and discipline of the army is seen in the extraordinary leniency shown by the President toward Commissary-General Eagan, who, though at first dismissed from the service and relieved from all duty, is finally suspended for six years with full army pay, at the expiration of which period he will retire from the service by limitation of time. The ridiculousness of this evidence of favoritism and disregard for the proper discipline of the army is flagrantly patent to all; and em-

anating as it does from the highest executive source it is inexplicable.

To return to the beef inquiry, it may suffice at present to say that much of the evidence taken before the Court justifies General Miles's denouncing of the canned meats supplied to the army in the Antilles, though we regret that the circumstances in which he was placed suggested exposure at first by oblique rather than by direct channels. In the contractors' defence it is only just to say that not a little was made of the fact that the canned beef was to be transported to and used in a hot climate, and under other and trying conditions. The plea was also advanced that the men on service were largely on the sick list, and therefore over-sensitive to all but immaculate rations. But when this and all is said, much remains to be explained, if any explanation can be tolerated for the supplying of meat which when opened was found to be either a slimy, nauseating mess of what has been termed "soup refuse," or "a mass of stringy, flavorless, and unpalatable muscle-fibre." Where or with whom rests the responsibility for the issuing of such canned foods to our soldiers on active service, and at a time when they stood in need of the most nourishing rations that could be supplied to them, it is at the present stage of the inquiry premature to say. Unless some experiment was being made with the contents of the cans—a plea which, considering the time and place of the practical test, is inadmissible—an infamous job would seem to have been perpetrated by the contractors which merits criminal action by the government and the unsparing obloquy of the nation.

★

*The Army and
Navy Bills*

While we are opposed to anything like imperialism, we are not so unpatriotic as not to desire that the nation shall possess those essentials to the security and well-ordered administration of a great state—an efficient defensive force, both on land and sea, and that other prerequisite, a competent military and naval executive. That we can have either with unruly partisan feeling restraining reasonable expenditure in Congress, and with civilian influences, with their sinister "pulls," set against official knowledge and competence, where they exist, is manifestly and emphatically impossible. Each department of the nation's defensive force has

had of late to contend with both of these drawbacks in the passing of the new Army and the Navy Bills, and the result is dissatisfaction all round, with serious impairment of the efficiency and proper administration of both arms of the service. The navy, on which we must more heavily rely, and which in the past year has admittedly deserved well of the country, has suffered grievously by the parsimony of the Senate, which has cut down the appropriation for the year to such an extent that some three thousand men must at once be dropped from the service, while from ten to twelve of the ships must go out of commission, and all necessary constructive work in the shipyards must be stopped. Happily, both Houses have concurred in the changes affecting the personnel of the service, and have got rid of the friction which has hitherto existed owing to the difference in rank and pay between what is known as the staff and the line in the navy. Henceforth these two branches of the service—the executive, termed the line officers, and its complement, the engineering branch—are to be placed on an equal footing, while the pay of the naval officers is to be increased and placed on a par, relatively, with the pay of army officers; and there is also to be an increase in the number of men composing the marine corps.

The army reorganization bill has met with even scantier courtesy in Congress. It has rejected the proposal to raise the army to a permanent standard, placed at 98,000 strong, and decided to continue it for two years from July 1 next at 65,000 men; after which it is to be reduced to 27,000—its strength when the late war with Spain broke out. A provisional arrangement is sanctioned whereby the President is authorized, if necessary, to enlist 35,000 volunteers for a period not exceeding two years and four months. These provisions, it may be added, were accepted under protest by the military and naval committees in both Houses, and only to obviate the necessity for calling an extra session of Congress.

★

The New Ambassador to England

Mr. Joseph H. Choate, whose portrait appears on the cover of the present number, has entered upon his duties as ambassador of the United States to the Court of St. James. We have already in these pages spoken of Mr. Choate's quali-

fications for the important post to which he has been accredited. These qualifications, as we predicted would be the case, have won for our representative a cordial welcome in England. The English press, indeed, is felicitating itself on the succession of eminent representative men which this country has sent to the American Embassy in London since Lowell's day. The London "Daily News," among other journalistic greetings, observes: "Really, our luck in American ambassadors seems inexhaustible!" Mr. Choate's arrival in England was marked by hearty demonstrations, both at Southampton and at London. At Southampton the first call was made upon his powers of public speaking, and there, in referring to the fraternal relations that exist between the two countries, he sounded a note that will do much to commend him to the English people. He also made a felicitous allusion to Queen Victoria in his address in reply to the greetings of the Mayor of Southampton: "As I go," Mr. Choate remarked, "to present my letter of credence from the President to your illustrious sovereign, who, after more than sixty years, still reigns supreme over the hearts of her subjects and commands the affectionate admiration of my own countrymen as their ever steadfast and faithful friend, I accept your cordial greeting as the harbinger of that practical friendship which is henceforth to control and govern the conduct of the two."

★

Failure of the Anglo-American Commission

The Joint High Commission for the settlement of disputes between Canada and this country has adjourned until August next, the reason assigned being that the conferring parties have so far failed to agree on some of the vexed questions—especially, it is said, the Alaskan boundary matter—referred to it. The Commission has, doubtless, had a thorny path to travel; but we trust it may yet overcome the obstacles to diplomatic settlement and reach a happy solution of the long-standing disputes which have been sources of irritation on both sides of the line. Deliberation on the questions with which the Commission had to deal has been necessarily slow and been interrupted by adjournments from Quebec to Washington; while death has meanwhile broken into its ranks and taken, first Mr. Dingley, and now Lord

Herschell, the distinguished chairman of the Anglo-Canadian negotiators. The number and intricacy of the problems submitted to the Commission for solution may well excuse present failure in the negotiations. We still think, as we said in previously discussing the matter, that it would have been better to have dealt with a few points at a time, rather than attempt to deal with them in the lump. Had this been the course decided upon, we should probably not have had the disappointment of to-day, and a partial clearing of the slate would have been an immediate and welcome gain. It is obviously of little moment now to discuss where the hitch chiefly occurred, or which of the two parties is responsible for the opposition. It is given out that the Alaskan question was the one upon which neither could or would agree, and this we must accept as having blocked the way and necessitated adjournment. This fact elicited, it would seem better to have the vexed boundary matter separately dealt with, and by arbitrators of other nationalities, and let us have, if possible, a harmonious adjustment of all other questions in dispute. The time is eminently favorable for friendly and pacific overtures, and we venture to think that it should at once be taken advantage of to secure the settlement so much desired and which is of prime importance, especially to the two neighboring countries.

★

*Assurance of
Germany's
Friendliness* The rise of the United States to the status of one of the great Powers of the modern world was certain to bring in its train the rivalry, and to some extent the jealousy, of other industrial and militant nations. The world, it may be said, is a big enough field for all to operate in; but it is not big enough, in these adventurous maritime and trade-exploiting days, to prevent a more or less active clashing of interests among rival nations, each envying the other some advantage it has gained in the eager career for foreign footholds and success in hitherto untrodden paths of national and commercial expansion. A consciousness of this fact has created in this country a certain sensitiveness toward other nations—and of late especially toward Germany—that are engaged, as we are, in extending their markets to far-off lands and in stretching the national emblem over distant and

recently acquired or annexed possessions. To some extent the feeling, we imagine, has been reciprocal; though our fears in relation to the nation to which we have referred have probably been more lively than have been the apprehensions of that nation concerning us. Whatever the facts in this matter may be, it is pleasant to have lately had Germany's specific assurance of her friendliness toward us, and to have this intimation expressed in active and unmistakable ways, as well as by direct vouchings through responsible and authoritative channels. There was probably need for this, if we are to consider the feeling existing in certain classes in this country in regard to Germany's bearing toward us, and to take that, whether mistakenly or not, as indicative of a certain degree of jealousy or unfriendliness, if not of positive hostility. The authoritative assurance given us ought to allay our apprehensions and revive in this country the old cordial feeling toward the German nation and people. Especially seemly is the revival of this feeling when we reflect how largely America has drawn and profited from the old Teutonic stock, and how endeared must be the tie, both of kindred and association, that still lovingly binds our German citizens and their children to the great Fatherland.

The recent specific assurances of reciprocal feeling on the part of Germany must be so familiar to readers of the daily press that we need hardly here detail them. Nor in face of the distinct evidences, in words and actions, can there be need to point out their evident sincerity. They are attested especially by the recent debates, in the Berlin Reichstag, on the commercial and tariff relations between the two countries, the tone of which was extremely friendly. The contemporary press also reflects the cordiality of the relations, and our ambassador at Berlin continues to be a *persona grata* in German political and diplomatic circles as well as at the imperial court. Nor can the action of the Kaiser's government be misconstrued or mistaken in the order, recently forwarded from Berlin to Manila, to withdraw German warships from Philippine waters and place German lives and property in the islands under the protection of the United States. In presence of the latter fact, the sincerity of Germany's professions of friendship cannot for a moment be doubted; and only a

jingo of the jingoes, and the veriest churl at that, would want greater proof of disinterestedness or more emphatic testimony to Germany's cordiality and good faith. In regard to affairs in Samoa, if we would not rashly accept newspaper canards or misleading cables from unreliable sources, we should find German action at Apia equally straightforward, where it has the sanction and endorsement of authority.

★

*Mr. Kipling's
Illness*

The recent alarming illness of Mr. Rudyard Kipling has been a matter of intense concern to everyone who speaks the English tongue and recognizes in him "the laureate of the Anglo-Saxon race." The distinguished novelist, as all know, lately returned to our shores for a brief visit with his wife and family to his American home in Vermont. On arriving at New York, just after the great storm on the Atlantic coast, Mr. Kipling appears to have caught a severe cold which developed into an acute attack of pneumonia, and for over two weeks he lay in a New York hotel hovering between life and death. Throughout his illness he was fortunate in having the most skilled medical attendance, and to that, to his good constitution, and the devotion with which he was nursed, is due his ability to rally from the attack. Mr. Kipling's eminence in letters, and his protracted and critical illness, have naturally drawn the hearts of all who love the man and his works in deepest sympathy to his bedside. The widespread interest taken in his case was no empty compliment to a man of letters; it expresses far more than this, — a fervid regard for and attachment to Mr. Kipling personally, which testify to the hold he has upon the hearts as well as upon the minds of his myriad admirers. To those, as to us, most welcome was the news of his recovery. A valued life has thus been spared which literature could ill afford to lose, and the hope of all naturally is that Mr. Kipling will be able ere long to resume his pen.

The deep interest in Mr. Kipling's illness manifested on this side of the Atlantic has found no less manifestation in England. There, we are told, the entire nation hung in anxious suspense upon the bulletins daily cabled from New York as to his condition and prospects of recovery. As an evidence of this, and of the warmth of the English heart towards him in the

motherland, the London "Daily News" observes that the grave reports from Mr. Kipling's bedside "will be read with anxious concern in every part of the Empire, for, whatever else he may have done or failed to do, he is himself the great imperial federationist. He has done more than any living writer to bring home a knowledge of England, and what she stands for to the world, to those who only knew England."

"What should they know of England who only England know?"

The "Times" also pays its duty to the novelist-poet, and says that, though "he has sung the pride of Empire, none better, he has at the same time preached its obligations, and inculcated, in ways which men of the world understand, duty, obedience, resignation, and self-denial, as if they were the cornerstones of Empire." Another English journal, the "Daily Telegraph," remarks that "Mr. Kipling's death would be a national calamity. Only in his thirty-fourth year, he has done what has been permitted to very few young men to do in this or any other age. He has reinvigorated the close of the century with a fresh and masculine note, and has given back to his contemporaries faith in their old ideals. In the midst of much effeminate and decadent literature, Mr. Kipling has been vigorous, hopeful, and alert."

Emperor William of Germany has also paid a graceful tribute to the novelist, in a cable despatch forwarded to Mrs. Kipling inquiring as to her husband's condition. In the message the Kaiser describes himself as an enthusiastic admirer of the author and under obligations to him "for the soul-stirring way in which he has sung the deeds of our common race."

The power of an author and his hold upon the affections of the reading world were perhaps never more emphatically attested than they have been in Mr. Kipling's case. As one of our *littérateurs* has said, "Kipling is an English writer who makes us proud that we Americans are of the same blood." The fates have rarely been more propitious than in dealing compassionately with Mr. Kipling throughout his illness, and in sparing to the world's strenuous and virile work a man of rare talent, indomitable spirit, and commanding genius. He and his wife have our deepest sympathies in the loss they have sustained in the death of their young daughter.

**The Pope's
Health**

Pope Leo XIII is full of years, and at his advanced age fainting fits and an attack of pneumonia are premonitions that his life, in the usual course of things, cannot be much prolonged. The surgical operation he has just undergone, in his ninetieth year, must, moreover, make more precarious his hold upon earthly things. With indecent haste, the scuffle within the precincts of the Vatican has already begun to determine who shall be his successor. The chief factions, which are wholly Italian and will be sure to shut out a foreign pontiff, comprise those among the cardinalate who are anxious for, or who oppose, an extension of the political power of the Pope. Another though smaller section is understood to seek a successor to the throne of St. Peter in some unambitious prelate or priest distinguished merely for learning and piety. Such a man, it is stated, has been found in a simple Genoese padre, one of the barefoot Carmelite monks, and his chances of wearing the purple crown are said to be good. The Papacy now more than ever, however, would seem to want a statesman at its head, and it will be well in these times for the Roman Church if, in the next pontiff, it can secure one as moderate in his views and as little of an intriguer as the present holder of the high office. But whoever is to be the choice of the Sacred College, he is not likely to be a man of the cowl, given merely to contemplation and asceticism. He is more certainly to be a prince of the Church, a man of action, and possibly one who in Italy will not be content, as Leo XIII has been, to live at peace with the civil power. The need of the time points, notwithstanding, to a man of moderate rather than of aggressive views, and such, it may be permitted us to hope, may be the successor of the present aged pontiff when the imperious summons calls him hence.

★

**The French
Presidency**

Distracted France has once more had to pass through another of the many crises that have chequered the fortunes of the Third Republic, and this time the crisis has been a tragic one. On the 17th of February President Felix Faure, the head of the nation, died suddenly, it is said of an apoplectic stroke, and the sad event was instantly taken advantage of by the anarchic elements in Paris to seek to overthrow legitimate authority and supplant

it by what a mob of noisy Catilines term "a republic of the people." Had Carlyle lived, he would have enjoyed flinging his scornful epithets at these ranting demagogues of the nation; yet their vaporings were but a flash in the pan, for little but noise came of them. As little, happily, came of the plottings of either of the pretenders to the throne, for, ere they could act, the National Assembly at Versailles proceeded at once to elect a successor. After only a single ballot had been cast—the choice lying between M. Emile Loubet, president of the Senate, and M. Méline, an influential member of the Dupuy cabinet—it elevated M. Loubet to the head of the nation. The vote was a signal victory for the conservative Republicans, and though the decision provoked a bitter attack and frothy protests from Deputy Déroulède, leader of the so-called "League of Patriots," and his mob of socialists and anti-Semites, M. Loubet was forthwith installed as President. But, the election over, the crisis was only just entered upon; for no sooner did the new President assume office than the factions represented by Déroulède, Drumont, De Beaurepaire, and other anti-Dreyfusard interests, broke out in a storm of scurrilous defamation and vehement invective against the choice of the Assembly. The outburst reached a climax on the day of M. Faure's funeral, though the better sense of the nation severely frowned upon it; while the soldiery and the Paris police, by summary arrests and dispersals at the point of the bayonet, at length suppressed it.

Of justification for the ill-mannered explosion, of course there was none. Ill-founded suspicion of being connected with the Panama peculations had something to do with provoking the outburst, but envious jealousies had more; while, for the rest, there was hatred of a man who was supposed to be a revisionist, or, in other words, was favorable to a revision of the iniquitous sentence passed upon Dreyfus, the victim of the army-generals and martyr to the French anti-Jewish crusade. The aspersions, so far as M. Loubet is concerned, were wholly unwarrantable, for the new incumbent of the Élysée—though, like his predecessor, not a man of striking talent,—bears an irreproachable character, and is at the same time moderate in his views, "of good sterling sense, and unimpeachable up-

rightness." Throughout France his election has been hailed with satisfaction, and there is little doubt that he will prove an efficient as well as a worthy President. He has had considerable experience as a public man, and as Prime Minister in 1892, though he had to initiate legislation against the anarchists,—a fact no doubt remembered by his present assailants,—he was favorable to the cause of labor, and has always shown himself to be a discreet and sensible man of affairs. He has, moreover, won his present exalted office by the suffrages of those whom the nation does well to trust; and so France may confidently accept his appointment and congratulate herself that so excellent a man was at hand to tide the country quickly over what might have proved a disastrous crisis, if not a calamitous revolution.

★

*Fear of
Renewed
Fighting in
the Soudan*

Mahdism in the Soudan, it would appear, has been scotched, but not killed. From the sanguinary field of Omdurman, the Khalifa, it will be remembered, succeeded in making good his escape, with, unfortunately for England, a considerable remnant of his Dervish following. He sought safety in the to him familiar recesses of the desert, whither the Sirdar could not effectually follow him, though Colonel Kitchener, the Sirdar's brother, was left with a small fighting contingent to keep watch lest the Khalifa should again rally his routed forces and attempt reprisals. This he is reported now to have done, and in such strength that the Anglo-Egyptian reconnoitring body found it politic to fall back upon the Anglo-Soudanese base at Omdurman. The extent of the new menace is as yet hardly known, though the Sirdar, who is at his old post, has thought it wise to order up fresh English troops from Cairo and to recall all officers who were on furlough. As large numbers of Baggara chiefs are known to have rejoined the Khalifa's standard, and the fanaticism which impels them again to fight the infidel is great, there would seem to be justification for the precautionary measures which we are sure Lord Kitchener will take to protect the recovered Egyptian territory and withstand another onslaught of the fierce tribesmen of the desert. The further issue of the affair can hardly be in doubt; though, unhappily, more blood must be

shed, and perhaps on a still more lavish scale, until civilization in these regions is safe from revolting Mahdism and commerce is free to extend its benign sway. Fortunately there is little at present to be feared from foreign intrigue. France has apparently abandoned her Anglophobic thwarting policy on the Nile, and Italy, weary of her colonial possessions in Africa, has transferred Kassala; while England's understanding with Germany removes any dread of interference from Berlin in opening the door of the Nile to its sources in the equatorial lakes, and thence, marked by a continuous red streak, to the Cape.

★

*Australian
Federation*

The Australian colonies have for many years desired some sort of union among themselves, such as the Canadian Dominion formed in 1867, when British-American confederation was consummated. It has, however, taken them a long while to agree on a basis of union, many of the public men in the colonies fearing to take a leap in the dark, and some doubting the advantages of federation under the prevailing system of party government, while others were averse to the scheme owing to the irreconcilable views held by the respective partisans of protection and free trade. After repeated conferences, which have extended over years, our cousins under the Southern Cross have lately, however, made successful advances towards union, and an Australasian Commonwealth may soon be evolved, with a magnificent heritage which, if politics do not bedevil it, is sure to bring untold blessings to the antipodean peoples. Apart from the question of mutual defence, no insignificant matter in these imperial crusading times, the colonies will in an economic sense gain much by federation, since intercolonial trade will not be hampered, as it has been, by border custom-houses, while the status of the several peoples will be raised and the Commonwealth will bring added dignity and strength to the English crown.

The unionist movement, which owes much to the indefatigable efforts of the Hon. G. H. Reid, Premier of the oldest colony, New South Wales, is designed to embrace, besides that advanced free-trade province, Queensland, South Australia, Victoria, Western Australia, Tasmania, and possibly New Zealand. The

latter and remoter colony, it is feared, however, will stand out, as Newfoundland still stands without the Canadian Dominion. In each of these colonies Enabling Bills were introduced in their respective legislatures and duly voted upon, all of them favoring the scheme; though in the case of New South Wales the vote fell short of the required majority, owing to the restricted conditions under which it was submitted to the people, but which, it is understood, are now to be modified. Some of the objections which have delayed the endorsement of the project by New South Wales include the difficulty of settling the question of representation in the federal Senate and Commons and that of determining the majority in the former which is to decide matters of dispute between the partners in the Federation. Another point raised which protracted discussion on the scheme was as to the choice of the federal capital; but this and all of the graver difficulties have now, we believe, been happily arranged; and the prospect, as we have said, is bright for an early consummation of the union. It is worth recording that the framers of the Commonwealth measure have in the proposed Constitution combined the English parliamentary and the American presidential systems. In drawing upon the American model, they have, however, wisely provided that the federal ministers, as is the case in Canada, shall sit and vote in the popular Chamber, and so be accountable directly to the people, while also being amenable to interrogation in the House by their representatives.

★

The Ministerial Crisis in Spain Since Spain realized her impotence, and her people saw that all was lost in the war with this country, she has naturally sought to hold some one responsible for her calamities. At first the government was wildly assailed, and when the peace treaty came to be negotiated public censure fell heavily upon Sagasta and his fellow-ministers. When time passed, however, and the country saw the humiliation of its lot, and when it realized, on the return of the royal troops from Cuba, the utter failure of the defensive forces of the crown and the ignominy of defeat, it bitterly arraigned the war administration and has loudly clamored for a scapegoat. Since the Cortes met, the contention in both chambers has been violent, and

the ministry have been baited daily by angry deputies, backed by rival political factions in the kingdom and by inflamed mobs and an incensed and outraged people. After sturdily facing the menace, but without prospect of exculpating himself and his administration, Sagasta has at last tired of the tumult and resigned. For some days after, the Queen Regent sought other aid to carry on the government and secure a ministry that would press the peace treaty to ratification; but failing in this she has directed the Cortes to be dissolved and an appeal to be made to the country. What the result of this action will be, and how far it may open the door to Carlist intrigue or to Weyler demagogism — both of them serious perils to the State — all onlookers and the friends of poor Spain will be eager to learn. Late cable despatches announce the formation of a new government under Señor Silvela as premier and minister of foreign affairs. Meanwhile the generals and admirals who were entrusted with the active conduct of the war, with one or more of the colonial governors, have been impeached and are to be brought to trial. Blanco, Toral, and Cervera, it is understood, are to be court-martialed; while to the list of victims has now been added Admiral Montojo, whose fleet Dewey demolished nearly eleven months ago at Cavité. Montojo, it is cabled, has just been imprisoned at Madrid. Spain's war administration was clearly far from perfect; in this respect she is in the same boat with ourselves, though happily on our side there is a difference. Those who have searchings of heart over the failures of democracy may thus feel assured when they see that under a monarchy the national government is not immaculate.

★

A TIMELY volume of patriotic poems, entitled "War-Time Echoes," has just been issued by THE WERNER COMPANY, publishers, of Akron, Ohio, uniform with a companion work, "Martial Recitations." The volume comprises a collection of, in the main, fugitive verse, carefully selected, and well adapted for recitation purposes, dealing with the stirring incidents of the Spanish-American War. The authors and the sources of the poems are cited, where it has been possible to make acknowledgment. The collection, which has been made by Prof. J. H. Brownlee, includes, besides dialect pieces, a number of poems of unusual merit, with a high patriotic note; and not a few sing the triumphs of our ships of war in the notable naval victories.

CHRONICLE OF THE MONTH

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 7.—Reports from Manila announced that the American lines around Manila had been extended and that the rebels were in retreat... General Otis's official reports indicate that forty-nine Americans have been killed in the fighting and one hundred and fifty wounded. He estimates the Filipino loss at about four thousand... President McKinley commuted the sentence of Commissary-General Eagan from dismissal to suspension from duty for six years without loss of pay... The House committee on naval affairs decided to recommend the construction of twelve warships and will probably add three more to that number... The criminal section of the Court of Cassation has concluded its inquiry into the Dreyfus trial... The English Parliament met; after the reading of the speech from the throne in the House of Lords, the premier made an address on England's foreign policy... John Dillon, at a meeting of the anti-Parnellite members of Parliament, resigned the leadership of the Irish parliamentary party.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 8.—General Otis cabled from Manila that Aguinaldo has requested a cessation of hostilities and a conference. The American commander declined to answer him... Rev. James Monroe Taylor, president of Vassar College, was elected president of Brown University... The Queen Regent of Spain has signed the decrees convoking the Cortes on February 20 and reestablishing the constitutional guarantees.

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 9.—There is no report of a renewal of fighting in the Philippines; the Filipinos are concentrating north of Manila; it is thought the movement against Iloilo by General Miller is already under way; insurgents, at the order of Admiral Dewey, evacuated the village of San Roque, near Cavité... The United States gunboat "Nashville," having on board the body of General Calixto Garcia, arrived at Havana... The court of inquiry to investigate General Miles's charges against army beef was appointed; the members are Generals Wade and Davis and Colonel Gillespie... The war investigating commission submitted its report to the President and was dissolved... The English House of Commons, by a vote of 221 to 89, rejected an amendment to the address to the throne relating to "lawlessness in the church"... Rear-Admiral Douglas, commanding the British East Indian station, sailed for Muscat, to support the protest against the Sultan of Oman's lease of a coaling-station to France.

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 10.—The United States troops in Luzon, supported by a fire from the fleet, attacked and captured Caloocan after a short and decisive encounter in which the losses of the natives were heavy... The peace treaty was signed by the President and Secretary Hay... The librarianship of Congress has been offered to and accepted by Representative Barrows, of Massachusetts... President McKinley sent a message to Congress urging legislation at the present session for a cable to Hawaii, Guam, and the Philippines... The French Chamber of Deputies adopted the trial revision bill by a vote of 332 to 216... The Spanish Government announced that the Caroline Islands would not be sold.

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 11.—The Filipino insurgents were again attacked by the American forces north of Manila and driven from their fortified camp into the interior; the American loss was four killed and thirty-two wounded, the Filipinos losing heavily; the monitor "Monadnock" and the cruiser "Charleston" shelled the enemy from the bay... A delegation of Hawaiians had an interview with President McKinley regarding the situation in the islands, which is considered critical in the absence of legislation by Congress for the government of the territory... The Russian Government is greatly increasing the garrisons at Port Arthur and Talien-Wan, in China... The brother of Professor Andree discredits the story that the bodies of the explorer and his two companions have been discovered in northern Siberia.

SUNDAY, FEBRUARY 12.—General Otis cables a report that the "insurgent representative at Washington" sent word to Aguinaldo to drive out the Americans before the arrival of reinforcements... The report of the war investigating commission, which was presented to President McKinley last week, has been made public; it denies all General Miles's statements in regard to the beef supplied to the army... Baron von Bülow, in a public statement in the Reichstag, said there was no truth in reports of German designs against American interests.

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 13.—Under General Miller the American forces captured Iloilo; there were no casualties on the American side... Desultory firing by the insurgents continued near Manila, but no general attack was made... The severe storm compelled the abandonment of train service at Philadelphia and Baltimore; the snow extended far south, and

caused much suffering and loss. . . . An attack on the English House of Lords was made by the Liberals in the House of Commons, the veto power being the issue. . . . England's claims in Nicaragua, it is said in London, will be relinquished to Americans for a reasonable consideration.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 14.—Details of the capture of Iloilo state that the entire Chinese and Filipino quarters of the city were destroyed by the fire said to have been started by the Filipinos; American troops now occupy the defences there. . . . Secretary of the Navy Long has issued an order prohibiting the sale or issue of malt or alcoholic liquor to sailors at naval stations. . . . Latest advices from Samoa state that anarchy prevails there. . . . The situation caused by the Nicaragua revolution is becoming more critical, and the gunboat "Marietta" has been ordered to Bluefields.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 15.—The first anniversary of the battleship "Maine's" destruction was observed in Havana and elsewhere. . . . A body of Filipinos who had gathered in front of the California volunteers at Manila were attacked and driven further inland. . . . The Filipino junta in London announces that the natives of Luzon have decided to try guerrilla tactics against the Americans. . . . For his services in capturing Iloilo the rank of brigadier-general in the regular army is to be conferred on Gen. Marcus P. Miller. . . . Secretary Alger has ordered the ninth regiment of regular infantry to San Francisco, to be held in readiness to go to Manila.

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 16.—President McKinley spoke on the Philippine question at a banquet of the Home Market Club in Boston. . . . Occasional skirmishes between Americans and Filipinos took place at the Manila outposts. . . . Americans are now permitting trading vessels to enter and leave Iloilo. . . . M. Faure, president of the French republic, died from apoplexy. . . . Owing to the lease to France of a coaling station on the coast of Oman, the British Government has sent an ultimatum to Oman's Sultan. . . . All the Spanish captains who took part in the battles of Manila and Santiago are to be tried by court-martial.

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 17.—The court of inquiry appointed to investigate General Miles's charges regarding army beef held a secret session in Washington. . . . Paris remains quiet, and the question of a successor to M. Faure will be decided at the meeting of the national assembly; MM. Loubet and Deschanel are prominent candidates.

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 18.—President McKinley returned to Washington from his visit to Boston. . . . The army beef court of inquiry held an executive session devoted to selecting witnesses and outlining methods of procedure. . . . Colonel W. J. Bryan delivered an address

on "Imperialism" in Ann Arbor, Mich., advising independence for the Filipinos under a protectorate. . . . Lord Charles Beresford was the guest of honor at a dinner by the Commercial Club of Chicago. . . . M. Loubet, president of the Senate, was chosen president of France at the meeting of the national assembly at Versailles by a vote of 483 to 279 for M. Méline. . . . Demonstrations in the streets of Paris by the national party were checked by the police.

SUNDAY, FEBRUARY 19.—The rebel trenches near Manila were bombarded by the "Buffalo"; the insurgents are reported to be massing for an attack. . . . It was reported from Berlin that Germany and the United States had made protests to each other regarding Samoa. . . . Statistics of the Treasury Department show that, despite discriminating duties, exports from this country to Canada are steadily increasing. . . . The War Department made a special plea for the passage of the Hull army bill by the present Congress. . . . National party newspapers in Paris severely criticise President Loubet, but the election is generally satisfactory. . . . Robert P. Porter starts for Berlin to-day; it is supposed that his mission is connected with German discrimination against American products. . . . Rioting in the streets of Paris continued, but the disorders were checked by the police. . . . King Oscar has recovered his health and resumed the throne of Sweden.

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 20.—The Anglo-American joint high commission adjourned to meet in Quebec on August 2. . . . A statement from Rear-Admiral Schley in answer to reflections on his conduct in the war was made public. . . . General Miles testified before the court of inquiry appointed to investigate his charges against beef furnished to the army. . . . The Cortes met at Madrid, and attacks on generals and ministers regarding the conduct of the war were made in both Houses. . . . The French Chamber of Deputies met and voted 160,000 francs for the funeral expenses of M. Faure. . . . An heir to the throne of the Khedive of Egypt was born. . . . The Cretan chamber was opened by Prince George, and a bill embodying the Cretan constitution was submitted.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 21.—Leading natives of the island of Negros, in the Philippines, have hoisted the American flag there. . . . A number of officers who took part in the Santiago campaign testified before the army beef court of inquiry; they united in condemning the canned roast beef, but found little fault with the refrigerated meat. . . . President Loubet's message was greeted with applause by members of the Chamber of Deputies and of the Senate. . . . The Sultan of Oman revoked the concession of a coaling station to France, under threat of bombardment by an English admiral.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 22.—Delegates from the island of Negros had a conference with

General Otis at Manila, and put themselves unreservedly under his authority. . . . An outbreak of incendiarism, with some fighting, took place in Manila, and the loss to property was heavy. . . . The Khalifa has left Sher Keila and is marching north; British officers on furlough have been recalled. . . . It is said that the procurator-general will ask the Court of Cassation to annul the conviction of Dreyfus without a retrial. . . . Señor Salmeron, in the Chamber of Deputies, Madrid, attacked the policy of the Spanish Government. . . . Police precautions are being taken in Paris to prevent any demonstration at the funeral of President Faure.

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 23.—Insurgents near Manila made attacks on the American line, but were repulsed; great precautions have been taken to prevent a repetition of trouble in the city. . . . A compromise has been reached on the army reorganization bill, which will probably prevent an extra session of Congress. . . . Quiet marked the funeral procession of M. Faure, but disturbances took place after the funeral, which were suppressed by the police, and Déroulède, Millevoeye, and Hébert, Nationalist leaders, were arrested.

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 24.—Quiet was restored in Manila; there was skirmishing along the lines, in which several Americans were wounded. . . . The Navy Department received a dispatch from Admiral Dewey requesting that the "Oregon" be sent to him at once, "for political reasons". . . . It was reported from Samoa that both Malietoa Tanu and Mataafa are not in favor of German control.

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 25.—Admiral Dewey reported to the Navy Department that the gunboat "Petrel" had received the surrender of Cebu. . . . The President nominated William R. Day, formerly Secretary of State and peace commissioner, to be judge of the Sixth Judicial Circuit. . . . The extradition treaty with Mexico has been agreed upon and forwarded to Washington for action by the Senate. . . . The Italian Government declares that it will take no part in the disarmament conference if the Vatican is represented there. . . . Martinez de Campos will submit to the Spanish Senate a motion for an inquiry into the conduct of the war.

SUNDAY, FEBRUARY 26.—The rebels at Manila continue their annoying tactics, one American being killed and four wounded by sharpshooters; further details of the occupation of Cebu have reached Manila; at Iloilo General Miller reports all quiet. . . . Domiciliary visits have been made to the houses of leading Royalists in Paris and a large quantity of seditious matter seized; the Duc d'Orleans has arrived at Turin.

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 27.—Rebels in Luzon are weakening, and Aguinaldo is reported to be ready to make terms with Americans. . . . The army beef court examined a number of

enlisted men, all of whom testified that they had been made sick by the meat. . . . The German foreign office has informed the Washington authorities that American fruit in bond may pass through Germany. . . . A motion for a parliamentary inquiry into the conduct of the war was passed in the Spanish Senate. . . . It is reported that President Loubet has signed an order dismissing General Zurlinden as military governor, and appointing a firm believer in the innocence of Dreyfus to the office.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 28.—The German Government has ordered all its warships withdrawn from Philippine waters, and has placed the lives and property of its subjects under the protection of the United States, thus avoiding any possibility of a clash. . . . The beef court of inquiry held another session, at which the canned meat prepared in various forms was placed before witnesses, and they were asked to designate the kind they had eaten in Cuba. . . . The Hamburg-American line steamer "Moravia" was wrecked off Sable Island. . . . Reports of the Ameer of Afghanistan's death were denied in the English House of Commons.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 1.—Baron Herschell, formerly Lord Chancellor of England and a member of the Anglo-American Joint High Commission, died suddenly in Washington. . . . The President has appointed Senator Gray, of Delaware, Judge of the Third Judicial Circuit, in recognition of his services as a peace commissioner. . . . Premier Sagasta handed the resignation of the Spanish ministry to the Queen Regent at Madrid. . . . The French Senate, by a vote of 158 to 131, adopted the Dreyfus trial revision bill. . . . Emperor Nicholas has named Baron Staal, ambassador to Great Britain, as the Russian plenipotentiary to the conference regarding the limitation of armaments. . . . Advices from Samoa say that friction continues, but that Malietoa was growing in favor. . . . The British steamer "Labrador" was wrecked near Moville, Ireland.

THURSDAY, MARCH 2.—Natives of the islands of Malabate and Ticao have asked General Otis to send troops there. . . . The President signed the bill creating the rank of admiral in the navy. . . . The army beef court of inquiry held a session of unusual interest, at which much testimony both against and in support of General Miles's charges was given. . . . The War Department ordered six regiments of regular troops to Manila as reinforcements for General Otis. . . . Emperor William has promoted his brother, Prince Henry of Prussia, to command the German cruiser squadron.

FRIDAY, MARCH 3.—Rebels fired on the outposts beyond San Pedro Macati, near Manila, but were driven back by gunboats. . . . Nearly 3,000 men have been thrown out of work in the province of Santiago by the stoppage of public improvements upon orders from Havana.

CORRESPONDENCE—INQUIRIES ANSWERED

A YOUTH'S AFTER-SCHOOL-AGE READING

A CORRESPONDENT has sent *SELF CULTURE* some lists of "The Best Books" recommended for a young man's reading at the period of his leaving school to enter upon life's career. The lists, fourteen in number, specifying ten books each, were, it appears, prepared by prominent townspeople, at the solicitation of an enterprising journal, and they were forwarded to *SELF CULTURE* with a request for some remarks upon their value for the purpose in view, and, if practicable, for condensation to a single selection of the ten best books in all.

It were easy to say that in the main we endorse the selections, which from many points of view are unobjectionable and manifestly have been intelligently if not thoughtfully made; it is not so easy, however, to make an arbitrary choice of the ten best books, and to affirm that they, above all else, are the books best suited for a young man to read when he has left school. In any selection whatever, much necessarily depends on the mental grasp of the lad for whom we are asked to cater, as well as on the education he has had, before one can form any judgment of the books best adapted to serve his purpose in pursuing a course of after-school reading and enable him to get out of them the material that shall not only keep alive the taste for reading but develop the student habit, and at the same time build up his mental powers and form his character. This is so obviously true that it need not be dwelt upon. But at the outset it is well to keep the fact in mind, since it is too often overlooked in selecting books for the young to read, and thus a distaste, rather than a relish and affection, for books is unconsciously created.

What we have said on this point may be better illustrated after looking briefly at the lists to which we have referred. They comprise, besides the Bible, the works of Homer, Plutarch, Dante, Shakespeare, Milton, Bunyan, Gibbon, Hume, Scott, Macaulay, Carlyle, Dickens, Tennyson, Ruskin, Irving, Emerson, and Longfellow,

with good histories of England and of the United States, and biographies of Washington and Lincoln. In one or two of the lists the works of Goethe and Mommsen, Victor Hugo, De Tocqueville, and Guizot are named, while philosophy is but in one instance mentioned, and science is represented almost exclusively by Darwin.

Now the merits of this selection from the great world writers is of course not to be doubted. It may, however, be open to question, first, whether some of the authors named are to be recommended to a youth fresh from school without preliminary study of their era, the character of their writings, and their place in literature; and, secondly, and with regard especially to the novelists, whether fiction is the most desirable reading for a lad to enter upon when preparing himself for the practical duties and responsibilities of manhood. In considering the question we premise that the young men whom it is desired to help by a suggested course of reading are those who have had only an ordinary school education, and not that of a college, and who cannot have had much familiarity with the great writers in literature, or had their minds so helpfully trained that they will be likely to proceed with either avidity or profit to the reading of the world's great classics. This is an aspect of the matter that, with the best possible intentions on the part of their elders, is apt to be overlooked in prescribing courses of reading for the young; while the suggestions, however good in themselves, are apt to be rendered nugatory by obvious ignorance of the mind and tastes, and of the intended pursuits and vocations, of those to whom we proffer advice.

Much, in general, may be said for the environing of a young man with books, and steeping him in the atmosphere of a library; as some one has put it, it may be better for him that he should read even an indifferent book than read nothing at all. This may be all very well for the mere dilettante, who may be permitted as

he likes to browse among books, or, in the case of the rich idler, to eschew them altogether for other delights and pleasures. But it does not meet the wants of the youth whose interests we are considering, and who has his way to make in the world, and his mind and character to form on the soundest and most satisfactory basis. Whether he thinks of it or not, education with him ought to be a serious thing and one not to be toyed with, far less disregarded or treated of on the supposition that he is happily done with the grind of schooling. If he is wise, he should feel that, as he starts out in life, his education has only begun, and that beyond the mere acquisition of knowledge there are delights in learning, gain in the training and developing of the mind, and social distinction in being known as a man of culture. If he recognizes this, and has already felt something of the influence of books and their power to inform the life and fashion the character of a man, then arises the question how best shall he be helped to seek in books that communion which profiteth by coming in contact with great minds and that makes for one's mental and material advancement.

In addressing one's self practically to this purpose, the chief obstacle met with is the want of adequate equipment or any decided taste for serious reading in the youth fresh from school. As usually happens, this has first to be taught or elicited, and hence it seems to us a mistake to set before a young man an array of heavy and laborious reading ere the acquisitive habit is formed and the mind has been trained to follow intelligently the author's thought or the purpose and drift of the work he is recommended to study. It would be ungracious to blame the schools overmuch, or to arraign them too severely, for failing to inculcate and develop this interest in the acquisition of knowledge in the youth under training; but the fact remains that the interest has, all too commonly, not been evoked, and the lad goes from school with his brain stuffed, but with an impoverished and undeveloped mind. Consequently we find that on leaving school the groundwork of self-education has hardly been laid, and the habit of assiduous reading has scarcely, or at best only superficially, been formed. This is not the preparation that will fit the youth for a course of reading in Homer,

Dante, or Milton, or attract him to anything that will educate his taste and enrich and expand his mind.

Our own experience and observation may mislead us in making these remarks; but we incline to think that in the main we are not far wrong in premising that, in the matter of books and their reading designed for the youth who has just left school and stands on the threshold of active life, the mature, educated mind must, in playing the rôle of mentor, consider the elementary aspects of the question. Nor, were the plea one for the better inculcation of manners in youth,—if we may be pardoned for saying so,—would the task be a less elementary one, for, so far, again, as we have observed, there is room also—and that over the whole country—for a serious course of instruction in demeanor, whatever other virtues and graces may underlie the externals of youthful presence and bearing. Here, however, the home perhaps is at fault, rather than the school. But wherever the blame lies, there is admittedly need for discountenancing schoolroom departures from grace in speech and bearing, and in impressing upon the mind of youth that failure or success in life is no less determined by a young man's personality and manner of address than by his mental resources and ability. This, however, is a digression.

It need hardly be pointed out that the shortcomings of the schools do not affect the recommendations of the lists in the way of novel-reading, save in the matter of the inculcation of the taste necessary to the appreciation of what is good and what is bad in a work of fiction. The lack of educated taste is also responsible, with the absence of a trained judgment, for the failure to appreciate the moral as well as the literary qualities in a novelist, which give distinction to his work and impart an indescribable charm to the educated reader. But it is doubtless too much to expect results of this kind from the schools, except perhaps in the case of advanced pupils, endowed with minds of more than ordinary grasp and with a rare development of the critical faculty. In the latter case there is obviously less need of direction and suggestion from seniors; while in the numberless public libraries throughout the land, and in the care they usually manifest in the selection of good novels, there is ample opportunity to

indulge the reading taste in the field of fiction. It is otherwise with the inexperienced and callow-minded youth; and the service is a real one in pointing out what is wholesome in fiction and what is debasing and pernicious. The service becomes the greater when we have to deal with the wider and less well-known departments of literary thought and activity. Here there is need, and in large measure, for the practical counsels of learning and wisdom.

The point we would make, however, as has been hinted, is that, in the case of the masterpieces of human thought, we have first to train the mind, in coming to those heavier and graver studies, by such introductions as will make them reasonably intelligible to young understandings, and so attract rather than repel the youth in the study of them. With this idea we would recommend the preliminary reading of those finger-posts, primers, or introductions to literary, historical, and scientific study which are issued for the young student or the English-speaking reader unversed in the classics or a novice in historical studies. The importance of these little manuals is, we feel sure, largely overlooked, as are those "broken meats" in the field of history suitable for simple digestions, such as the "Epochs of Ancient History," and the "Epochs of Modern History," each volume of which deals with a particular era and nation in the world's annals. Similarly, in regard to literary studies, we think it well that the young student should first be given a work like Stopford Brooke's "Primer of English Literature," or Beers's "Century of American Literature," that he may be made familiar with the distinctive eras of creative thought in letters and their relation to one another, as well as with the leading authors of each period. The advanced student may be referred to the more extensive manuals of literature, or to such critical monographs on the principal authors as are to be found in Morley's "English Men of Letters," in Dudley Warner's "American Men of Letters," or his "Library of the World's Best Literature"; to the series of the "Great Writers," published by Walter Scott, of London, with selections dealing with the great Continental writers embraced in the late Mrs. Oliphant's "Foreign Classics for English Readers." Other introductory surveys of literature, with critical expositions of the

writings of the best men of letters, might be mentioned; but the object is not to exhaust the list of such works, but to point to the expediency of the student being in possession of these or like introductory guides before he is asked to explore unaided the vast fields of the world's literature.

The same course we have suggested for history and literature we would advise being taken with respect to other departments of thought and activity—namely, in philosophy, in the practical arts, and in science. It is the rational plan pursued in acquiring languages, since we do not expect the young student of the classics to master Homer, Demosthenes, or Herodotus save by first passing through the Greek *Delectus* or the *Principia Latina*; nor, in regard to languages or any other study, ought we to look for the furnishing of the mind without first, as Montaigne used to say, having to forge it.

Especially must we pursue this course in science and the practical arts. In fact, unless there is unusual aptitude for handicraft, keen use of one's eyes, hands, and the powers of observation and reflection, with a lively interest in the marvels of the universe as well as in the minute things of organic and inorganic life, the youth will make an indifferent scientist, and so will be but lightly drawn to the intelligent study of scientific books. To what that interest and study, where there is not the aptitude, recent literature is especially rich in handbooks, which open the portals of the sciences and make intelligible as well as attractive their revelations and the methods of patient research and discovery. Here the Science Primers, edited by the late Professor Huxley, with his own inspiring introductory volume, will be found of high service and the best of stimulants, together with the various series of books about common things, and the little monographs issued in London and New York, such as the *Story of the Earth*, of the *Stars*, of the *Solar System*, of *Plant Life*, of *Primitive Man*, of *Extinct Civilizations of the East*, of *Electricity*, of a *Piece of Coal*, etc. Of further and helpful interest are such kindred works as Clodd's "Childhood of the World," Lubbock's "Beauties of Nature," Kingsley's "Glaucus," Hugh Miller's "Old Red Sandstone," Huxley's "Lay Sermons," Tyndall's "Fragments of Science for Unscientific Readers," Faraday's "Chemistry of a Candle," Macé's

"History of a Mouthful of Bread," Blaikie's "How to Become Strong," Proctor's "The Expanse of Heaven," and Gilbert White's "Natural History of Selborne."

But the subject, we fear, is carrying us too far, though pages might still be written, and with presumed profit, enumerating the books that have been compiled to whet the appetite for reading, and at the same time disclose new worlds of thought and interest to the youthful mind. It is through such works, happily brought

within their ken, and the stimulus given by books of inspiring biography and of achievement under difficulties, that young minds are helpfully employed and built up, and the impulse given to the doing of heroic deeds and the search for higher things. In attaining great things, however, either in the way of culture or in anything else, we must begin at the beginning; and where, as is often the case, there is no aptitude or inclination, we have either to create or to coax it.

G. M. A.

I AM greatly impressed with the information embodied in *SELF CULTURE* and desire to ask a few questions of it, which have come up in our reading circle for debate, namely: Could Canada maintain her independence? Would annexation to the United States, in your opinion, be better for Canada than her own independence? Can Canada make her own treaties; to become valid must they first obtain the sanction of England? Your reply to these inquiries in an early issue will be appreciated.

Canada, no doubt, would make a vigorous effort to maintain her independence were it menaced. That she could do so effectively against this country or for long is doubtful, considering the great disparity between the two populations and their respective resources. The country is obviously more vulnerable today than it was in 1812-14, when it made a sturdy defence against American power. Did she effect a friendly separation from England, her mother-country, and set up an independent government, with joint guarantee from the United States and from England, she would no doubt do well for herself, though the tie and connection with England is admittedly no disadvantage to her.

It has been a fiercely debated question whether Canada would or would not be better off were she annexed to the United States. There is a deep-rooted sentiment in Canada against absorption, though Canadians acknowledge the gain that would accrue were the customs line between the countries abolished and reciprocal trade established. The feeling generally is, we believe, on both sides of the line, that there is room for the two separate experiments in government under a democracy, and that extensions of trade relations can be brought about without imperilling the independence of the weaker, poorer, and less populous nation. Canada, as she now is, cannot make treaties

with foreign nations; England reserving that power to herself.

★

I have been reading the programmes for clubs in *SELF CULTURE* with especial interest of late. A club of which I am a member desires to study American literature next year; would you kindly direct me to some one of your staff from whom we could get a practical programme upon the subject.

The increase in the number of inquiries and the cost entailed in answering them in *SELF CULTURE* has led us to curtail the privilege, if not to put a stop to it, especially where the correspondent is not a member of the Home University League. We would say, however, that you will do well to possess yourself of a copy of Beers's "Outline Sketch of American Literature," Beers's "Century of American Literature," or any good manual of the native literature, which you can procure through your local bookseller. You will then be able to select the era your club wishes especially to deal with, or the branch of the topic that may happen most to interest your members—whether prose writers, writers of verse, historians, novelists, or essayists. The usual plan of study is to take the authors chronologically, in some such order as the following: The Colonial period; the Revolutionary period, the first Creative era, dealing with Washington Irving, E. A. Poe, N. P. Willis, Bryant, Cooper, Allston, etc.; the orators—Webster, Everett, etc.; the transcendentalists—Emerson, Ripley, Parker, Alcott; the Cambridge poets—Longfellow, O. W. Holmes, J. R. Lowell; the historians—Prescott, Sparks, Palfrey, Bancroft, Parkman, Hildreth, Fiske, Justin Winsor, J. B. McMaster, Woodrow Wilson, Professor Sloane; the anti-slavery leaders and writers—Mrs. Stowe, Wendell Phillips, W. L. Garrison, J. G. Whittier; down through the Civil War period and the blossoming out of the native literature in the writers of the modern era.

SOCIOLOGY, CIVICS, AND ECONOMICS

THE LARGER POLITICAL ECONOMY

IT IS, as a rule, an ill-advised task to put new wine into an old bottle; and yet, so important are the meanings of the words we daily use, so great is the power of language over men's minds, and therefore over their lives, that in some cases an attempt to rescue a term from an unworthy or narrow significance is commendable. An expression standing greatly in need of such change of content is "political economy." Let us consider what this expression should convey.

There is a domestic economy, and there is a national or public economy. Currently the word "economy" has reference to money concerns; but originally it signified "house-law,"* and there should be a return to the original, the broader, significance. Domestic economy then would include all that relates to the administration and governance of the household; and the national or political "house-law" would apply in like manner to the concerns of the people of the organized nation. According to the books, political economy, instead of being thus a body of wisdom for the guidance of the great conduct of nations, is merely the "science of wealth" or the "science of exchange"; it deals with the accumulation, the exchange, and the distribution of material wealth alone; and it deals with man, for the most part, as a money-making animal mechanism, without reference to the higher parts of his nature. Full of an ambition to make an exact "natural science" covering their field of labor, the great minds that first developed the political economy of the books ignored the vast and noble field of the science of national wisdom, of the real "political economy," and confined themselves to a mere furrow, and to an imaginary type of man existing for nothing but material accumulation, and actuated by no motives but worldly gain for self.

I am aware that several writers on economics have attempted to justify the separation of whatever concerns the pro-

duction and all exchange of wealth from the other elements of human life, on the ground that similar arbitrary partitioning of a field of nature for convenience in research is resorted to in other sciences. I would freely admit, also, that in its thus restricted scope the study of economics has accomplished not a little of real value, has ascertained laws and principles which actually operate and are of great importance. Yet it is to be insisted upon that what concerns deeply the life of men cannot wisely be regarded in a narrow and abstract way. The broader meaning of political economy, a meaning that shall take into account human nature as a whole, not merely a facet of it, is at once the truer and more helpful meaning. The deep and serious problems inevitably to be met in a study even of our industrial system itself cannot be thoroughly or truly solved by an arbitrarily narrowed view. Whatever concerns mankind must, if we would deal with it philosophically or wisely, be approached from broader and higher ground than that of current economics.

If "political economy" is to mean merely a study of the methods of accumulating and distributing material "goods" (the standards of what is really good or bad for a people being settled by supply and demand), and if the people come fully under the influence of this degraded but too prevalent view of the subject of national wisdom, what wonder if we become a nation of money-getters, absorbed in a mad and too often unscrupulous greed of selfish gain, through public or private corruption. What wonder if we begin to lose our hold upon personal and national ideals and to slip backward in respect of spiritual life and true enlightenment, clutching gold as the only good, till what might have been wrought into the noblest civilization of time is sunk into a mire of sordidness and wretched folly.

Surely it is worth while to determine that national economy must deal with

*Greek *oikos*, a house, and *nomos*, law.

larger, greater questions than tariffs in this interest and in that, or such and such regulations of factories or inheritances. A true house-law for the nation must grapple with the great fundamental problems of the nation's life; with the immense and yet unsolved problem of education; with an efficient and reasonable dispensing of justice; with the securing of official rectitude and competency; with the sorely needed readjustment of taxation; and with a philosophical solution of the vast problems of industry. In all these ways (unless we adopt the principle of the enlightened anarchist, and labor toward a reduction of government to a practical zero, and the expansion of individual liberty to complete self-direction) the machinery of government must be increasingly used to compass the real well-being of its rightful owners and masters, the whole people,—an end which can never be gained by the unregulated scramble for wealth, in which the most will ever of necessity be unprovided.

Any principles capable of guiding legislation in such lines as these must go back of Adam Smith for their beginnings. We must bring our modern so-called "advanced" modes of thought and life to a severe and searching test: Do they best conduce to human well-being and happiness? Can it not be possible that some peoples of the near or remote past or of some distant part of earth to-day have really come nearer to genuine national success than our boasted civilization of machinery and of what we call "hustling" for "number one" has brought us? Can we learn no lessons from Athens or Switzerland, or even from China? The wisdom for national guidance is not to be found in Mill or Fawcett, perhaps, so much as in Plato or Confucius. National well-being involves deeper lore than that of supply and demand, of the principle of division of labor, of theories of rents and profits and values, of taxation as it is, and of *laissez-faire*. Nations cannot wisely be conducted on any such narrow notions of what are their real concerns. There are all-important elements in individual and national life, of which no table of statistics can hint.

I mention both individual and national life because the principles of the true political economy deeply concern both. Not only is the importance of those features of the private life which are affected by

the conduct of the nation not to be estimated, but the teachings of a true national wisdom are directly useful to the private citizen in showing how he may conduct his life so as to make his efforts fall in with the purposes and welfare of the people in general. Furthermore, it is the people, the collection of individual citizens, who should in the last analysis direct and mould the administration of the government; and if that government shall ever come to be administered according to a broad and truly enlightened economy, it must be through the wisdom and determination of the people. Therefore, in a democracy, political economy must not be a study for the few only; it must be mastered in its essential principles by the rank and file of the citizenship, else we shall never be rightly and beneficently in possession of our governmental machinery.

Political economy must be regarded not as an abstruse and difficult field of research; it should rather be recognized as a body of common-sense conclusions, a sound and rational scheme of national policy, to be understood and insisted upon until accepted by the greater number of voters. Thus the true political economy will be a necessary study and a part of the mental equipment not only for those who are to administer the government, but for those for whom the government exists,—the people at large. Until this truth is clearly seen and acted upon, it is useless to expect a wise and just administration of the government of a democracy. All depends upon the intelligence of the people. And, as before, the true science of national well-being will be, when written,—if it can ever be fully written,—of immeasurable use in the guidance, not only of national and State legislation, but of every individual's private life as well.

Of course it is idle to expect anything like universal wisdom in the near future. But an approach to wisdom in the public administrations is a movement not beyond possibility, however gradual it may be. Every voice, every earnest effort for an increase of national wisdom counts, and will not be as the voice of one crying in a wilderness. Men's minds are ever many, of course. Entire unanimity is neither possible nor desirable. But there is surely a certain ground on which all intelligent opinions may meet

and coöperate. That common ground, in respect of national concerns, is the field of the true political economy. Clear surveyors of the realm of thought must seek to mark out that ground. Pens and voices will be busy to some purpose when the vast need of the true political wisdom is recognized. When men shall have been led through a process of education to meet and act upon this common ground, they may at last hope for a government that shall be and do what a government ought to be and do.

I would not depreciate what the economists of the past have accomplished. Much that they have announced is true, and must therefore be taken into account so long as the conditions they imply exist. The laws of value and of prices, or the law of rent, for instance, in so far as they are sound, must be recognized by legislators and by citizens. But I maintain that there are problems encountered in every book on political economy that cannot be solved by a science based upon assumptions and narrowed by arbitrary restrictedness of view. Indeed, in some of its fundamental definitions the current economics is unphilosophical and erroneous.

For example, take the usual treatment of the important fundamental word "wealth." It is one of the greatest debts owed Mr. Ruskin's writings on economics that he has thrown light on the true meaning of this word, and has shown how a narrow and unsound notion of its meaning has vitiated and weakened the writings of economists.

Wealth, according to Mr. Ruskin, does not include all things made and sold by men, and it does rightly include much that men can never make or sell. In the usual treatises many things are reckoned as wealth which are in reality sources of ill-being. Ignorant or misguided popular demand may cause certain things to be produced by labor in large quantities, and yet, so far from this labor's producing wealth, it is in reality producing only, as Mr. Ruskin puts it, "illth." Adulterated liquors or foods, "cheap" because worthless fabrics, whose worthlessness and real costliness only adds to the burdens of the deceived poor, cannot be regarded as true wealth. No more can the most of our great tobacco and whiskey traffic, which we calculate proudly and exhibit in census reports of national wealth. (Parallel with this folly, by the way, is our boasting of

mere increase of population, as if the production of thousands—perhaps ignorant, sickly, degraded, and wretched—were a thing to brag of!) Again, there are manufactured articles, accepted and even demanded by a depraved and uneducated popular taste,—articles many of which could be dispensed with altogether to advantage, and which certainly would happily be displaced by more beautiful and really useful things.

Now some sound thinking as to what things are really wealth, true contributions to the general well-being, would benefit every man in his private life and give him wisdom in his spending. Then, instead of encouraging the wasting of men's lives in the manufacture of the ugly, the tawdry, and the really useless, we might learn to surround ourselves with simplicity and tastefulness, and to encourage skilful and artistic handiwork, by buying things of real use and durability and beauty. This one lesson, once generally learned and acted upon, would mean an immeasurable increase of national well-being and true happiness among all classes of society.

Whether a thing is wealth or not does not at all depend upon whether it is hard or easy to get, nor upon the esteem in which it is held. The simple test is, does the thing help to increase rational human comfort and happiness? If this plain test were applied with any general approach to saneness and fairness, in many particulars an enlightened people would pity where we now admire, would check and sternly prohibit some things we suffer to be multiplied. A thoughtless or misdirected public demands and accepts what is good neither for it nor even for the producers who gain their living in the unwisely promoted manufacture. It is depraving to work in producing the useless and the ugly. Such evils as these are beyond the reach of law. If the people desire obscene literature they will find means to be supplied with it. So with ill-made, tasteless, shoddy "goods" of all sorts. Laws cannot well restrain the traffic of the devil. The people's taste and judgment must be educated: this is the only hope.

One point further on this subject. Just as some things are not wealth (bad whiskey, for instance), so some wealth is not things. Much of what is in the truest and highest sense wealth to a nation is

not visible or measurable. Man's life in its outward relations is, superficially viewed, concerned with material things—such as food, clothing, shelter, books, works of art. But in all these relations there is, more or less evidently, but always in a sense deeply true, a spiritual, an invisible element, which gives to all these relations life, and, in fact, makes them possible. The guidance of the intellect, and the development of the moral and the æsthetic sense, give the real, the higher value to material workmanship. Honesty, skill, intelligence, taste, character,—invisible though they are,—constitute national and personal wealth in a far truer sense than do material possessions; the invisible is of more "material" importance than is the visible.

It may not, in conclusion, be wholly useless to point out more particularly what seems to be the chief problems of national economy that yet remain for the most part unsolved and are in urgent need of attention.

1. First and always greatest, most momentous, especially in a democracy, is the problem of public education. This problem is still very far from having been gotten in hand in America. Instead of (ignorantly) congratulating ourselves on the comparison between popular education here and abroad, we should simply inquire what has been done and is being done by our public school system. Has it turned out or is it turning out a well-informed, reasoning, intellectually well equipped people, capable of dealing wisely and willing to deal devotedly with public affairs, and really understanding the art of living? I ask nothing about the state of bodily training and of moral and artistic culture, for these things—vastly important as they are, and more essential to the happiness and wise conduct of a people than is mere intellectual training—we have not even aimed to look after.

Our educational system needs a complete overhauling. Its aims must be widened, its methods improved, and, above all, the character and training of its corps of teachers must be much raised in standard. Wise education strikes at the root of all social and political diseases.

Of course this subject is too vast to be more than mentioned here. I would, however, urge that in addition to an adequate physical, intellectual, and moral educa-

tion there should be ample provision for industrial and art training. Skill is clearly one of the greatest elements in a nation's wealth. And as for art training, not only has it its money value (as France has demonstrated), but its influence will effectually permeate all labor and increase the general capacity of enjoyment of life, both in the hours of work and in the times of rest and recreation.

2. An enormous yet unavoidable problem for democratic government is the securing of really capable and honest officers. In large part, and seemingly to an increasing extent, our democracy, even in national and State administration, but far more in city administrations, has, in plain terms, made a failure in this matter. A certain proportion of the public offices must always be filled by election. The legislative and a part of the administrative bodies (in States and in the nation, but much less in cities) probably must be elected by popular vote. No judge should ever be so elected. But all public servants appointed by an administration must be appointed on merit and ability. How this is to be brought about is a difficult question. The scope of the examination system should certainly be widened as far as practicable. Perhaps the officials outside the examined civil service would be sufficiently restrained by public opinion, when such a public exists as would enforce the reforms just mentioned.

3. An equally serious question is that of securing responsibility in legislatures. The statute books of the nation and of the various States by no means correspond to the actual popular will. There is corruption on an immense scale, resulting in legislation favoring various monopolistic corporations; and owing to the vast power of accumulated wealth the temper of legislation is often found (for whatever reasons) favorable to the organized money power. Of course there is an opposite danger if legislation is to become unduly favorable to the unpropertied classes. But the former unjust condition is actually with us.

If we are to give real democracy a fair test in this country, we must have faith that the people as a whole will not go far wrong without in due time correcting their error. The only apparent way of having real democracy is to adopt the referendum. In this matter we can learn much from our sister republic of Switzerland.

If the people are to vote on the final adoption or rejection of important pieces of legislation, responsibility in legislatures will be secured, the real issues in elections will be made definite, the shackles of party tyranny will perhaps be broken, and the people will have self-government in fact as well as in name. Unpopular and unjust legislation, or lack of legislation, would be impossible under the referendum, unless blind devotion to party shall continue—as it has been in the past—to be the bane of democracies.

4. One special problem of legislation seems to me of very great importance in the United States—the problem of securing a fairly just and practically enforceable system of taxation. Our present systems, national and local, are simply abominable, and if their actual workings were understood they would be declared unendurable and grossly oppressive. Those who should pay the highest rates of taxation in fact pay the lowest, and easily shift much even of the remainder of the burden upon those less able to bear it. What classes of persons actually pay in the end our various sorts of taxes few have taken the pains to think out. This is, however, too large a subject to be more than mentioned here. Yet I may note that, as the entire problem of land ownership is reduced by Henry George to one of taxation, the already tremendous importance of this subject of tax-reform must still increase.

5. Another very serious abuse in our governmental machinery is the costly, uncertain, and dilatory administration of justice. I refer now especially to the obtaining of justice in civil suits, although it is notorious that the American administration of justice in criminal cases is fully as inefficient. In this sort of trials, however, the public bears the repeated expense; and the too often farcical failure to punish crime with promptness or certainty has effects evil beyond calculation. But in private suits such elements as great expense, delay, and uncertainty deter men not wealthy from even just suits, and so a great power of working injustice through litigation and the resisting of litigation is given into the hands of the rich. It is inevitable that this power should have been abused, and the abuse will continue so long as it is possible. Any great simplification and cheapening of legal actions may of course be resisted by the legal

profession, and lawyers are usually in the majority in legislatures. Legal reforms have been achieved, however, in other countries (Norway, for example), and they are possible here when demanded intelligently. There are many lawyers, too, who are conscientious enough to assist even in such a movement.

6. Finally there is the industrial problem. The people of the near future will have to attempt some solution of that. There are two main lines of tendency, one of which must be followed—the tendency toward socialism and that toward anarchism. Whatever looks toward nationalization of monopolies of any kind, land included, tends logically toward socialism, though some advocates of national ownership say they believe in individualism. The tendency to restrict the usefulness, the activity, the interference, or the directive functions of government is essentially anarchistic. Of course most of those who favor an extension of governmental functions deny being socialists, and probably most would not push things to the extreme of socialism. Likewise most of those who are jealous of governmental activity would deny being anarchists. Nor is it necessary that either goal ever be reached. A golden mean doubtless is the happy condition,—sufficient power and usefulness in the government, all rational and beneficent freedom for the individual.

The real trouble with the people to-day is that they do not know two years at a stretch what they are trying to get at; they change minds, swing from side to side, cannot decide what they really want. The only hope for our becoming a truly great people, demonstrating the success of modern democracy, is that we shall, through education and all manner of discussion and agitation, become actually intelligent. Whatever tends to a sound solution of any of the really great problems of our national "house-law," our true political economy, must be of immense value. But it should never be forgotten that even when our desired political economy shall be written, it will be of no avail until a civic spirit is aroused in the people, so that they will take its teachings to heart and put them into execution.

G. J. SMITH.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,
NEW YORK CITY.

WOMAN AND THE HOME

IT is noticeable that within the last few years women are attaining remarkable success in farming and stock-raising. In Alabama one plantation of 600 acres, on which 125 negroes are employed, is owned and managed by a lady, and while she is the most successful representative of her sex in that State of much agricultural aspiration, there are many others who enjoy independent living on their farms. One widow in particular is often spoken of. She was unaccustomed to all business, and had probably never entertained the idea that she could care for herself; yet, being left a widow with six daughters and one son, all young, she purchased a fruit farm, proceeded to enlarge the orchards already upon it, and was thus enabled to give education to all of her children and to keep them in comfort bordering upon luxury. She hired but little help, doing the gathering of her pears, peaches, plums, grapes, and strawberries herself, with the help of her children. California has a woman who has actually enriched herself as a raiser of black walnuts. Nebraska has one of the best judges of blooded stock in the country,—a woman who for years managed a cattle and horse ranch, and then turned her attention to Poland China hogs. One Michigan woman keeps herself and her family by the raising of bees. But of course there are endless examples of such achievements. Certainly a large family of fatherless children can be much better raised in the country than in the city, if it devolves upon their mother to provide them with the necessities of life. The struggle in the city is terrible indeed, and the dangers of leaving children to themselves during the working hours of the day are great.

It would be foolish to deny that many women overcome these difficulties. Where there are courage and ability sufficient to cope with the city, brilliant results may be obtained. One woman in Chicago, widowed, and having her daughters to educate and provide for, undertook landscape gardening, and because of her remarkable taste, and her quick acquisition of business methods, she has become successful, and some of the most attractive parks in the West were created from her designs. Another lady, similarly placed, is a skilful designer of interior decoration, and very beautiful and individual are the mansions whose finishing and furnishing she has supervised. There are many women, nowadays, engaged in such occupations, and this lady is referred to only because she was unequipped to provide for herself, and her misfortunes came upon her suddenly and found her unprepared. She did what lay in

her power, utilizing her taste in color and form, her sense of proportion, and her pleasure in arranging the furnishings of a house.

★

WHAT does it cost you to live? More than it ought, no doubt, and more than you wish it did, though it is probable that most of you congratulate yourselves on being singularly good managers. But which one of you could care for yourself, your sister, and two children, on five dollars a month? There is a woman living in a certain little village who does this very thing. Nor does she live in squalor, nor is she held in pitying contempt. Not at all. The people of her village say: "Ann Saunders is quite a manager. Yes, 'em, so she is. Very nice ladies, Ann Saunders and her sister. Yes, they come of good family. We all set store by Miss Ann Saunders." She lives beyond the other houses of the village in a log cabin which someone else has deserted. It is a fairly comfortable cabin, large enough to accommodate two beds, two tables, and a number of chairs, without being crowded. The chairs are splint-bottomed and quite comfortable. The cabin is heated by a large fireplace at which the cooking is done. These ladies—for so their antecedents and their own manners and lives entitle them to be called—understand the use of the spit, and can dress a chicken before the fire in a most delicious manner. They also understand the art of roasting potatoes to perfection. They can make that most desirable sort of corn cake which is cooked in the ashes, and they know how to make a commendable cup of coffee. They say they have never known what it is to be hungry. They have a wood pile at the rear of their house, a shoulder of bacon hanging from the rafters, and their own chickens cluck about the grass. Fortunately they live where the climate is mild. The widowed sister is the one who earns the money for this family, doing it by taking in sewing. The other sister is "afflicted," as all the neighbors say, which in this case means that she has club feet. They dress in calico, costing five cents a yard, but which comes in pretty patterns. They are always tidy and neat, and regard themselves as important members of the community. Indeed, they are so regarded by others, and when the "ladies of the Presbyterian church" have any especial reason for sociability, Ann Saunders and her sister are considered. The ladies call upon them, and these calls are returned. It takes but a minute to make a fine cup of tea before a "fat pine" fire, and as Ann Saunders serves it she is more than likely to

tell a good story. There is no thought of discontent in the cabin. There appears to be no especial consciousness of poverty. Both of the women are much absorbed in the two little boys. They are also interested in the families for which they do sewing; and they have ideas about "expansion" and other national questions. They are very peaceful, owe no man anything, live within their income, and are not bothered with superfluous things.

★

It is the superfluous things that really make life difficult. They are the things we run in debt for, usually, and the things we overwork to get and worry about after they are ours. It is the care of these things that makes us nervous and worn. A lady with a beautiful home said last Christmas: "Please do not give me anything that will make existence any more complicated than it is at present. I really am at a loss trying to remember what all the conveniences with which I am supplied are for, and a good part of my income goes in paying people to take care of the things I do not need." Yet, in spite of her request, her dressing-table was still further littered with silver knick-knacks, her shelves were overloaded with bric-a-brac, and her sideboard burdened with articles for which she could have only a remote use. She is not a wealthy woman, nor are her friends wealthy. She represents the average well-to-do woman of taste, living on a moderate income. Yet she sees her servants forever polishing and burnishing and rearranging the articles which, so far from adding to her happiness, really cumber her. There has been a marked increase in the luxuries of life in America the last few years, and the people, pleased with their elegant toys, have not yet acquired the moral courage to forego them. To acquire and yet acquire is their instinct, and thus they cheat themselves of leisure and peace and simplicity.

Not that one would for a moment suggest that a bare home is more desirable than a decorated one. But a home in which each article is either useful or beautiful, or both, would of a surety be a most desirable thing.

★

A NATURAL talent which exists much more frequently than is commonly supposed, and which is too little cultivated, is that of versification. Many grown persons, and almost all fine, enthusiastic children, can make rhymes and express themselves in language commonly called poetical. Unfortunately the American people take a humorous view of any such ability and are apt to tease anyone who exercises it. But an imaginative child takes exquisite pleasure from seeing his or her own pretty ideas on paper, and still greater pleasure in hearing some beloved person, who is also respected as a judge of their worth, read the lines aloud in a sympathetic voice. No amuse-

ment could be more innocent, and, if rightly directed, more calculated to assist the child to an appreciative and delicate use of English, than an experimentation with verse. The evening passes rapidly and happily when the little heads are bent over the paper, the tongues are stuck in the cheek in the stress of tremendous mental effort, and the fleeting ideas of the day struggle to concentrate themselves into rhythmical lines. Mrs. Coonley-Ward, who writes good verses herself, and who particularly enjoys the making of songs for children, believes that the cultivation of poetical talent in families is just as much of a duty as the encouragement of any other sort of talent; and she has in her possession some singularly sweet and original little verses written by children whom she has urged to the effort.

"Of course," said a friend, "it isn't necessary to make great poets of them—the experiment can be looked upon as a pastime."

"I shouldn't feel under any obligations to apologize for endeavoring to make great poets," responded Mrs. Ward. "God usually attends to that. However, many a poet sings no songs because he was never encouraged to do so. Looked upon merely as a pastime, however, the making of poetry in families is one of the most entertaining that could be thought of. A mother who kept the most characteristic lines written by her children would have something much more precious than photographs, by which she could bring to mind in later years the days of their childhood; and she would have glimpses into their little souls when those souls were most innocent and full of hope."

★

DO AMERICANS really enjoy being imposed upon? The stranger might be justified in so thinking as he sees the success of many impostors, and the absurd and even criminal patience with which their fraudulent practices are condoned. Take, for example, the matter of "divine healing." When, several years ago, Schlatter stood among the foothills of the Rockies, with snow-capped mountains for a background, a cabin for his habitation, and waiting pilgrims encamped about him in the valley, along the road, and among the hills, the world was entertained at the picturesqueness of the thing. Here was a man—resembling, so it was said, Our Blessed Lord—who, without money and without price, made well those who visited him. Rich and poor came, Christians and infidels. It was said that some were healed—though these were, oddly enough, never the persons of one's own knowledge, but always those who knew the friends of one's friends. In course of time the weary man, who certainly spent his days in laborious toil, went up among the mountains, and those who believed in him thought he had perished there, having achieved that which he came to do. Those who half-believed wondered much and

said little. And those who did not believe at all, yet hesitated to condemn, lest they should seem illiberal, or lest they should in very fact be ignorant, or should be doing an injustice to a man who had intended only good.

Then came a shoal of imitation Schlatters, and one of them has recently been operating in the South. Some claim he is the original, and among these are men who saw the first healer at Denver. But the man who is travelling through the South appears to be without the fine personality of the other. He is less self-deceived, less inspirational. His eyes are not alight with fanatical fire, nor with the elated egotism of the other man. He seems commonplace, dead, and heavy, and when he lays on hands and rolls his eyes to heaven, no one is much impressed. And yet it is a fact that the afflicted have been journeying by the thousand to see him.

Now, the question is, should the authorities permit this man to deceive the people? With a short-sightedness which is peculiarly American, the people laugh and say:

"If some will be foolish enough to believe, what difference does it make to us? He doesn't do anybody any harm."

But a mistake is made here. He does great harm. For example: A farmer and his wife, living about seventy miles from Birmingham, Alabama, heard stories of the man's cures,—stories which were widely circulated, and to which circumstance and detail were given in such a manner as to convince persons much more astute than these simple farmers that the man had, as he claimed, power from on high. The farmer and his wife were deeply interested, because their only son was partially paralyzed. One leg was several inches shorter than the other, and the foot was twisted and undeveloped. Both hands were weak, though not useless. The body had little flexibility or strength, though, to look at, the boy was pleasing, and his brain was quite up to the average, if not above it. The mother sent him away from home with the highest hopes. She made him neat for his journey and watched him out of sight, thinking that when he returned he might be able to leap from the old "democrat" wagon unaided. Then she went about her work in the little house by the clump of Southern pines, and spent a lonely week in hopeful waiting. At the end of that time the father and son came back as they had gone away.

"I don't mind very much for myself," said the boy. "I've got used to the crutches, but mamma thought I was coming home well."

"What did the 'healer' do for you?"

"Oh, he took my hands in his, and rolled up his eyes, and said something—and prayed, I guess—and then he told me to put down my foot and walk."

"And did you try?"

"Of course. I thought maybe I could."

"And when you found you could not?"

"Why, then I thought how dreadful mamma would feel, and begged papa not to go straight home," he said regretfully, still shrinking from the sight of that sorrow which grieved him more than his own disappointment.

Is it not very strange that a man should be allowed to practise torture so exquisite as this, and not be rebuked or checked? He is either a lunatic or a criminal, and in either event ought to be sequestered from his fellows.

★

ONE is amazed to learn that Sir Walter Besant, for whom lovers of good books certainly entertain respect, has written a volume entitled "The Pen and the Book," with the explanation that it is "for the instruction and guidance of those young persons, of whom there are now many thousands, who are thinking of the literary life." He also takes the pains to apologize for the literary life, and to explain that those engaged in it are not social pariahs, nor are they impecunious. He says: "The prejudice formerly so well founded, of poverty, has vanished. It is now well known that a respectable man of letters may command an income and a position quite equal to those of the average lawyer or doctor. It is also known that anyone who rises to the top may enjoy as much social consideration as a bishop, and as good an income." Had such a thing as this come from an esteemed American man or woman of letters, the London press would not have failed to lament that Americans were still very cheap and crude and on the edge of culture. Sir Walter has stooped to a vulgar money-making device; and while he is entitled to make money in any honest way he pleases, he might surely have chosen some way which did not bring discredit upon his profession. He knows, and every writer knows, that the art of thinking, of creating, and of embodying creative thought, cannot be taught. It remains, in its processes, as much of a mystery as the growing flower or the tree. The laboratory can reveal the names of the elements of which the flower or the tree is composed, but no chemist will ever create a flower or a tree. Grammar, rhetoric, and general knowledge can be instilled into the brain, but the peculiar assimilation of these elements and the reproduction of them in the form of art must forever remain a mystery to him who writes and to him who reads.

It is always amusing to see articles headed: "How Tolstoi Works," or "How Hardy Writes." For while it is easily possible to describe the furniture of the rooms in which they write, or the manner of working-jackets they wear, it will never be possible for anyone to tell the beginning of thought, or the processes of it, or the relation which art holds to the soul. There are, in fact, no rules for writing, though of course persons holding chairs of literature in universities will insist that there are. One has only, however, to put one of these professors to the test, to prove that in ninety-nine cases out

of a hundred he would not be able to write a story for which any reputable magazine would pay. Now almost everybody tries to write, and that is well. It increases the enjoyment of the person who writes, because he sets a value upon his own ideas and is interested in them as they appear on paper. Besides, it may be that ideas can be cultivated like potatoes or corn. Also, writing teaches a person to be a good correspondent, and good letter-writing is one of the most agreeable of accomplishments. But to become an artist in writing is a thing beyond the power of man or woman, unless God has planted a mysterious little something in the brain which works almost without the knowledge of him who has it; in which event Sir Walter's book will be a superfluity. And in any other event whole libraries of directions about style and plot and motive and treatment will avail him nothing. The man who wrote "The Bell of St. Paul's" must know that, deep in his heart, and that is why it seems just to censure him for putting upon the market a book destined to bring disappointment to those who attempt to climb the paths of creative art with its assistance.

★

It often happens that a young person mistakes restlessness or the joy of life for genius. Nor is this to be wondered at. The thrill that one feels on a glorious morning in June, when one is young and the future looks as gay to the excited imagination as a continual Mardi Gras, justifies the inexperienced in believing that his or her emotions are exceptional, and that they would, if explained to the world in adequate language, bring the reward of fame. This is, however, the song the soul sings at mating-time. It is not to be deprecated. It means more to the world than genius does, perhaps, but it emphatically is not genius.

There was once a very bright young girl who, for reasons, thought she was a genius. She was amidst uncongenial surroundings and very hard worked, and her discontent was so great that she took refuge in composition. To be sure, her stories were sombre and even terrible, but there was a strong and graphic realism about them that almost convinced those who read that an artist was struggling to depict the miseries of the lowly, and that a further acquaintance with the world and more practice in the use of English would ripen and develop this singular soul. But in course of time the girl married. She did not care very much about the man at the time, and she expected to get a great deal of useful dissatisfaction from that. Some of us really feared a problem novel from her. But the man was so much more agreeable and kindly than she or anyone else dreamed him to be, that presently she was quite contented, except when he was away from home; and then all that vituperative eloquence of hers — that Verestchagin-like view of things, out of which we had expected to see

literature made — vanished like mist before the sun. The girl lamented it herself, and tried to summon back her old despairs in order that she might once more set them upon paper, but they would not come. She seemed to have no power to make happy stories; and so, though she sometimes sighed for the fame which she expected to be hers, she has to admit that she is nothing but a happy woman with a good husband and a pleasant home. But her friends sometimes congratulate the reading public — which of course does not realize it — on having escaped a number of frenzied novels of the realistic type.

★

Here is the programme of a large and successful art-study class of a women's club.

ART CONDITIONS IN AMERICA DURING THE EIGHTEENTH AND FIRST PART OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Rise of the Easel Picture. — Its development in America as seen in the works of West, Trumbull, Allston, etc.

Early and Modern Aims and Ideals in Portraiture. — The simple likeness, character portraits, decorative portrait pictures, etc.; results compared as seen in the works of Copley, Stuart, Chase, Sargent, Whistler, etc.

Landscape Painting. — Objective and subjective treatment: The Hudson River School — Cole, Durand, F. E. Church, etc. The School of Grand Nature — Bierstadt, Hill, Moran, etc. The Modern School — Inness, Tryon, Twachtman, etc.

Sculpture in the United States. — Characteristics of the first school under Powers, Story, Crawford, Ball, Rogers, etc. The men of to-day — Ward, St. Gaudens, French, Macmonnies, etc. American sculpture in connection with architecture.

Pottery, Faience, and China in the United States. — The early importation of the English blue and white ware, and its influence on home products. Artistic value of American production as seen in the Rookwood, Dedham, etc. China painting; conditions of its practice among us at the present time. Consideration of the true principles which should govern the decoration of pottery and china.

Mural Decoration. — Principles of its application. American decorators — La Farge, Blashfield, Low, Abbey, etc. The hotel as a field for mural decoration.

New York as Our Chief Art Centre. — Its art schools and galleries. Distinctive and individual work of such of its artists as Chase, Thayer, Denning, Ryder, etc. Have we a national school?

Boston as an Art Centre. — Value and character of its art movements, past and present. Its artists — William Morris Hunt, George Fuller, Enneking, etc.

Art in the West. — Progress in Cincinnati, Indianapolis, St. Louis, Chicago, etc. Art education as it is and as it may be developed.

Paris as an American Art Centre. — Our artists resident there — Dannat, Harrison, Alexander, Brush, etc. Is the art of the future to be national or international?

Domestic Architecture. — How to build a house.

Relation of Art to the Crafts. — How to furnish a home. *American Illustrators.* — Their work in magazines, newspapers, etc. Technical processes of the work — the woodcut, lithograph, process picture, etc.

The American Woman as Painter, Designer, Illustrator, etc. — Mary Cassatt, Cecilia Beaux, Mrs. Macmonnies, etc.

Relation of Art to Local Problems. — The reference books suggested to the class for this course of study are: Benjamin's "Art in America"; Cook's "Art and Artists of the Nineteenth Century"; and "Art and Artists of Our Times"; W. M. Bryant's "Philosophy of Landscape Painting"; F. Hopkinson Smith's "American Illustrators"; Champlin's "Painting and Painters' Encyclopedia"; Dunlap's "History of the Arts of Design in the United States"; and Van Lear's biographical articles on American artists, published in "Arts for America."

ELIA W. PEATTIE.

ART AND MUSIC

MISSAL PAINTING AND MANUSCRIPT ILLUMINATION

ON THE banks of the Nile, thousands of years ago, Egypt, the cradle of the arts, was first beginning to give expression to her love for the beautiful. In thinking of the art of that ancient country, her colossal pyramids and solemn, sphinx-guarded temples occupy the prominent place, and one rarely remembers that the Egyptians were also the first book illustrators; but such is the case, as can be seen by examining the miniatures in their papyrus rolls, now in the Louvre, Paris, and in the British Museum, London. Technically, the word "miniature" means the pictures painted in manuscripts by artists known as illuminators. The Egyptian illuminators did not always treat their papyrus in the same way, but varied the general arrangement, the miniatures sometimes occupying the upper border of the manuscript (which is the most common form), and at other times being scattered throughout the text; while in one case the whole story is told by the illustrator without the aid of the scribe. The style of the work also varies, showing all the degrees from rude outline drawings in black or red to those in the Louvre, where gods, men, and animals are pictured in bright colors outlined in black. But the subject is usually the same,—the ritual of the dead,—and most of the manuscripts have been found in tombs.

Living on through the centuries, this art, in Græco-Roman times, experiences a decided change in treatment and subject, being generally used by doctors and architects to illustrate their writings. Only a few of the later Græco-Roman manuscripts, illustrating Greek and Roman poetical works, have come down to us. A Virgil, in the Vatican, Rome, which has landscapes introduced among its other miniatures, shows well the style of painting at this time, the color being laid on very thickly, while gold serves for the high lights. The awkwardness of action, the lack of beauty in the figures, and the expressionless faces, in these miniatures, show us the decrepit state of art, as the high Greek ideals had been lost.

Miniature painting met with favor among the early Christians, for we find that all of their manuscripts were more or less illuminated, the earliest and simplest having their initial letters and divisions of the text painted red. (Hence the name "rubrics," from the Latin word for red—*rubrum*.) When the capital of the Roman empire was moved from Rome to Byzantium (Constantinople), a new impetus was given to

this art which appealed so strongly to one's love for the beautiful. Constantine, the first Christian emperor, with rare wisdom, founded in his new capital a library which became the care of all future emperors until the arrival of Leo the Isaurian, in the eighth century. Here were deposited many of those sacred books which the Christian religion had called into existence. People of wealth and position gave extensive orders to the illuminators, who produced beautifully rich books, the leaves of which were made of vellum (a fine parchment made from the skins of calves), often colored purple, while the text was usually done in red, but sometimes in gold or silver.

At length secular as well as religious books were illuminated, but with this difference: In secular books, such as works on botany and astronomy, the miniatures seem to be used as illustrations of the subject under discussion, while the miniatures in religious manuscripts appear to exist for the sole purpose of adorning the sacred page. This latter class was by far the larger one, as it was the custom for prominent people to present works of this kind to the various religious houses. There was not a great deal of originality in the ideas displayed, for a certain kind of book always called forth a certain set of subjects. Dedictory pictures, showing the solemn-looking owner or donor, seated in the midst of a company of people, came into favor at this time. The borders are always simple, with the exception of those belonging to the preface of the "Evangelium" (a copy of the four Gospels), which is enclosed in an arch-like border—the sides of which represent columns richly painted in gold and color, while over the vault of the arch are placed birds, animals, and human figures, arranged symmetrically around a vessel or fountain. The capital letters, which are only a little larger than the text, are painted, but not ornamented. In the Imperial Library, Vienna, is a portion of the book of Genesis, dating about the close of the fifth century. Here we see a fine touch, fair treatment of the nude, and love for nature, which make amends for superficiality and coarseness of treatment. The same library also contains one of the most famous secular books of the time, a Book on Medicine and Botany, by Dioscorides. Woermann says of it that "the survival of classical art in early Christian times is nowhere so clearly manifest as in this work." Indeed, these manuscripts are the battle-ground where meet old and new

ideas. In the dedicatory pictures, the figures of the four Evangelists, and pictures of Christ enthroned, one sees the influence of antique models, while the narrative pictures illustrating Bible scenes are treated more freely.

In a Syrian Gospel-book now in the library of San Lorenzo, Florence, one can trace the growth of new ideas. Not only does this book contain the earliest picture of the Crucifixion which has come down to us, but also the earliest example of a picture-border enclosing the preface of the "Evangelium," a style of border which we find used for that purpose in all the manuscripts of the Middle Ages. A picture-border is one into which small figures and Bible scenes are introduced, surrounded by architectural designs. The illuminator of this time used a brush in sketching in his design, which was then painted in body-color, which means that the colors were laid on thickly, thus concealing the outlines. This body-color was light, so that fine flesh tints were obtained, and the high lights were effective. Seldom is the name of an illuminator found in a manuscript, although the work was carried on by lay-artists in shops as well as by monks and priests.

In the fifth century, when the Italian monks carried the Gospel to the Western people, nowhere was it received with greater enthusiasm than by the Celts, who soon developed in their religious writings a style quite different from that we find on the Continent. These Irish monks were very skilful with their pens, adorning not only the initial letters, but decorating the page itself; their favorite designs at first being geometrical patterns, into which they finally introduced such simple figures as snakes, dragons, and the lower forms of animal life. The next step represents the human body, but this attempt shows how utterly lacking the barbarians, as the Romans called them, were in the knowledge of anatomy. They conventionalized the human face, limbs, and hands, which they never colored, and they treated the body itself merely as scroll-work. They rarely used gold, but employed bright, harmonious colors to fill in these pen-drawings. Although nature was utterly disregarded in the coloring, their rich borders, with their graceful patterns and the delicate beauty of their initial letters, are most charming, as a manuscript in the Bodleian Library at Oxford bears witness.

As the Celts became Christians they in turn sent missionaries to the Pictish Highlands, the forests of Germany, and the wilds of the Alps and Apennines, where they established many monasteries. When the Teutons embraced the new faith, they, too, began developing the art of illuminating, which differs somewhat from that of the Celts, although it, too, was really decorative writing. A unique feature of their work was the introduction of the foliage design, the bodies of snakes, animals, and semi-human monsters lending themselves to this treatment, as is shown by a fine manu-

script in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris. During the time of Charlemagne, in the ninth century, we find this branch of art receiving great encouragement. The foliage work and curious animal creations of the early period combine with the Irish scroll-work and geometrical figures, but much gold and silver are often introduced on a purple background. In their figure-pieces the illuminators try to follow early Christian pictures, but the lack of technique, long flaring nose, glaring eyes, and awkward hands and feet make one think of the work of highly-gifted children. The figures are surrounded by rich architecture, fine tapestries, and furniture; and even copies of ancient gems and coins appear. A brush dipped in light red is generally used for the outline, which is next covered with a thick coating of half-tint, the high lights and shadows being added in solid color, while all details, such as eyelids and so forth, are simply indicated by red and black lines, as a Gospel-Book of this period in the Paris Bibliothèque Nationale proves.

The masterpiece of the tenth century, also in the Bibliothèque Nationale, is a Psalter of Byzantine workmanship. The first of the fourteen pictures it contains—all of which are the full size of the page, with simple, dull-gold border—represents David, the shepherd, sitting on a rock, playing on the psalter, while back of him sits Melancholy, a female figure with her hand on David's shoulder, while near him are dogs, goats, and lambs. Although there are glaring faults in perspective, anatomy, and other details, yet there is so much quiet beauty in the composition that its shortcomings are forgiven. Toward the end of the tenth century, a Saxon Emperor, Otho II, married a Greek princess, who naturally brought with her, to her new abode, many followers from her Byzantine home, among them illuminators who soon made their influence felt on Saxon art; but as this art revived at the court of Otho II it sank to a living death in Byzantium. The student cannot fail to notice in these Byzantine miniatures that the illuminators are more and more following tradition rather than nature in their figures, and their constant repetition of court costume resembles machine work. After the death of Otho II, however, the art gradually declined in Germany, and France now began to take the lead, a new style which held sway during the Middle Ages being developed.

"The peculiarity of this new style," says Woltmann, "consists, in the first place, in sharpness and dexterity of pen-drawing, which enables the artist to get certainty, tenderness, and distinctness, even in drawing on a small scale." There was no modelling or shaping, and all details are suggested by the pen, while the outlines were never rendered invisible. The flesh tints were generally made by the natural color of the vellum, although little daubs of red on the cheeks and lips, and other colors on the hair and eyes, were sometimes

added. These pictures are often inserted like little medallions into huge capital letters, which now, for the first time, are often so large that a single one occupies a whole page, while another new feature is the thorn-leaf pattern in the borders. The Psalter of St. Louis in the Bibliothèque Nationale, is a fine example of this new style, reflecting the courtly and military life of the times, as well as giving Biblical scenes in the initial letters. Previously this art had been practised chiefly by monks, but now it passed almost entirely into the hands of laymen.

Finding themselves leading all the other countries in this art at the end of the thirteenth century, the French illuminators still continued to strive for perfection, working to give their paintings more of the tenderness and charm which had gained for them their enviable position. They learned to soften their colors, and sought to model their figures, while they began to shade the flesh with a reddish tint. There now arose in France a style of manuscript most interesting from an artistic standpoint, the Picture-Bible, an example of which can be seen in the Imperial Library, Vienna. Only sufficient text is used to explain the pictures, which are arranged consecutively from the Creation to the end of the Old Testament, each Old Testament picture being accompanied by one from the New Testament, thus showing the spiritual significance. French illuminators also introduced another style of painting: a manuscript on the Life of St. Denis, in the Bibliothèque Nationale, shows us the infancy of *genre* painting, for here we find the most ordinary duties of everyday life being performed. In the fourteenth century a great advance was made in the use of colors. Formerly these had been opaque water-colors, but illuminators now began to mix these colors with white, the result being a "velvety reflection of light." Shading and modelling also became prominent features in the pictures, and a fine flesh tint was given to the exposed parts of the body for the first time. Harmony of color is studied in the draperies, and nature is copied more carefully. The groundwork is usually a diapered or chequered design, though it is sometimes in gold, and tiny flowers are most charmingly introduced into the thorn-leaf border. The illuminators rarely attached their names to their books, which now form a most interesting link in the History of Painting, "as it was in them," says Woltmann, "that the effort at complete painting first made its appearance in the Western Europe of the Middle Ages."

In the fourteenth century Italy produced some charming and splendid manuscripts, which rank with those of France. The thorn-leaf pattern gave place to foliage conventionalized, while gaiety and grace permeate the pictures. It is French influence, however, which made itself felt in England, Spain, Germany, and the Netherlands, and it is to Flanders we go in the fifteenth century to see some of the most beautiful examples which the world of to-day has to show us. Philip the Good encouraged this art, and made a collection of books which grew to be one of the finest libraries in the world. The Imperial Library, Vienna, now contains some of his rarest and most exquisite manuscripts. We find in these pictures a growing fondness for landscape, and linear perspective is better understood. Close attention to details, both in surroundings and costumes, mark these creations, most of which are of a sacred character, although the dedicatory frontispiece, which generally is a portrait of the owner receiving the book, and other portions of the work, were mirrors of the daily life and customs of the times. The borders receive great attention, foliage being interspersed with animal life (grotesque or real), coats-of-arms, and most exquisite garlands of flowers, fruits, and insects on gold backgrounds.

The close of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth century mark the high-tide of lavish decoration. This date brings into life those missals which contain splendid calendars, the entire church year being illustrated by saints and Bible subjects. The sixteenth century has left us two exquisite specimens of this art: in the Vatican, a copy of Dante's Works by Giulio Clovis, the greatest Italian illuminator; and in the Musée des Souverains, Paris, the famous manuscript known as the "Heures d'Anne de Bretagne," a work of Raphaellesque beauty. The sweetness in the face of the Virgin is remarkable; the heads of the angels are noble, and even the ornaments which adorn the margin of the page teem with flowers and insects, alive with color and freshness.

This masterpiece marks the zenith of the art, which was destined to decline with the sixteenth century, as the printing-press usurped its place. Its beauty has caused it to be partially revived in succeeding centuries, but its usefulness was gone, and fancy's whim has given it only temporary life during the last three centuries.

CLARA HADLEY WAIT.

ANN ARBOR, MICH.

THE VIOLIN AND SOME FAMOUS VIOLINISTS

TO TRACE the evolution of the violin it is necessary to go back to the lyre, one of the most ancient of stringed instruments.

The lyre was a species of harp, but its primal form differed greatly from either harp

or guitar, to which it is sometimes compared. The frame consisted of a hollow body or sounding-chest, having two arms which were also, usually, hollow. A cross-bar was attached to the sounding-chest, which formed the bridge and

transmitted the vibrations of the strings. The Museum at Berlin owns a fine specimen of a lyre dated 2,000 B. C.

Next to the lyre came the lute, another very ancient stringed instrument. This was first played with the fingers of the right hand, but later a bow was used, and with this addition the instrument's name was changed to "viol." We find here the origin of the bow. The first one used was simply a military bow; later a hank of horsehair was substituted for the single bowstring. Violin bows were reduced in size in 1780 by a Parisian named François Tourte.

The first use of the viol was for training the ear of singers, and the necessity for a sustained tone, which was impossible in plucking the strings with the fingers, led to the invention or use of the bow. Later, viols were used as solo instruments. (Music written for lutes is equally adapted to the bass viol.)

After this there came many changes in the construction of viols. They were made smaller and of different shape until the tenor violin had its birth. The oldest violin in existence is a tenor made by Fr. Linaroli, of Bergamo, at Venice, in 1563. The names of the very earliest makers of instruments of the viol class were Gasparo da Salo and Maggini, both of Brescia, Italy. These two men were the first to raise a rude trade to an art. What is known as the Cremona school was established soon afterwards. Two brothers named Amati established the violin-making art at Cremona in the fifteenth century. Nicolo Amati, one of the brothers, was the instructor of Antonius Stradivarius, a maker renowned above all others, who was born at Cremona in 1644 and showed a bold originality in his work. Joseph Guarnerius, another celebrated maker of this school, was born at Cremona in 1683. Many other well-known artists in this line conducted their business in the town, but Stradivarius and Guarnerius were the greatest of all. Later, violins were made in Naples, Milan, and Venice, by followers or pupils of those named above.

Of German makers the Stainers (Jacob and Marcus) and the Klotz family (Egidius, Matthias, Sebastian, and Joseph) are among the best known. In England violin-makers have largely been copyists of the Italian and German types the Stainer model being a celebrated English product. Early French makers failed to produce anything of merit, but, later, copyists of the Cremona model gave some fine instruments to the world.

One of the earliest and greatest violinists was Arcangelo Corelli, born in the territory of Bologna in 1653. Before his name had become widely known he made a very successful tour through France and Germany, receiving numerous invitations to play at princely courts.

Of his style as a violinist we read that it was learned and eloquent, refined and full of sentiment.

Another celebrity of the past was Giuseppe Tartini, who was born at Istria in 1692. He wrote and published many compositions of classic value for stringed instruments. Perhaps his most famous work is the sonata known as "The Devil's Trill." It received its peculiar title in this way. Tartini dreamed one night that he had been playing to His Satanic Majesty, and that after a while the Devil took the violin and proceeded to play upon it himself. The sonata he played was so beautiful and original, and so wonderfully executed, that Tartini awoke in breathless astonishment and endeavored to reproduce what he had heard in his dreams, calling the composition "The Devil's Sonata," or "The Devil's Trill," as it is more often called.

Louis Spohr, the greatest violinist that Germany ever produced, was born at Brunswick, April 5, 1784. At the age of six he acquired his first violin, and at fourteen years he was an effective soloist, obtaining an appointment in the court orchestra. His first compositions were concertos, quartets, and other instrumental pieces, but he later turned his attention to dramatic and, last of all, to sacred music. His important works were, in opera, "Alruna," "Faust," "Zemire and Azor," and "Jessonda"; in oratorio, "The Last Judgment" and "The Crucifixion." "Faust" and "Jessonda" are considered his master-works in opera, while the two oratorios named above are said to equal Händel's in the sublimity of many of their parts. Spohr died October 22, 1859.

Nicolo Paganini (1784-1839) ranks as the greatest of violinists. He was born at Genoa, Italy. His first composition, a sonata, was produced in his ninth year. His remarkable variations, "The Witches," were composed when he was nineteen. Paganini was the first to develop the full resources of the violin as a solo instrument. His skill as a player, together with his irresistible power and genius, threw all Europe into paroxysms of admiration. There was a common belief in his day that "none but one possessed with a demon" could do what he could with a violin.

Contemporary with Paganini was De Beriot, who was born in 1802. He charmed his hearers with his sedate, simple style, while Paganini fairly dazzled and electrified them.

Ole (or Olaus) Bull was born at Bergen, Norway, February 5, 1810, and lived until August, 1880. He will be remembered chiefly for his "tone pictures" of Scandinavian myth and folklore, and also for his magnificent presence and his exquisite grace, skill, and brilliancy as a virtuoso, rather than for his compositions.

FRANCES C. ROBINSON.

WAKEFIELD, MASS.

THE LITERARY WORLD

"Wisdom and Destiny"* THIS is a curious book. It is also a profoundly suggestive one. At first sight the title gives no clue to its purport. At second sight, after a careful perusal, one sees that a better or terser title could not have been chosen. *Wisdom versus Destiny*—"the influence that wisdom can have upon destiny," to use the author's own words (p. 22),—that is, how frail faltering human mortal may oppose to Fate his weak human knowledge and experience; how, in Horace's phrase, he may best bend circumstance to his will, not allow circumstance to bend his will; how by high resolve or indomitable resolution he may endure or withstand

"The heartache, and the thousand natural shocks
That flesh is heir to,"—

—none other than this is M. Maeterlinck's high theme. It is a theme sempiternal: old as the Stoics, new as the Christian Scientists; old as man's first creation in Eden, new as the last-born babe, the fond parents of which are already debating how best to fit it for the battle of life.

Maurice Maeterlinck is a Belgian dramatist. He is one of the most original of thinkers; one proof of which is his entirely novel conception of the drama. Tired of the drama of action—of murder, rage, jealousy, adultery; of duels, altercations, recriminations, reconciliations—all grossly and crudely represented on a realistic stage, M. Maeterlinck has evolved the drama of emotion or feeling.

And by anyone unacquainted with this new and brilliant star in the firmament of European literature his dramas should be read. Seen on the stage they cannot be; perhaps never will be. However, this is beyond our present purpose, which is simply to consider the latest prose work that has come from his pen.

M. Maeterlinck has been called a mystic,—not perhaps an easy thing for a man to be in this last decade of the most scientific century that this whirling world has seen,—another proof, perhaps, of his originality. But his mysticism is not of the mediæval type. If Paracelsus was a mystic, there is nothing in common between Paracelsus and M. Maeterlinck. This Belgian poet is modern—thoroughly and intimately modern. But he looks at things in a light that few moderns brought up in the school of Lamarck and Darwin, Huxley and Tyndall, Spencer and Haeckel, admit or explain. Yet he himself is contem-

poraneous with this school. Therein lies the supreme import of his book. He is a modern, yet he views things as a sage utterly untainted by modern materialism and automatonism would view them.

To evaluate this book, one must read it, and without doubt everyone who has read his previous prose production—"Le Trésor des Humbles"—*—will possess himself of this. We purpose here to give a few quotations as the best method of exhibiting M. Maeterlinck's attitude of mind. A mere synopsis of a mystic's mode of thought is valueless.

"As man was created for health, so was mankind created for happiness; and to speak of its misery only, though that misery be everywhere and seem everlasting, is only to say words that fall lightly and soon are forgotten." (p. 7.)

"To those round about us there happen incessant and countless adventures, whereof everyone, it would seem, contains a germ of heroism; but the adventure passes away, and heroic deed is there none. But when Jesus Christ met the Samaritan, met a few children, an adulterous woman, then did humanity rise three times in succession to the level of God." (pp. 28, 29.)

"It might almost be said that there happens to men only that they desire. It is true that on certain external events our influence is of the feeblest, but we have all-powerful action on that which these events shall become in ourselves—in other words, on their spiritual part, on what is radiant, undying within them." (p. 29.)

"Fatality shrinks back abashed from the soul that has more than once conquered her." (p. 35.)

"The true sage is not he who sees, but he who, seeing the furthest, has the deepest love for mankind. He who sees without loving is only straining his eyes in the darkness." (p. 38.)

"Inner fatality there is none." (p. 39.)

"Into man's soul she [Destiny] will never come uncalled." (pp. 48, 49.)

"And if it be true that some kind of predestination governs every circumstance of life, it appears to be no less true that such predestination exists in our character only; and to modify character must surely be easy to the man of unfettered will." (p. 52.)

"It is our most secret desire that governs and dominates all. If your eye looks for nothing but evil, you will always see evil triumphant; but if you have learned to let your glance rest on sincerity, simpleness, truth, you will ever discover, deep down in all things, the silent overpowering victory of that which you love." (p. 53.)

"Wisdom is the lamp of love, and love is the oil of the lamp." (p. 78.)

"In the soul that is gentle, and pure, and good, sorrow cannot forever abide." (p. 138.)

"Enfeeblement comes through our dwelling, by night and by day, in the airless room of our cold, self-satisfied, trivial, ungenerous thoughts, at a time when the sky all around our abode is reflecting the light of the ocean." (p. 151.)

"The profoundest thought is of little avail if it contain no germ of comfort." (pp. 152, 153.)

"The thought must be incomplete surely whose object is not to console." (pp. 153, 154.)

"My actions will almost invariably move me forwards or backwards in the hierarchy of man." (p. 160.)

"I cannot ennoble you if I have not become noble myself." (p. 184.)

*"Wisdom and Destiny." By Maurice Maeterlinck. Translated by Alfred Sutro. London: George Allen; New York: Harper & Brothers.

*Also translated by Mr. Sutro, with the title "The Treasure of the Humble."

"Let our one never-ceasing care be to better the love that we offer our fellows." (p. 185.)

"Even though a moral law seem on the eve of disappearing, we need have no cause for disquiet; its place will be speedily filled by a law that is greater still." (p. 190.)

"The external forces, we know, will not yield to the righteous man; but still he is absolute lord of most of the inner powers; and there are forever shining the web of nearly all our happiness and sorrow." (p. 198.)

"He who is morally right must be happier than he who is wrong." (p. 215.)

"Outside man there is no justice; within him injustice cannot be. The body may revel in ill-gotten pleasure, but virtue alone can bring contentment to the soul." (p. 216.)

"Belief and unbelief are mere empty words; not so the loyalty, the greatness, and profoundness of the reasons wherefore we believe or do not believe." (p. 220.)

To many readers, no doubt, such propositions will seem mere platitudes, futile attempts on the part of a creedless man to find something credible in life. To others, versed in the teachings of Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius, they will seem but the echoes of a dead and dark past, a past dead to what we call religion and unenlightened by what goes by the name of Christianity. But to many others they will appeal as the conscientious strivings of a sincere soul to work out its own salvation with fear and trembling.

Not the least interesting portions of M. Maeterlinck's book are those in which he deliberately puts his theory to the test by an examination of the great dramas of humanity—both those of fiction and those of reality: that of *Cædipus*—that of *Antigone*—that of *Hamlet*—that of *Louis XVI* in his flight to *Varennes*. In one and all he sees in the hero something lacking, something which, had he possessed it, would have saved him from succumbing to Fate. "Is not every action of *Hamlet* induced," he asks,—

—"by a fanatical impulse which tells him that duty consists in revenge alone? And does it not need superhuman effort to recognize that revenge never can be a duty? I say again that *Hamlet* thinks much, but that he is by no means wise." (p. 47.)

If the application of his test to the tragic history of *Louis XVI* is valid—and his arguments are cogent—M. Maeterlinck is a valuable ally of that school of historians—not now in the ascendant—which holds that events are controlled by the activity of man, not that man is the outcome of uncontrollable events. Maeterlinck may be called a modern Stoic; and Stoicism, in this feverish age, is rare enough to command attention, not to say respect. Epicureanism, not Stoicism, is the note of the literature of the day. When all the world seems absorbed in the trivial and the ephemeral, when things of immortal significance are either openly and sceptically ignored, or blindly and dogmatically accepted, it is something, surely, that a man should try once again, with the light of twenty centuries of faith and reason, to "justify the ways of God to man," and find some, however small, solution of that eternal problem of the relation of man to his external

world, and how best he may oppose his weak unwilling will to the overwhelming forces of Fate. And when such man, in this neurotic age which puts such stress upon heredity and environment, which regards mankind as the automatic product of evolution, the unconscious and unwilling offspring of natural selection and the struggle for existence, the sport of law, and a bubble upon the stream of time,—when such man calmly maintains that there is in Man a force equal in potency to the forces with which he is surrounded, maintains that Man can repel Nature, Wisdom oppose itself to Destiny,—that man, surely, should be heard. It is a profoundly suggestive book, is M. Maeterlinck's "*Wisdom and Destiny*."

T. A. H.

★

"*The Malakand Field Force*" Now that the United States have definitely decided to take up "the white man's burden,"

both in Occident and Orient, such a book as Lieutenant Winston L. Spencer Churchill's "*Story of the Malakand Field Force: an Episode of Frontier War*,"* is both opportune and important. It is also intensely interesting,—far more interesting than many a novel of heroic acts, for it recounts heroic deeds of actual occurrence, amid scenes the most romantic, on almost every page. The "story" is one common enough in British East Indian annals, and one likely soon enough to become common in our own annals if we hold the Philippines and organize Cuba. It is the story of the wave of Western civilization advancing upon the shores of Eastern barbarism. The scene is the dark defiles, the stupendous cliffs, and the mountain passes of Afghanistan on the northwest frontier of India. There, organized British troops, black and white, meet savage hordes. But the conflict is by no means an unequal one. The savage hordes are mountaineers armed with modern rifles; the troops are miles from their base, and their food has to be transported by paths passable only by mules in single file. The hordes are numbered by thousands; the regular troops are a handful.

There is no such thing as a pitched battle; the fighting is hand to hand, often in the dark. Blood-stained bayonets and dripping lances show the desperate character of the struggle. The percentage of killed and wounded is high—very high—especially among the officers. After every daily offensive advance the attacking force has to return to its temporary camp. Then comes the critical moment of the day. The hordes harass the retreating troops, isolated units are cut off, a galling fire is kept up from every sheltering rock. On the one side is a religious fanaticism roused to the white heat of desperation by priestly "mullahs"; on the other, the cold, courageous discipline of trained

* London, New York, and Bombay: Longmans, Green, and Co., 1898. With frontispiece, maps, plans, etc.

soldiers. The hordes fight for their faith, for their homes—so at least they think. The troops fight—for their Queen. It is a thrilling tale, thrillingly told by one of the most intelligent of war correspondents, himself a soldier, and himself taking his part in the thick of every *mêlée*—and desperate *mêlées* recur hour by hour, by day and by night. What he tells should be read, not only by everyone seeking a book filled to repletion with deeds of bravery and daring, but by everyone seeking information on the subject of savage warfare and how best to oppose it. Upon the use of cavalry, the moral effect of artillery, signalling, and many other technical details of modern warfare, Lieutenant Churchill speaks with conviction and with authority.

On such subjects as commissariat and transport the author is perhaps a little disappointing, but a cavalry subaltern cannot be expected to know everything; and in all conscience Lieutenant Churchill knows enough and to spare. His book should be studied by soldier and civilian alike. No one, we venture to say, will begrudge its small price when once he has perused it.

T. A. H.

★

Catalogue of the "T Square Club" Exhibition A Catalogue of the Architectural Exhibition of the T Square Club of Philadelphia has been issued in tasteful form, which is sure to interest not only professionals, but all who love art as it is expressed in architecture. The volume contains many most artistic illustrations reproducing the designs for public buildings, monumental arches, private dwellings, churches, libraries, etc., with working plans, color studies, and interior decorations,—the product of contemporary masters in American architecture. Many of the sketches are highly decorative, and the drawings in projection are delicately finished and show a fine eye for beauty of line and proportion. Among the most effective designs shown are, in our judgment, those for the Bronx Park (N. Y.) Botanical Building; for the Free Public Library, Jersey City (p. 94); for the Milwaukee Publishing Library; and for the Union Station, Pittsburgh, Pa. The compilers of the Catalogue prefix to it a number of letters from notable native designers and professors in architecture, in which the interesting question of an indigenous architecture in America is discussed. The answers are not, as a rule, encouraging, though it is admitted that signs are not wanting to indicate the coming of a distinctively native characteristic in American architecture. Architectural style is necessarily an evolution and must be more or less consciously a reproduction of foreign models, though variedly treated, to adapt it to modern tastes and to the thought, resources, and appliances of the present time. The discussion is not without profit, and will do good if it incites our native architects to more original study and

creative skill, while care will of course have to be taken to avoid freaks of invention and oddities in designing which are prompted by the fads of the hour or mere sensationalism. As public taste grows, there is sure to be increasing opportunity for the clever and studious artist in the craft of building, while the growing wealth of the nation makes possible at the same time the utilization of the finest materials for the display of artistic expression in architecture. Travel and culture have hitherto done much to improve the taste and impart skill to our professional architects and decorative designers. That native ingenuity will lag or constructive skill be lacking in a field so inviting to originality as that of American architecture, so that we must continue to draw inspiration only from Old World sources, we cannot believe; time alone is wanting for astonishing and gratifying results.

G. M. A.

★

The more elderly admirers of that most delightful of books for the young, 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland,' will be glad to know that the 'Life and Letters' of its author, Lewis Carroll (Rev. C. L. Dodgson), are presently to appear. Alice, it will be known, was the daughter of the late Dean Liddell, of Christ Church, Oxford, and it was to her and to her two young sisters that Mr. Dodgson's inimitable stories were told on river expeditions in summer to Nuneham or Godstow, near Oxford. On these expeditions came from all three sisters the old petition of 'Tell us a story,' and so began, we are told, the ever-delightful tale.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Ward, Dr. Adolphus W.: 'A History of English Dramatic Literature to the Death of Queen Anne.' New and revised edition. 3 vols., 8vo. London and New York: Macmillan Co.

Trevelyan, Sir George Otto: 'The American Revolution.' Part I, 1766-1776 (preceded by a chapter on Charles James Fox and his attitude toward the English Colonies in America). 8vo. London and New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

Bradford, Gamaliel: 'The Lesson of Popular Government.' 2 vols., 8vo. London and New York: The Macmillan Co.

Findlater, Jane H.: 'Rachel: A novel.' New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

Newsom, S. C.: 'Burke's Speech on Conciliation with America.' Edited with introduction and notes. Sq. 16mo. Price 25c. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Clyde (Anna M.) and Wallace (Lillian): 'Through the Year.' Books I and II. Supplementary readers combining nature study, science, history, and literature. Sq. 12mo. New York, Boston, and Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co.

Parnell, George: 'Rev. Josiah Hilton: The Apostle of the New Age.' Providence, R. I.: Journal of Commerce Co.

Howard, John K.: 'Henry Ward Beecher: A Study of His Personality, Career, and Influence in Public Affairs.' New York: Fords, Howard, and Hulbert.

Huntington, W. Reed, D. C. L.: 'A Short History of Common Prayer.' New York: Thomas Whittaker.

Huntington, W. Reed, D. C. L.: 'Psyche: A Study of the Soul.' New York: Thomas Whittaker.

Armstrong, R. A., B. A.: 'Faith and Doubt in the Century's Poets.' New York: Thomas Whittaker.

Fisher (Dr. Geo. E.) and Schwatt (Dr. I. J.): 'Text-Book of Algebra, with Exercises for Secondary Schools and Colleges.' Part I. 12mo. 683 pages. Philadelphia, Pa. (University of): Fisher and Schwatt.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD

WHAT THE NEW EDUCATION SEEKS TO ACCOMPLISH

"THERE always is a rising sun,
And day is ever but begun."

ALL systems of education may be said to have descended from previous ones, therefore the term "New Education" is in one sense a misnomer. The New Education is new only as regards its methods. The principles underlying these new methods were of slow growth—the result of centuries of experiment and thought. The New Education began to dawn after the night of the Middle Ages. Previous to this the schoolmaster was a monk, the classroom a crypt, and life itself seemed to be entered through the cloister. Superstition reigned, and the doings of angels received more time and attention than affairs of life; teachers quarreled over technicalities of Aristotle and others, yet those whose metaphysics or scientific views were sound were condemned as heretics and malicious witches. Obedience in education without intelligent acceptance was enforced, and was the rule of the day; self-denial and penances without true love of God was the ideal religion taught. The Church, in enforcing such a religion, gave no glimpse of the beauties of a world made for our pleasure by a loving Father above. But men came to realize that this was not true education or true religion. They turned with reverence to the wisdom and piety of the classic past. Western Europe arose to a grander idea of life. Their intellects became more eclectic, and education changed greatly for the better. Protestants and Catholics soon crystallized education into methods which for two hundred years have been used by all teachers, but which more advanced thinkers have ardently condemned.

Rousseau's work marks a great epoch. It is a strong protest against then existing educational methods. He took as his watchword, "Nature, reason, individuality," and, discarding the prejudices of society and dogmas of authority, demanded that man be treated as an organism, and that all the faculties of that organism be developed. His crude philosophies had, however, after the Revolution, to be disentangled and woven into order by German insight. The philosophies of Kant, Hegel, Richter, and others contributed to this result, notably that of the latter, whose ideas Froebel arranged with such true insight later. Richter preached the doctrine of an ideal man, and that education is the harmo-

nious development of the faculties and disposition of each individual. He contended that the imagination of each child should have free scope, and that a loving heart is of more consequence than mere book knowledge, thus opening the mind and quickening every faculty to do whatever work it finds to do in life.

It is, however, only within the last sixty years that the ideas of pedagogues have taken very definite shape. This may be ascribed to the fact that the voice of nature and revelation had found exponents like Comenius, Rousseau, Lancaster, Bell, Stowe, Pestalozzi, and Froebel. Each has contributed his quota to the "New Education." The Greek philosophers had had glimpses of the truths of natural education, but they were only glimpses. Later the Bacons—Roger in the thirteenth and Francis in the sixteenth century—gave seed-thoughts which took root. Still later Johann Amos Comenius, the great Moravian pedagogue, gave his views to the world. Two hundred years before Froebel he mapped out the work of the kindergarten in a remarkable way, but gave little light on the means of accomplishing it. "During the first six years," said he, "put into the child's mind the foundation of all knowledge necessary to life." "It is," he observed, "a fundamental error to begin teaching with language and end with things. Things are the substance, the body, and words the incidents and dress." These were great truths, and the best among educators who came after recognized them in the next two centuries and tried to apply them.

Near the middle of the eighteenth century came Pestalozzi, "the father of modern education." His ideas were advanced and correct, but his practice, like that of Comenius, was far behind his theory, and he dealt with words and pictures. He taught that all individual activity develops itself in self-activity; that self-activity has two phases, one consisting of reception, acquisition, learning—from without inward; the other of expression, production, creation—from within outward. The former, he taught, is the basis of the latter, but orderly and symmetrical development can only be secured by both. He held self-activity to be the great condition of progress.

Pestalozzi's works were attracting great attention. Froebel read them with much interest, and was so impressed with the teachings of their author, who was strong for instruction after natural methods, that he earnestly desired to meet him. He went to Switzerland, where he remained for a short time, learning something of Pestalozzi's methods. After returning to Germany an opportunity to go back to Switzerland presented itself. Securing a position to teach near the institution of Pestalozzi, he took some of his other pupils to Yverdon and connected himself with the Pestalozzi school. Here he taught and studied two years. Several years more passed, during which he spread the teaching of Pestalozzi, although he realized that there was something still missing to perfect this system of education. He felt that Pestalozzi's system was incomplete, but he did not at the time fully realize in what way to perfect it. Soon after he went to the University of Göttingen as a student. Here he studied Hebrew, Arabic, Indian, Persian, and Greek, but it was the lectures on natural history which had the greatest bearing upon his after-life and the course he pursued in relation to the kindergarten. Here he learned the fundamental forms of nature—crystals and minerals. These led him later further to study crystallography and mineralogy in the Royal Museum of Berlin. It was here that he became thoroughly convinced that all development is founded on one law, and that this unity must be at the basis of all principles of development—their beginning and end. This is the law of contrast and connection as shown in the contrast of the cube with the sphere, and their connection by the dodecahedron, the trapezohedron, and the intermediate forms. Lange says of this time: "Ever clearer to him was the identity of the law of development of the race with that of the individual, of the macrocosm with the microcosm. More and more important did this knowledge appear to him in forming an education conformable to nature."

The great idea of the kindergarten did not come to Froebel at once. He spent many years of his life in teaching older children before he finally came to the conclusion that education, to be complete, must begin with the first years of a child's life. "We must begin at the beginning," said he, after having devoted nearly a lifetime to the education of older children. He realized, what Pestalozzi and others failed to realize, that education should begin at the germinal period. He contended that it was most important that the young child should form correct ideas, and that there should be no false ideas to correct later in life. Froebel differs from any teacher who lived before him, in that he claimed that the thought and action of man, be it for good or evil, is largely determined by the trend given the

child's first impulses at its germinal point, before the little one can either think clearly or act determinedly. It was a favorite expression of Froebel's, that the world is weary of thinking and can only be cured by acting, and accordingly, in the kindergarten, free activity is the essential thing. The labor of the hand clears the mind. By using objects as materials for work, their properties and powers are learned. In this lies the great difference between Pestalozzi and Froebel, for, while the object lessons of the former appeal directly to the powers of observation, Froebel realized that children would never carefully or exhaustively observe any object with which they were not practically occupied. Thus, while others blundered in trying to educate children out of their world, Froebel found the path into the child's world—the world of symbolic play. The ancient Romans had an idea of the educational value of play, for they spoke of sending their children to play when they sent them to school. Plato also had seen the mighty power in the child's tireless love of play, and had suggested that it be made use of in education.

The great difference in the teachings of Pestalozzi and Froebel is in the fact that, while the object lessons of the former appeal to reason and the powers of observation, those of the latter engage the child through his natural activity.

The work of cultivating the human mind is of such supreme magnitude and importance that every plan tending to its perfection deserves careful consideration and fair trial; yet Froebel had at first great difficulty in getting the people of Germany to recognize his system of education.

The good Queen Louise had come to see the importance of the new education for Germany, and a number of young men were sent to the Pestalozzi institution to be trained as teachers. Many institutions where the newer education was taught sprang up, but Froebel endured much hardship before his child-garden was established in his own country. He found it hard to convince people that his kindergarten system was the only natural system of education for children. In it he wished children to grow as flowers do—naturally. "First the bud, then the full-blown flower." The name kindergarten—child-garden—did not at once suggest itself to him, but finally it sprang upon his consciousness that child-garden was a fitting title for his system of education.

It was at Blankenburg, in 1837, that Froebel founded the kindergarten. After many discouragements and disappointments he was called to Dresden and Hamburg, where many kindergartens were started, and soon the kindergarten was established as a universal institution.

In 1849 the Baroness Von Marenholtz-Bulow, a descendant of Charles the Great, gave her support and aid to the kindergarten, having

become convinced that the principles of Froebel's kindergarten and their application to the needs of the children were sound. She became an enthusiastic helper, and introduced Froebel to the reigning Duke of Meiningen, and at his house later the kindergarten was held for some of his poor subjects. It was through the efforts of the Baroness that kindergartens were established in France, Holland, Switzerland, Italy, and Russia.

In August, 1851, an order was sent out interdicting the kindergarten. The edict, which was removed in 1861 by the new minister of education, was caused by socialistic pamphlets published by Froebel's nephew, but which for a time were ascribed to Froebel himself.

The work of training kindergartens occupied Froebel's last days. The classes were held at

the castle of the Duke of Meiningen. The progress of the kindergarten was slow until 1872. It was Froebel's idea that the spirit of the American nationality was the only one in the world with which his creative method was in complete accord, yet it was not until 1856 that the first articles upon it were published in this country by Dr. Barnard of Hartford, in his "Journal of Education." Soon after Miss Elizabeth Peabody established the first kindergarten in America.

Froebel once said: "It will be centuries before my views of the human being as a child and its educational treatment can be generally accepted." That was half a century ago. The kindergarten, which has revolutionized the entire school system, is now fully established here.

FREDERIQUE SEEGER.

NEW YORK

COINS OF CONVERSATION

THE thought of all ages is the atmosphere we breathe; but sententious wisdom is handed down more compactly in maxims, proverbs, and sayings that influence us beyond our knowledge, perhaps beyond our belief. We are unaware of our immense debt to literature, and our equally immense dependence upon it for the conduct of life. For the conduct of life is regulated and guided, even in our most practical of nations, by theories of life, and theories are the outcome of thought, riveted in the memories of lesser men by some happy expression which conveys the idea in a terse sentence or striking phrase. A volume of philosophy may thus be summed up and brought to the understanding of men who have never read it, simply by the electric flash of a proverb or maxim. When the philosophy ceases to influence the age, the maxims are discredited; but new phrases take their places, drawn from fresh theories, and men continue to live as before, by the wisdom of the wisest condensed to suit their weaker understandings and to strike their hearts and imaginations. Thus, in the last century, after the revolution against the intensity of Puritan times which produced the licentiousness of the Restoration, men turned to a cold morality as the refuge against extremes, and such maxims as "Honesty is the best policy" came into common usage, summing up the philosophy of the time in a portable and striking fashion. At the end of the same century, with the new-born dreams of universal progress, Burns's grand couplet—

"The rank is but the guinea's stamp,
The man's the gowd for a' that."

—struck the imagination of his hearers and awoke in them a vivid realization of truths they had not so well perceived in volumes of rhapsodizing. After the tumult and upheaval of the French Revolution had produced its re-

action, came the calm of Wordsworth, with "plain living and high thinking" as a note to attract the attention and induce reflection.

All these golden sayings are the valuable coinage of the realm of thought. They have the highest importance. But in our most ordinary moods, our commonest conversation, we are not free from the influence of literature. Even unlettered people take upon their tongues, all unwittingly, phrases which bear the usage and superscription of great writers of whom, perhaps, they have scarcely heard,—phrases passed from mouth to mouth, generation after generation, because of their universal aptness, their perfection of significance. How many, for instance, speaking of the wife as "the better half," know that they are quoting Sir Philip Sidney, or, invoking "Mrs. Grundy," guess that her creator was Thomas Morton, a playwright who lived till 1838? Such phrases, or snatches of phrases, are the small coin of conversation, which bear the same imprint as the more important quotation, and we use them freely without a thought of their origin, as we pass the "nimble sixpence" from hand to hand in our daily traffic without a glance at its workmanship.

The metaphor that struck our ancestors as so admirable strikes us still, and we continue to use the apt adjective which, first given by Shakespeare or Milton, sounds as fresh to-day as when originally applied. The "bubble reputation," the "itching palm," the "milk of human kindness," the "undiscovered country," the "green-eyed monster,"—still our favorite synonyms for fame, covetousness, humanity, eternity, and jealousy,—are from Shakespeare, who has indeed furnished us with much of our small coin. His adjectives are the most apposite, too, of any in the language. Quoting him, we speak of an "ancient grudge," of

"bated breath," "this working-day world," "good set terms," "foregone conclusion," "better days," "fell purpose," "even-handed justice," "golden opinions," "a charmed life," "a towering passion," "a round unvarnished tale," "hairbreadth escapes," and many more common expressions whose list it were "damnable iteration" to extend. Verbal phrases of his are also of the most familiar. To "dance attendance," to "scotch the snake, not kill it," to "applaud to the echo," "to sup with horrors," to "die in harness," "making night hideous," "a tale unfold," to "out-herod Herod," to "fool to the top of his bent," to "cudgel one's brains," to "speak by the card," are some of the most obvious examples.

Next to Shakespeare, we draw most profusely from King James's version of the Bible for terse expressions. Milton, though far behind these two great sources of English speech, gives us more familiar expressions than any writer after them. From him we have learned to speak of "a dim religious light," of "grim death," "a heaven on earth," and "sanctity of reason," of "adding fuel to the flame," of "tempering justice with mercy," of the "busy hum of men," "the light fantastic toe," and the "neat-handed Phyllis." Chaucer, though rich in material for quotation, has given us no pithy phrases; but from Spenser, who sang of him as the "well of English undefyled," we get "nor rhyme nor reason," "by hook or crook," "sweet attractive grace," and "through thick and thin."

The wise Bacon has left little "small coin" with his great and abundant riches of apothegm, but "home to men's business and bosoms" is a somewhat familiar expression. It is, however, the picturesque, not the sententious writers to whom we are indebted for the briefer quotations which are the subject of our notice. Such great writers as Addison, Johnson, and Young furnish few "every-day" phrases; Addison's "classic ground," Johnson's "good hater," and Young's "balmy sleep," are the principal contributions from these three. Pope, however, is more generous. From him we have the "ruling passion," "guide, philosopher, and friend," "ears polite," "labored nothings," "a little learning," "damn with faint praise," "run amuck," "every virtue under heaven."

The poet Thomson, less read by the general public, has transmitted several sayings,— "the young idea," "unutterable things," "beauty unadorned," "hungry as the grave," and the "world's dread laugh." Goldsmith is respon-

sible for a grave and sententious saying,— "men, not measures,"—as is Swift for "sweetness and light." From Burke we get "cold neutrality" and "wise and salutary neglect." Cowper has given us our "dear five hundred friends," "the cups that cheer but not inebriate," "gloriously drunk," "a frugal mind," and "an aching void"; Sheridan, "the soft impeachment" and "a very pretty quarrel."

Coming to the present century, the task of tracing back our common parlance to the originators becomes more difficult. Southey was the inventor of that happy phrase, "the march of intellect"; Coleridge of "a sadder and a wiser man." Sir Walter Scott has supplied us with a new title for woman in "ministering angel," for an audience in "sea of upturned faces," and for bravery in "beard the lion in his den." Keats's "thing of beauty" is a household word; so is Tennyson's "honest doubt"; and "grand old gardener" has been parodied repeatedly. Many of our pet expressions are traceable to obscurer sources. "Glorious uncertainty" is from a play of the last century by Macklin; "pampered menial" from a poem by Moss, called "The Beggar." "Masterful inactivity" was a happy inspiration of James Mackintosh; "the almighty dollar," of Washington Irving.

"The schoolmaster abroad" is from a pertinent observation of Brougham, and "caught on," to use an expression of later days, because of its immediate appropriateness. It is in this way that the small coins of conversation are generally manufactured. A new phase of activity or a new feature of society appears, and for a time is spoken and written of in round-about fashion. But one day some bright wit invents a new phrase which puts the whole movement or tendency in a nutshell, and straightway the public adopts it into its vocabulary. Quite recently a thoughtful writer has called attention to the influence wrought by the common phrases of scientific thought, such as "survival of the fittest," which he contends has made society more selfish and has destroyed compassion. However this may be, we shall always eagerly seize upon a bright and pithy saying to add to the stores we already possess of the small coin of conversation, and the coiner of such phrases is certain of being remembered for a long time to come, as one who has added to the convenience, picturesqueness, and flexibility of language.

W. J. MORGAN.

OSWEGO, N. Y.

PROFESSOR JAMES E. RUSSELL, dean of the Teachers' College of Columbia University, has recently written a book on the "German Higher Schools,"* which embodies the results of his observations and studies during two years

spent in Germany as commissioner of the University of New York and agent of the United States Bureau of Education. Professor Russell has given close attention to the important subject of secondary education in Germany, and his book is worthy of attention by students of pedagogics.

* New York and London: Longmans, Green & Co.

RELIGIOUS THOUGHT AND OPINION

THE CHURCH AND THE SOCIAL PROBLEM

ALTHOUGH the social problem is one of the most prominent problems confronting civilization to-day, and although it is engaging the attention of political economists, sociologists, and philanthropists as never before, I am not willing to admit that the perplexing question is a new one to the church. On the contrary, I affirm that if there be one institution more than any other which has consistently and bravely and repeatedly battled with the social problem during the past ages, it is the Christian church. I do not mean to say that ministers have gone out of their legitimate sphere as preachers of the Gospel, and systematically dealt with questions pertaining to sociology and political science. It is not the duty of the church to aim at mere social and civic ends, to the exclusion of everything else; but I hold that clergymen have wisely and legitimately treated the great questions relating to justice among men, humaneness in governments, social inequalities and social wrongs, pity toward the weak, and brotherly love. The clergy have done this for the simple yet logical reason that the social problem and the Gospel of Christ are inseparably connected with each other.

Christ, when he walked among men, was frequently confronted with the social problem; and he aimed to bring the discordant classes of humanity into closer and more cordial relations with one another. He emphasized the great principle of love to God and love to men, which is the foundation, spirit, and genius of Christianity,—so that in the philosophy of the Man of Nazareth we find the true solution of the perplexing social problem in all its phases. In the Bible we discover the supreme remedy for the disease which has fastened itself so relentlessly upon the body politic of the United States and European countries,—a disease which now threatens to destroy free institutions as it effected the downfall of ancient Greece and Rome.

I go further and declare that the only radical solution of the social difficulty is to be found in Christianity. It cannot be found in an equitable distribution of money or produce; for if such distribution were to be effected to-day, it would be only a question of time—and a short time at that—when the shrewdest, sharpest, and most unscrupulous would get the wealth from the masses into their own hands, and the old conditions of inequality—of rich and poor—of millionaire and pauper—would

be revived. Neither could a radical solution of the social difficulty be found in legislation; for you cannot legislate the selfishness and sordidness and meanness out of mankind. The supreme remedy for the social inequalities and social wrongs complained of is that brotherhood which the Gospel of Jesus advocates and enforces.

Let us look at the real attitude of the church with reference to the social problem. I have no sympathy with the cry raised by a certain class, to the effect that the churches are the enemies of the working classes, and that clergymen "sustain the blood-stained banner of capital and fraud." Some individual churches and a few clergymen may be guilty of the charge; but they are emphatically the exceptions. The rule is that churches and clergymen are in hearty sympathy with the toiling, struggling classes, in harmony with Christ, who came to preach the Gospel to the poor and deliverance to the captive.

The Bible is essentially a sociological book; and all who thoroughly believe in its truths and precepts cannot but be in sympathy with the toiling multitudes. It is, moreover, a well-known fact that such of those toilers as are identified with churches contribute far more liberally, according to their means, for the support and propagation of the Gospel than do the rich. Hence there is no real foundation for the belief that the great body of Christians and the clergy as a class are guilty of toadying or of paying undue deference to the rich at the expense of the common people. I believe that the best friend the workingman has is Christ; that the best institution for the workingman, outside the home, is the church; that the book which deals the most ably with the social problem is the Bible; and that the most effective way to harmonize capital and labor is through the brotherhood of the Gospel.

It is the duty—as I believe it to be the practice—of the Christian ministry to teach religion as its Founder taught it, emphasizing the equality of rights and opportunities, the law of love, and duty to our neighbor. This will do more than anything else to correct social evils and bring the clashing elements of society into harmonious relationship. This will do more than any other agency to remove the hatreds and prejudices which ever and anon come to the surface as a result of the marked inequality of social conditions. Despotism would cease on the earth, labor would be amply rewarded

everywhere, and the selfish concentration of wealth would be unknown, were all men controlled by the sublime sentiment of Christianity, "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so unto them."

Let us for a moment observe the rule of Christianity as to its alleged impracticability. It is often said that the injunction, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," is one of the impracticable rules: Nothing, on the contrary, is more feasible; nothing is more reasonable. Nothing contributes so certainly to the peace and prosperity of employers and employees; and Christianity, by its incessant and unwavering enforcement of this rule, is doing more than anything else in the matter of solving the social problem and adjusting the differences and difficulties between capital and labor.

In dealing with sociological questions Christianity adopts a rule which is diametrically opposed to the old pagan maxim of getting all you can and keeping all you get. Christianity takes the stand against selfishness and says it is our duty to work for the benefit of one another and to recognize one another's interests. On the other hand, paganism adopts the theory of absolute selfishness and indifference to the wants and welfare of others. The pagan rule, I am sorry to say, still prevails in many sections. It is controlling men altogether too much in political, financial, and labor circles. As to capital and labor, it is manifest that wrongs are committed on both sides very frequently. The capitalist often grinds the workman down by paying wages which do not begin to be a sufficient compensation for his toil, although the business itself pays large dividends. The workman also is often unreasonable in making demands upon his employer which the condition of the industry will not warrant his acceding to. So selfishness may, as it often does, control the workman as well as the master.

There must be unity of interest and purpose for the welfare and peace of all concerned. The capitalist should study the interests and happiness of his workmen; and the workmen should also study the interests and welfare of the employer. It is only by this method of reciprocity that peace and confidence can be established in industrial centres, and that labor shall prove an agency for the elevation, happiness, and freedom of the race.

A further serious cause of alarm in this country at the present time is the concentration of wealth. Let us be honest and admit that wealth in the hands of good men is a power for the amelioration of human suffering and the promotion of righteousness; but wealth in the hands of bad men is a formidable power for evil. The present age is marked by great wealth held in the grasp of a few who attempt to dominate private rights, control public measures, and get the wheel to turn in such a way as to bring gain to themselves and grind the masses. The unrest so noticeable in labor cir-

cles to-day is proof of the existence of this evil, which may be called the money monarchy. It is right that this unrest should show itself in all lawful ways; for it is only by rising in manhood and might against oppression in any form that the oppressor can be overthrown. The history of all reforms, whether moral, political, or social, proves that every victory achieved in the past over injustice and tyranny has been won only through hard fighting and the courageous performance of duty. Progress by suffering is the law that applies equally to individuals and nations.

The present unrest among the toilers in America is indicative of manly resentment, for the most part; of indignation at the selfishness and cruelty which are producing slavery and misery in the ranks of laboring men. The rights of the poor must be defended, and the social problem must find its solution in the rule of Christianity: "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." Christ startled the whole Jewish world with his severe denunciations of those who devoured widows' houses and imposed upon the helpless and the weak. Since Christ's time the church has at intervals undoubtedly lapsed into a condition of indifference; yet Christianity has never failed to sound, through its most faithful representatives, the note of alarm to warn men against covetousness and urge obedience to the golden rule. The fidelity of the church in this respect was never more marked than it is in these closing days of the nineteenth century. The leading pulpits in Europe and America have, for past decades, exerted a most potent influence for good in the direction of encouraging a larger philanthropy, a more general brotherhood, and a loftier manhood. To-day the strongest blows against selfishness and cruelty are being struck in those same pulpits; and while it is noticeable that there is an alarming concentration of wealth at the present time, on the other hand one cannot fail to see that never in the history of the world were more munificent offerings made for missions and other similar objects than now. Through the influence of Christianity money is being made to flow freely from the rich through the various channels of religious enterprise; and while we have to lament that the pagan sentiment of selfishness still dominates the world, yet we are now nearer a fulfilment of the reciprocal obligations which Christianity imposes than we ever were in the past.

May the time speedily come when the Christian rule shall so govern capital and labor everywhere that peace, prosperity, and happiness shall come to all. The larger brotherhood, wrought out by neighbor-loving, will introduce confidence and mutuality of interests among men, and not until that larger brotherhood in Christ is established will there be ushered in the ideal reign of peace and plenty.

THOMAS J. MACMURRAY, LL.B.

CHENOA, ILL.

A PHILOSOPHY OF REVIVALS

MUCH interest has centred upon the question of revivals, especially of late years. Considering the stage at which the discussion has arrived we need not wonder that so many diverse opinions are expressed concerning them. There can be nothing accomplished by talking indiscriminately for or against revivals,—the course pursued by too many. They must be explained. There are causes for them which it is the duty of the fair-minded and thoughtful to investigate. This is not a question to be relegated to the cell or to the theologian. "It is a most healthful symptom that our age questions everything." It will be generally admitted that the animadversion given vent to at "revival times," and the antipathy manifested toward them, are anything but pleasant. If there is really some explanation which will help to reconcile people's opinions as to their merits or demerits, we may hail it with joy.

Parents use methods in teaching their children they would never think of when the children were grown. Christ revealed truth as his followers were able to bear it, and so did his apostles. What appeals to *men* would be a foreign language to children.

Everybody knows that those who are rightly trained and led along the pathway by which a child becomes a man are in a hopeless minority. And what is the result? Untrained lives, weaknesses, vitiated morals, sin, iniquity, and destruction,—all follow. A community of untrained lives like this carries its responsibilities very lightly and suffers many religious backslidings.

Here is the cause which makes revivals necessary, but necessary only in the sense that a cure—if it can be found—is necessary for a disease, or for some physical impairment, voluntary or otherwise. Revivals are not necessary as a principle: "an ounce of prevention is worth a ton of cure." Webster defines a revival as a renewed interest in religion after indifference and decline,—a period of religious awakening.

Just so; it is due to neglect of religious training on the part of parents and teachers and preachers, although the blame is generally supposed to lie in the opposite direction. Many people should no more be blamed for needing a revival than a child should be blamed for weaknesses due to parental neglect. Too much preaching and teaching and especially training is above the average mind or is misapplied, due doubtless to want of education rather than on account of it.

A revival, then, is a sort of apology for neglected work. Its methods, as any careful observer will notice, are such as appeal to the child mind. There is imagery, story-telling, illustrating, word-painting, etc., *ad nauseam*

to the uncharitable. A revival is an attempted substitute for training. Can we wonder, then, that it fails to cover the same ground and meet the demands of its critics? The result will always be incomplete and unsatisfactory, not because people do not need revivals or that someone blundered about it, not because it is the offspring of ignorance at all, but because moral and spiritual facilities have become atrophied by neglect of training.

That this reasoning is correct, a study of revivals will, I think, show. They are less frequent for the reason that there is more attention paid to training, to natural method, than formerly. Yet sometimes we find cases where training is neglected and revivals discounted, a case where the devil, and not truth, "prevails with double sway."

The early ages of Protestantism witnessed revivals incessantly. There had been centuries of neglect, a long sleep, and when the change came it came with the weight of an overpowering conviction, as we note in the Wesleyan revival and in the history of pioneer evangelical work in our own country.

That evils attend revivals no one who is acquainted with their causes and nature will deny. Some are led to think that there is no other way of getting into the kingdom of heaven, and they look with prejudice upon all quiet religious influence. Many good people think revivals are a fundamental necessity, and imagine nothing good is done except at such times or unless there is noise accompanying it. This produces a tendency to minify every-day Christian living, which is a permanent force in the world. They pray for a revival and dishonor the means Providence has placed near them with which to do good.

Another evil may be mentioned; people who have been lax in morals, careless and indifferent to plain and primary duties, are by a revival quickly brought into possession of power and virtue and position for which they do not pay the price they ought. They sit on the right hand of goodness without drinking the cup of self-sacrifice. Hereditary tendencies, habits of sin, and questionable conduct are juggled away somehow with very little trouble.

But we must bear in mind that many imperfections are yet in the world, and try to understand and explain the causes of things which seem so. Revival methods are primary, and every community must have its share of these. It has its choice of taking them by the natural way of training or in a "revival," bearing in mind the evils which accompany the latter. There is no need for intolerance or bitterness about it when looked at with an unprejudiced mind.

R. O. ARMSTRONG, M.A.

MULGRAVE, N.S.

SCIENCE AND DISCOVERY

DEEP-SEA DREDGING

THE study of zoölogy and of the other "ologies" in high schools and colleges demands nowadays that the material required for experiments and practical demonstrations be the real article and not a makeshift. While land animal life is utilized to some extent, the scientist turns to the sea to provide the most perfect examples of what he seeks. Thus, in the more progressive institutions of learning, no matter how far inland they may be located, are to be found fine collections of marine forms, not merely shrivelled, distorted shapes, but so well preserved and of such recent acquisition that they can be dissected for intelligent investigation.

In order to obtain such collections, dredging in deep water is necessary. It has been ascertained within the last half-decade that the least expensive way to secure deep-water specimens is for the collector to send out his own party, hiring a vessel, and, if within his power, manufacturing the apparatus to be used. When a college is the collector, it acts on these lines, and the results have thus far been altogether satisfactory. Better results are obtained with comparatively less outlay than if the articles were bought from houses dealing in such goods. Consequently dredging expeditions are rapidly coming into favor.

Before this method had been tried, a dredging cruise was thought to be unavoidably expensive, since steam was held to be essential as the motive power for vessel and dredge. But it has been proved that a sailing-vessel is perfectly manageable and efficient, and that the muscle of the students is ample to take in the hauls.

A cruise after specimens constitutes a most de-

lightful trip. A craft well adapted for the voyage has been found in the typical Baltimore "fruiter," a two-masted schooner with a centre-board and large hold. A very convenient size is ninety-five feet in length, twenty-eight feet in beam, and 116 tons of net measurement. Such a vessel is neither too large nor too small. The favorite cruising grounds are in the West Indies, in particular along the Bahama Keys, while the Florida Reef is rich in the required material.

One of the most successful dredging expeditions sent out by a college went forth from the centre of the Mississippi valley, and sailed from Baltimore in a schooner of the size just mentioned. The party numbered twenty-one, — six professors and instructors, and fifteen students. In the company were seven women, as the college was coeducational. Membership was gained by proficiency in scientific work. The crew of the schooner consisted of a captain and mate, cook, steward, and three sailors. The cruise began in May and ended in August, consuming three months to a day. The area dredged over was among the Bahamas, the Florida Keys, and along the Cuban coast.



HOISTING THE DREDGE

The apparatus, which must be put in position while the vessel is on its way to the dredging-grounds, is, in a sailing-craft, very simple. The hoisting-gear or drum is known as a "crab." It consists of a horizontal drum of iron, fifteen inches in diameter and thirty inches long, resting on a heavy metal frame fastened to the deck, midway between foremast and mainmast, by large, stout bolts. The drum has a single and double purchase for cranks, of which a pair are employed, one at either end of the cylinder. Tremendous force can be exerted by the double purchase, which is used only when the dredge hangs or is caught on rocks. A friction-brake arrests slipping or backward movement, thus doing away with danger from flying handles.

An iron rope is wound around the drum. Once hemp rope was deemed the only cable fitted for dredging, but a rope of steel has been



THE "TANGLES" COMING UP

demonstrated not simply feasible but even superior to the other. The drum holds about 1,900 feet of this rope. The cable is led over the rail, lifted, to avoid contact, by a spar stepped to the foremast, with a block in its end to receive and guide the line. Another block retains the cable close to the rail. The first illustration shows the details of the "crab."

Some dredges are iron rectangles, with netting, protected by an envelope of canvas, attached to their mouth like a bag. Dragged along the bottom they scoop up what they encounter, and the netting catches most of it,

Trawls are not so large as dredges, but are similar in shape. They skim over the surface, when objects liable to be found there are wanted. A common Chesapeake Bay oyster dredge is about the most useful piece of apparatus, for its huge teeth tear from the sea-bed massive coral and immense plants.

Tangles, however, are the most astonishing utensil, according to the results arrived at. The contrivance is comparatively little known. To an iron bar four feet in length are tied bunches of hemp rope, five feet long, teased out or unravelled. When these fringes are hauled over the bottom of the ocean they gather up everything within reach, bringing to the surface an inconceivable amount and variety of objects.

While dredging in the semi-tropics everybody sleeps on deck, the hold, which is furnished with tiers of bunks, and the cabin prepared for the feminine contingent, being too hot for comfort. The sailors washing down the decks at six o'clock, or four bells, in the morning, awaken the slumberers, who arise from the cabin roof and other sheltered spots for the duties of the day.

A haul with the dredge or tangles is usually made before breakfast. The schooner is luffed, so that she loses her headway, and the dredge or tangles are put over the side. Then the craft pays off slowly, and the rope, carefully oiled to prevent corrosion, unreels from the drum. A student stands at the rail, and frequently feels the cable to ascertain if bottom has been reached. This condition is known by the tremor given to the line as the roughnesses below joggle the apparatus now far out of sight behind.

As a rule dredging is carried on in water of from five to five hundred fathoms, depths within this range being sufficient to furnish the best examples of the life desired. Twenty minutes are necessary to unreel enough cable to reach bottom in the deeper hauls. Then the dredge or tangles are allowed to drag for perhaps half an hour.

The students assigned to duty are usually divided into reliefs of twos, whose names are posted on the mainmast. When time is up, the relief whose shift it is begins to wind in. Somebody directs the rope so that it falls in smooth folds around the drum. A kink is fatal to it, and steel cable is precious. The first shift does its allotted fifty turns of the cranks, or thirty-five if the strain is unusually heavy and the double purchase is called into play. The next pair is now called into requisition, and so on. Hoisting a dredge by hand-power under a fierce sun is rather violent exercise, but it is splendid for the arms and back.

The operation of putting out and taking in consumes an hour and a half. Two sets of tangles are used, so that while one is being tediously picked over, the other is in the water. Students are assigned to sorting the specimens,

to arranging the receptacles, to oiling the rope, to starting the dredge aright, to labelling the material, packing it, and other necessary duties. The routine is unvarying.

After breakfast three hauls are made before dinner, and two more follow the noon hour. All are then pretty tired. But however weary is the toil at the cranks, dredging in the deep sea is a gamble, and as such is exciting. One never knows what will happen — what the result of the haul will be.

The water in the tropics is wonderfully clear, and the course of the dredge or tangles can be watched for many fathoms down. In ten or twenty fathoms the progress of the apparatus along the ocean bed can be observed. In greater depths the rope gradually fades into nothingness.

The line forms a black crack in the crystal below. As the schooner forges slowly ahead, all kinds of things that live in the sea pass beneath the vessel's hull like a marvellous panorama. The students leaning over the rail conjecture that this and that will be caught by their machinery, to be brought to the world above.

The hoisting commences. After a time, afar in the emerald beside the schooner's wake as she drifts, is visible a misty something, a vague shape. Bubbles cling to it, and objects detach themselves from it and sink away. As the mass approaches, all the students except those manipulating the cranks cluster at the rail to look. Glimpses of the freightage of the contrivance can be distinguished, and finally it is directly abeam, close to the schooner. It is cautiously lifted out from the water and deposited on deck.

If a dredge, its yawning mouth reveals a world of wonders. Huge stars of bright crimson, too large to go into a tub; great sea crabs, with menacing claws, their bodies a chocolate brown, their bellies a pale drab, their legs and pinchers red and blue—for even in the dull depths nature is lavish with her palette, and spider crabs, a yard and more from tip to tip of outstretched arms, are bedecked like a rainbow;



STARFISH AND SEA-URCHINS, BAHAMAS

little flounders, with eyes, scales, and all on the one side, and the other blank as a wall; a bat-fish, hideous as a leper; an unknown monster in miniature, knobby and warty and black as an imp, with a catfish maw, a rod and bait protruding over his upper lip as a lure, and gills under his ventral fins; angel-fishes, yellow and black, or blue and white, and capable of biting in a manner that quite belies their name; a sea-cucumber, that deliberately commits suicide by turning himself inside out, voiding his stomach; prickly urchins; a young squid; dainty corals; priceless crinoids—the sea lily of æons ago; brilliant worms; and, in fact, an endless variety of plant and animal life appreciated only by those few fortunate persons privileged to gaze at them before the air takes from them both color and shape.

Some specimens are at once thrown into tubs of salt water, for study and observation at the leisure of the scientists. Others are dried on the roof of the cabin. The majority are placed in alcohol. After soaking in this way for three days they are transferred to capacious tin pans, with liplike edges. These pans are soldered together, two and two, edge to edge, so that each pair forms an airtight case. Alcohol is not necessary now, and was drained off before the tins were sealed. The specimens keep in perfect condition, with a saving of weight and fluid. Round pans are superior to square ones. The cases are then crated in racks of five or six.

Coral, after it has been bleached from its natural dingy drab color to a snowy whiteness, by being exposed to fresh water, sun, and

wind, is "slung" in boxes,—that is, is supported in a cradle of twine,—making it insensible to shocks. It is exceedingly brittle and so requires the utmost care. The bleaching is most thoroughly effected by placing the coral on a key, where rain and wind and sun can work on it. Otherwise it can be stowed in a boat on deck, and bathed by the bucket process.

All in all, the tangles are better agents for procuring specimens than is the dredge. The strands of the rope seem to catch every object encountered and in the case of the valuable crinoids and other tender things do not break them. The picking over of tangles is a soul-harrowing job, because of the many intricate knots formed by the action of the water.

Bodies of turtles and other large animals whose skeletons are wished for museum purposes are deposited on a key, and in thirty-six hours the crabs will have stripped the bones of every vestige of flesh, without disturbing a bit of the framework.

EDWIN L. SABIN.

PEORIA, ILL.

★

ONE of the municipal divisions of London, the parish of Shoreditch, which a few months ago installed a plant for the production of electric light and power by the consumption of refuse, has shown the wisdom of its course in the published returns of its disbursements, work accomplished, and profits. At an expense of \$60,000 the requisite machinery was erected, and this was kept in constant operation (except for twelve hours each Sunday), supplying light for public buildings, private houses, and streets, and power (during the day) for manufacturing. The cost of running the plant and providing for all charges of interest, sinking-fund, etc., was \$29,000. Of this sum but \$432 was expended for coal; street-sweepings, cinders, and manufacturing waste taking the place of all other fuel. The removal of this material had previously cost the parish \$30,000 a year, its method of disposal being the too frequent and often disastrous one of dumping in navigable waters. In addition to this, \$20,000 was annually spent for inefficiently lighting the streets and public buildings with gas. The receipts from the sale of light and power, including a credit for the charge of lighting the streets in the old way, amounted to \$45,000, thus showing a profit of \$16,000. Adding the previous cost of destroying the economic fuel that produced such satisfactory results, a clear return of \$46,000 on a prime expenditure of \$60,000 for plant is shown. Such figures make a powerful argument for the wise extension of municipal powers and the economical solution of the problem of disposing of city waste.

The late Colonel Waring had given much study to this subject, and, before his death, had taken steps to put his theories into practice. In this direction alone, irrespective of his sanitary reforms, his loss is a serious blow to American municipal improvements.

E. E. T.

THE Society of Arts, in London, has recently discussed an invention of Professor Walter Nernst, of Göttingen University. This is a new form of incandescent electric lamp, in which the familiar carbon filament is replaced by one of magnesium oxide or other incombustible material similar to the substances used in the manufacture of the Welsbach gas-mantles. The incombustibility of the filament permits the abolition of the glass vacuum globe which is rendered necessary by the destructibility of the carbon filament now in use. A peculiarity of the new discovery is that the new filament, which is a non-conductor of electricity when cold, becomes a conductor when heated. By means of an electric current passed through a spiral coil of platinum wire, sufficient heat is developed, by means of a reflector, to raise the magnesium filament to a conductive heat. The current being then switched so as to pass through the magnesium filament, the latter, by means of its resistance, becomes incandescent, thereby not only giving out the desired light, but also supplying sufficient heat to keep the magnesium in its conductive state. A saving of at least one third is predicted from this discovery, not alone in the cost of the vacuum bulbs of the present system, but also in the cost of the copper conductors, Professor Nernst's discovery permitting the use of a much smaller copper wire. The light produced is said to be of excellent quality, and the discovery to be one of great commercial importance.

E. E. T.

★

THE national movement in England for the prevention of the spread of consumption, writes Dr. Andrew Wilson, has evidently received the measure of attention that it was eminently to be desired it would attract. The power of the press was never employed in any service more humane or beneficial than in that which teaches the people how to prevent the inroads of a very dire disorder, and one which, be it remembered, is an infectious and a preventable ailment. It seems to me, however, that we are in danger of overlooking certain important experiments which were made chiefly by Drs. Arthur Ransome and Delépine on the power which light and pure air exert in destroying the bacilli or microbes to which tuberculosis is due. I observe that eight years ago it was shown that the bacilli remained active for months when they were kept (in the expectoration from affected lungs) in a hut which was built directly on a clay soil. In the converse case, bacilli exposed to the air in a healthy house standing on a sandy soil lost their infective powers. It was also noted that when bacilli were exposed to a current of pure air they were killed in three days; if to the fresh air the influence of sunlight was added, the time required for their destruction was of much shorter duration.

YOUTH'S DEPARTMENT — HISTORICAL STUDIES

OLD STORIES OF THE COYOTE

THE nocturnal, prowling, secretive disposition and remarkable craftiness of the prairie wolf, or coyote, together with the annoyance it is able to inflict upon mankind, cause it to figure prominently in the folk-lore, myths, and worship of the native races of the Far West, where it has always been common. Some of these stories suggest the sly Reynard of European folk-tales, and perhaps other interesting parallels.

In all the Mexican pantheon the most sublime figure is that of Tezcatlipoca, the creator of heaven and earth, sole ruler of the universe, invisible but omniscient. To him, as presiding over darkness and all mysteries, was dedicated the nocturnal and crafty coyote. Among the Nahuas, the aborigines of Central Mexico, this animal was held in such high honor, indeed, that it had a temple of its own, a corps of priests devoted to its special service, statues carved in stone, and an elaborate tomb after death. Religious significance was attached to dogs and wolves in many ways throughout all tropical America, generally through some fancied connection with the moon. On this side of the Mexican line—that is, within the United States—we find the coyote personified in the mythology of the red men as the Creator himself, or as His foremost agent; while here and there it is identified with the sun (which was the visible incarnation of the Creator to the minds of many), or associating with it and representing its demiurgic force.

This was the ancient coyote,—the agile-brained and fleet-footed hill-dog of that old mythologic time, and in that wonderful "land of lost gods and godlike men." The wolf of to-day is a howling, thieving pest, but that wolf's ancestor—the first of the line—was divine.

Among the Indians of the Utah Basin speaking Shoshonee, the belief in a long list and variety of animal-gods as the creators of the universe is at the foundation of religious theory. "By these animal-gods all things were established. The heavenly bodies were created and their ways appointed, and when the powers and phenomena of nature are personified the personages are beasts, and all human institutions were established by the ancient animal-gods." In this theism the primeval rattlesnake, To-go-äv, is the Chief of the Council, but Cin-äü-äv, the coyote, comes next in rank and arranges mundane affairs.

Thus, in one story, the two discuss the matter of food and decide that it is better that the Uinkareet should work for a living than that they should be given a self-renewing store of fruits, roots, and honeydew falling as the snow. In another the elder decided, against the younger brother's wish, that the dead cannot return again; whereupon the younger, Cin-äü-äv killed the son of his brother, and long afterward taunted him with being the first to suffer by this cruel decree. "Then the elder knew that the younger had killed his child . . . and, as his wrath increased, the world rocked, subterraneous groanings were heard, darkness came on, fierce storms raged, lightning flashed, thunder reverberated through the heavens, and the younger brother fled in great terror to his father, Ta-vwoots, for protection." Thus was explained to these childlike people the disturbed volcanic condition of their land.

An almost exact parallel to this story is to be found among the once powerful Nishinam Indians of central California; but there the two brothers are represented by the coyote and the moon. The moon was good, but the coyote was bad. In making men the moon wished to constitute their souls in such a way that when they died they should return to earth after two or three days, as he himself does. But the coyote was ill disposed and declared that when men died their survivors must burn their bodies. The moon was obliged to acquiesce, but before long caused the death of the coyotes, and insisted upon the application of the law, to the bereaved parents' great disgust.

This recalls also a myth of the Baonaks, who believe themselves to have been developed out of coyotes by the gradual loss of useless members and a slow "adaptation to environment." When one of these coyote ancestors died, various animal shapes would spring from the body, many of which took wings and flew away to the moon. The old coyotes, fearing the earth might become depopulated, instituted the cremation of corpses.

In the wonderful adventures of the Sokus Wai-un-ats, who was first one, then two, in his long contest with Stone Shirt (as told to Major Powell by the Indians who live at the lower end of the Colorado Cañon), Cin-äü-äv appears "as extremely proud of his fame as a hunter," but consoles himself by philosophy under the chagrin of a failure. "What matters," he observes, "who kills the game when we can all

eat it,"—a maxim worthy of a coyote! In that long solar myth, told by Utes, of how Tavwoots, the little rabbit, went to kill the sun and caused the conflagration of the world, Cin-au-äv is the owner of the first field he comes to, and the producer of the ancient corn whose seed descended to plant the fields of to-day; and he is the hero of many another religious legend told by Shoshonee and Kalispelm firesides.

The deity and creator of the Karok religion was Kareya, who made the fishes, the mammals, and finally The Man. Him he commanded to assemble all the animals in order to assign to each its rank, by distributing bows and arrows,—the longest to the most powerful, and so on down the scale. The beasts and birds came together the night before the distribution, and all went to sleep except the coyote, who determined to stay awake all night and go forth earliest in the morning to get the longest bow. He took extraordinary pains to keep awake, but overreached himself in an excess of ingenuity, and fell asleep just before dawn. When he opened his eyes only the very shortest bow was left for him. But Kareya, pitying his weakness and disappointment, gave him cunning ten times greater than before, so that he was sharp-witted above all the animals in the wood. In return the grateful coyote befriended The Man and his children ever afterward, and did many helpful things for them. Similarly, among the Nishinam, where his history began as the evil principle assisting at the creation, the coyote turned friendly, killing two cannibal giants, procuring fire for the tribe, and doing other feats common to solar heroes the world over.

He obtained the needed fire on the plan of the monkey and the cat in the matter of the roasted chestnuts,—by sending after it the lizard, who, with the bat and sandhill crane that helped him, saw some exciting adventures.

When Kareya made the fishes he did not let the salmon come up the Klamath River, so that the Karok, who live on its upper part, were sorely pressed for food; for Kareya had made a great fish-dam at the mouth of the river and given the key to two old hags to keep, who never ceased their watching even to sleep. Seeing that the Indians were nearly starved, the coyote befriended them. He made a visit to the hags on an ingenious pretext, but only succeeded so far as to find that the key was kept too high for him to reach it. He stayed all night in the cabin with the hags, pretending to sleep, but watching their movements out of a corner of his eye. In the morning one of the hags took down the key and started to get some salmon for her breakfast. Then the coyote happened to think of a way to get the key. Jumping up he darted under the hag, throwing her down and causing her to fling the key a long way off. Before she could get

up the coyote had seized the key and opened the dam. This is the way the salmon went up the Klamath, and the Karok got plenty of food. But they had no fire with which to cook it, because Kareya had hidden it in a casket which he gave to two sleepless hags far toward the rising sun. The coyote therefore volunteered to get this second boon for them.

He stationed a line of animals all along the road from the home of the Karok to the far distant land where the fire was, the strongest near the fire. Lastly, he stationed an Indian under a hill. This done, the coyote insinuated himself politely into the good graces of the old guardians and lay by their hearth all night, feeling very comfortable and pretending to sleep. Evidently, without help there was no way to elude their vigilance; so in the morning he stole out and had a talk with the Indian under the hill, after which he went back to lie down by the hearth as before. Presently, as had been concerted, the Indian was heard hammering at the door, as if to break it in, and the old beldames rushed out to drive him away. This was the coyote's opportunity. As the hags dashed out at one door the cunning thief seized a flaming brand in his teeth and leaped through the other. He almost flew over the ground, but the hags saw the sparks and gave chase, gaining on him fast. By the time he was out of breath he reached the puma, who took the brand and ran with it to the next animal, and so on. Last of all was the frog, who caught the fire in his mouth, swallowed it, and dived, the hags catching his tail (he was a tadpole then) and twitching it off in the act. The frog swam under water a long distance, then came up and spit the fire into a log of driftwood, and there it has stayed ever since, so that when an Indian rubs two pieces of wood together the fire comes forth. Another cognate Gallinomero myth says dry wood was first invested with this perpetual spark after the coyote had rubbed two pieces together until they ignited. The Navajos recount a similar fable. They, too, lacked fire and were in distress, so the coyote, the bat, and the squirrel promised to get it for them, the fire seeming to be in the possession of the animals in general, at a distance. The coyote fastened pine splinters in his tail, went to the place where the article was to be had, dashed through the flames, and started homeward at full gallop. When out of breath the bat relieved him, and flew till he was ready to drop, when the squirrel caught the torch and carried it into the camp of the Navajos. This recalls the Nishinam fable, though the two tribes belong to different linguistic stocks.

The Shastikas, of the neighborhood of Mount Shasta, account for the origin of fire by saying that a long time ago there was a fire-stone in the East, white and glistening like pure crystal, which the coyote brought and gave to the Indians.

After Kareya had made the coyote so cunning, he grew ambitious and tried many feats which Kareya had never intended for him. The Karok explain meteors, and especially those that seem to burst, by a story of one of these failures on the part of the adventurous animal, who waited on a mountain-top and tried to dance with the stars. A star took him up as a partner, but would not stop dancing when the novice grew tired, because Kareya had made it to keep moving. Thus the coyote was compelled to go on pirouetting and dangling until he fell to pieces.

Among the Navajos of northern New Mexico one hears it said that after the sun and moon had been made in the heavenly workshop, the "old men" set about embroidering the sky with stars in beautiful patterns; but just as they had made a beginning the coyote rushed in and contemptuously scattered the pile of stars broadcast over the floor of heaven, just as they now lie. The Kern River tribes (related to the Pai-Utes) recite a complicated myth of the way the coyote once made a trip through the sky in company with the sun. Ages ago, while men were yet in the form of coyotes, an exceedingly great drought parched the land, during which a famous coyote and his two sons ate many grasshoppers—all the animal life there was left. The only water was in Clear Lake (Nevada), and thither they journeyed. The sons died on the way, but the father reached the lake and drank it dry. Then he lay down and fell asleep. As he slept there came a man from the south and pricked him with a spear, so that the waters flowed forth from him and returned to the lake, filling it, while the grasshoppers he had eaten became fishes. There are other legends accounting for this deep and beautiful piece of water, in which the coyote is made to exercise supreme functions, but this is the one the local natives tell.

In the early days of the earth, as a Gallinero philosopher will teach you, all nature was wrapped in thick darkness, and there were dire confusion and endless collisions, one of which accidents brought the coyote and hawk together. Instead of indulging idle recriminations, they consulted how they could improve this state of things. The coyote groped his way into a swamp and gathered a quantity of dry tules, which he rolled into a large ball. This he gave to the hawk with some flints, and sent him up into heaven with it, where he touched it off and sent it whirling round the earth. This was the sun. The moon they made in the same way, only the tules happened to be damp and did not burn so well. There is a legend current among the Papagos on the Gila River, Arizona, of a great deluge from which only their great myth-hero Montezuma (not to be confounded with the veritable Aztec emperor whom Cortez saw) and the great mythical ancestral coyote escaped. The coyote had foretold this deluge, and Montezuma had hollowed

out a canoe, while the coyote prepared for himself an ark in a hollow cane, so that both survived the universal inundation until land reappeared.

The Ashochimi preserve a legend of a flood which drowned all living creatures except the coyote. Seeking out, over all the world, the sites of the antediluvian villages, he gathered the floating tail-feathers of hawks, owls, and buzzards, and planted one wherever a wigwam had stood. In due time these feathers sprouted, branched, and finally turned into men and women.

The Pit River (California) Indians (Achómawi) have a somewhat similar story. The coyote began the earth by scratching it up out of nothingness. Then the eagle complained that he had no perch, whereupon the coyote scratched up great ridges. When the eagle flew over them his feathers dropped down, took root and became trees, and the pin-feathers bushes and plants. After men had been created, they were freezing for want of fire, so the coyote journeyed far to the west to a place where there was fire, stole some of it and kindled a fire in the mountains, to which the Indians resorted. The Shastika say that originally the sun had nine brothers flaming hot with fire, so that the world was likely to perish, but the coyote slew them and saved mankind from burning up. There were ten moons also, all made of ice, so that in the night people nearly froze to death. Nine of these the coyote slew with his flint-knife, carrying heated stones to keep his hands warm.

The Miwok (of California) possess a very elaborate myth of the creation of man, in regard to which the coyote called a council of animals after he had finished fashioning the globe and all its inferior creatures.

Each speaker at this council wanted to form man just like itself. The coyote made free to say that this was all nonsense. He did not consider himself the most perfect animal that could be made, and he announced, as his idea, that man should be formed by combining the best points of all existing creatures,—strong voice like a puma; lack of tail like a bear, for (in the speaker's opinion) a tail was nothing but a harbor for fleas; sharp eye, as the elk's, and so on. But, said he, surely there was no animal beside himself from whom wit might be borrowed, and therefore man should resemble the coyote in activity and cunning of mind. Hearing this, the council broke up in a row, and every animal set to work to make an earthen image after his own ideas. Night came before any models were finished, and all the sculptors went to sleep except the coyote, who, when the camp had become quiet, destroyed the others' models, moulded the composite one he had proposed, and gave it life with the rising dawn.

ERNEST INGERSOLL.

NEW YORK

BUSINESS AND FINANCE

THAT able writer on financial and commercial affairs, Mr. Matthew Marshall, in the New York "Sun" of March 6, notes the recent large increase in the creation of industrial corporations by the consolidation of smaller ones, and even by the fusion of former consolidations into still larger units. In this latter connection he cites the union of the American Tobacco Company with the Union Tobacco Company. The 'wrought-iron tube makers also have formed a combination with an aggregate capital of \$60,000,000, and in the prospective consolidations of manufacturers of chewing-gum, coffins and undertakers' supplies, vinegar, cigars and cigarettes, as well as of salmon packers, etc., he foresees that natural limitations may effect that which certain social economists and agitators would endeavor to do by law. Admitting that these consolidations are "sound in principle, and the legitimate outcome of the tendency of modern civilization," he believes that "the limited capacity of the human mind to grasp and digest facts, foresee eventualities, and arrange plans for future action," will tend to break down commercial organizations that seek, by combining several small establishments, to effect such a saving in operating expenses as will yield a better profit than the separate competing businesses.

The degeneration of large and successful concerns when they pass from the control of commercial geniuses is instanced in the case of the Stewart establishment. While under the management of its founder it yielded princely profits and gained a world-wide reputation. In twenty years from Mr. Stewart's death the business had passed through the hands of two firms, the last of which, becoming hopelessly bankrupt, was forced to transfer the establishment into the hands of a new owner possessing many of the qualities of the original founder. A similar case mentioned is that of the National Cordage Company, which, in attempting to grasp the control of all the kindred factories of the country, found the task beyond its powers. Excessive purchases of raw material, the buying off of competition, and miscalculation of the future demand for its product,—matters depending upon the exercise of the keenest business judgment,—carried the company down to a wreck from which its members have not yet emerged.

The decadence of nations and the disruption of empires have alike followed the deaths or defeats of the men whose powerful intellects had built up and maintained conditions of national splendor. The writer quoted instances the empires of Alexander the Great, of Rome, of Charlemagne, and of Napoleon, and on the

other hand points to the consolidated possessions of Great Britain and of Russia, whose affairs have been managed with masterly skill.

The difficulty experienced by all large enterprises — banks, railroads, and wholesale and retail concerns — in finding competent managers, shows how rare is the talent needed to conduct these giant consolidations. The enormous salaries paid to successful men is another proof of their scarcity. Where, as in the sugar-refining industry, the margin of profit on a pound of the product is measured in fractions of a cent, a very slight miscalculation may turn possible success into disastrous defeat and financial ruin. The same small margins of profit attend the spinning and weaving industries, and in all large manufacturing enterprises so much depends upon the closest possible buying of raw materials, and the disposition of the finished product to the best advantage, that none but the keenest intellects can hope to run vast enterprises successfully.

Nor is competent management alone sufficient to preserve a great business from failure. The invention of new machinery, the discovery of new processes or natural forces, may render valueless the whole plant of a manufactory or system of transportation. The Bessemer process of steel-making has driven out entirely the former more costly methods of producing this now indispensable material, to say nothing of the amount of cast and wrought iron displaced by the stronger and cheaper steel of to-day. The horse-car has been displaced by cable and electric power, and now compressed air threatens to crowd out these recently applied but greatly exploited forces.

Hence it is argued that the prevailing fear and hatred of "trusts" and other consolidations of industrial enterprises are without adequate ground; that monopolies can exist only upon the condition that the article manufactured "is supplied of the best quality and at the lowest practicable price;" that violation of this condition will effectually kill the monopoly by raising up rival manufacturers and producing a better grade of goods.

This theory is doubtless true enough; but in practice it requires a large amount of capital and the determined efforts of very competent men to organize a manufacturing enterprise that shall successfully compete with an established monopoly. Too often the attempt has been made with disastrous results to the new concern, or, as has frequently been the case, the "octopus" has stretched out its powerful arms and, with the allurements of purchase of the new establishment at a handsome profit, has

drawn to its embrace and financial digestion the enterprise that started out with the intention of killing the "monster."

The sum of Mr. Marshall's argument is that as the growth of these consolidations has been due to the operation of natural business laws, so also will their limitations be found therein. Certain it is that legal measures to nullify the acts and block the operations of "trusts" have met with little success. Like the razor-clam, that can bury itself in the sand faster than a man can uncover it with a spade, astute lawyers continue to devise means by which "trust" legislation is constantly pursuing a stern chase, though some States, in their endeavors to head off the "monsters," have passed acts, so rapidly and heedlessly that it would puzzle the proverbial "Philadelphia lawyer" to tell which acts or parts of acts are valid or repealed.

★

BUSINESS during the month of February has shown great gains over the corresponding period of last year, the clearing-house exchanges being about \$6,980,000,000 as against \$5,567,553,844,—an increase of about twenty-six per cent. According to "Dun's Review," "in all the years of weekly commercial reporting there has been no other week in which the reports from all parts of the country have been, on the whole, so good as they are this week."

Railroad earnings have felt the effect of the great storms that prevailed throughout the country; but reduced figures from this cause are likely to be increased to a normal amount as soon as the obstructions to traffic are removed. Railroad stocks have shown a slight average decline for the month, part of which is to be attributed, perhaps, to withdrawals of invested funds for the purpose of speculation in the great flood of new industrial stocks that has been poured out upon the market.

Of these newly created industrial stocks and bonds the "Financial Chronicle" has given a list aggregating \$1,106,300,000, all of which have been issued or proffered within two months. Large as this sum appears, it does not include the stock of combinations which had not been effected at the time of estimate. Adding \$418,000,000 for these proposed issues, we reach the sum of \$1,525,000,000 for the first two months of 1899, as against some \$916,000,000 for the whole of 1898. How many of these investments will prove remunerative it is impossible to say. It needs little of the gift of prophecy, however, to foresee bitter disappointment for many speculators or investors in such securities, or to foretell the dissolution, by their own weight, of many unwieldy corporations.

With the general increase of business it is pleasant to be able to report a general advance in wages. New England textile operatives have received an advance of about ten per cent; tin-plate, iron, and steel workers and coal-

operatives have gained from five to ten per cent increase. "Bradstreet's" Pittsburg correspondent reports every mill and furnace in that district as running on double time, and that the export trade has increased one hundred per cent within the past year. The prices of iron and steel products have rapidly advanced, and orders are being taken for deliveries months ahead.

The exports of wheat and flour for February have been about 18,000,000 bushels as against 14,000,000 bushels for the corresponding period of last year. Western receipts of wheat have amounted to 12,500,000 bushels against 10,000,000, and the stocks in the hands of the farmers are reported to be the largest ever known. No. 2 red wheat was quoted on March 3 at 82½ cents as against \$1.06½ on March 4, 1898. No. 2 mixed corn, however, was worth on the same dates 44¼ cents and 35¼ cents respectively. The exports of corn for February have dropped from 18,300,000 bushels in 1898 to 14,100,000 bushels in 1899.

★

THE periodical war in Atlantic passenger rates broke out on the 28th of February, when the White Star Line announced a general reduction in saloon fares. Since then the other regular lines have followed suit until it is now announced that tickets for first-class passage across the ocean can be obtained at rates varying from \$25 on the slower vessels to \$75 on some of the fastest. The old rates varied from \$50 to \$100. Tempting as the low fares seem, even inviting one to take a European trip as an economical method of living, the reduction really means little to the tourist. For one thing, the cut is only for a limited time, no engagements being made for more than a few weeks ahead. For another, the larger part of the accommodations during this period have been already booked ahead at the old rates, and the best parts of the ships will probably still command a premium. The "war" is said to be more in the nature of an understanding between the members of the Atlantic Conference, designed to affect the Canadian lines to Europe, than a fierce competition similar to those which in former days so reduced fares that it became a question whether or not the rival lines would not offer premiums to induce passengers to patronize their particular vessels.

But while passenger rates are thus juggled, European freights have taken a serious downward movement. Cotton, which a year ago paid twenty-eight cents a hundred pounds, and grain, which then was being shipped at six cents a bushel, are now carried for twelve cents and two cents respectively. Provisions which paid fifteen cents, and flour which paid twelve cents, last year, now pay but seven cents and six cents. A small European demand for grain and cotton is said to be responsible for the depression.

ELFORD E. TREFFRY.

ROUND THE TABLE

AN OLD-TIME ENTERTAINMENT

IT HAS doubtless often occurred to many persons that there would be money in a revival of that class of entertainment which so delighted the lovers of amusement of two generations and more ago. The old songs, music, dances, and acts would all be new to the majority of the audiences that would be attracted by them. Ethiopian minstrelsy, once so popular, began to decline a few years after the abolition of slavery in the United States. The reason, at this distance of time, is not easy to guess. Of course, minstrel organizations, or "aggregations," we have still with us, but they are not up to the standard of the old sable serenaders. The specialists and the variety actors have crowded upon the domain of the minstrels and changed the whole manner of their performances. There are no stars in the profession now who could be named in the same breath with the Bryants, the Christys, the Horns, the Newcombs, the Buckleys, and the Lehrs. Those men of forty years ago were artists in burnt cork, and took as much interest in the portrayal of characters moving in the humblest walks of life as did their higher-classed brethren of the sock and buskin in the legitimate drama.

One seeks in vain for the equal of that student of negro life, character, and movement, Thomas D. Rice, the famed "Jim Crow" of two continents. Rumsey, in his day, was the king of banjoists, and Nelse Seymour, with artists all around him, was unrivalled in his department, which was all-embracing in extent and completeness. It is not the intention of the writer, however, to make contrasts, or to reflect unjustly on the methods of the modern impersonators of negro eccentricities. In their way and according to their lights they do good work,—sometimes very excellent work. It cannot be said, though, that we have to-day, in this line of business, the finished results which the conscientious comedians of the past afforded their audiences. Nowadays, of buffoonery, noise, and cracked voices we have enough and to spare. Vulgarly has fixed its coarse stamp in indelible pigments, and one rarely witnesses a so-called minstrel performance without feelings of pain and oftentimes of disgust. Few actors sustain the rôle of the plantation wench without overdoing the part *ad nauseam*, and trenching dangerously on the line which separates the decent from the indelicate. Yet George Christy could do it. He invented the type from crude materials, and invested it with something akin to genius.

Others have done the same thing, and provoked laughter instead of anxiety and fear lest the impersonator should outrage decorum and insult the spectators by an offensive allusion or improper gesture.

There is some doubt as to the exact date of the first negro minstrel organization in the United States. There is no doubt, however, as to the fame which one of the companies established, and has retained ever since. Christy's Minstrels are remembered the world over, and may be regarded in the light of a synonym for that class of entertainment. The rivals for the honor of priority were the "Virginia Minstrels," long, long ago forgotten, though the band boasted in its membership such capital singers and dancers as Dan Emmet (the creator and delineator of the famous walk-around, or afterpiece, "Way Down in Dixie," which in the 'sixties—during the war—gave him such a vogue in Bryant's troupe of dandy darkies of the South), Billy Whitlock, and Dick Pelham.

To E. P. Christy belongs the credit of founding the company which bore his name. This was in 1842, and the city of Buffalo claims to have witnessed the initial performance, which took place in a small hall in Water Street. George Harrington, who was a legerdemainist in a small way and an accomplished juggler, joined the show in the latter capacity, and changed his name, at the request of the manager, to that of "George Christy." It was the fashion then, as now, for stage artists to adopt other cognomens than their own. George was a remarkable man, genial, witty, and full of originality. He speedily became the feature of the troupe, the prime favorite of the footlights, and his sayings and doing filled the newspapers and the joke and jest books of the period. In the memory of men now living, "Lucy Long," and the "Cachuca," as rendered by him, were masterpieces, and nightly convulsed overflowing houses with laughter. He was "Bones" in the first part, and Lansing Durand, as "Tambo," divided with him the honors and the applause. The company travelled extensively throughout the country, and popularized negro representation as a form of harmless amusement. The novelty of the idea took everybody's fancy, and the Christys soon found that in an entirely fresh field they were sovereigns. Imitators, of course, at once sprang up. They were not, however, all bad.

Among the companies which gave a refined and almost classical performance may be mentioned Buckley's Serenaders, instituted in Boston in 1843, and consisting of the three brothers, George Swaine Buckley (announced on some bills of the play as "Sweeney" Buckley), R. Bishop Buckley, and Frederick Buckley, and a corps of singers and musicians. They called themselves, in a sub-title, the "Congo Melodists." George Swaine executed a song and dance, during which he played on no fewer than seven instruments. He was a magnificent banjo-player, and his negro dialect was inimitable. Fred Buckley was also a perfect musician. He could play almost any string or wind instrument, but the violin was so much his favorite that he was billed as "Little Ole Bull." Buckley's Minstrels soon made a name, their strong point being music, both vocal and instrumental.

In 1844 Charley White inaugurated the "Kitchen Minstrels," and two years later opened his Melodeon at No. 53 Bowery, New York, a house which enjoyed a good reputation in its time. Another Mr. White, "Cool" by name (but whether or not a relation of the former is not clearly known), came to the front in 1848 at the Walnut Street Theatre, Philadelphia, the management of which, in those days, permitted the singing of songs between the acts. It was at this house that Cool White won renown with his original Ethiopian song in character, "Who's dat Nigger dar a-Pee-pin'?" He became distinctly the first of dandy negroes, and in the play, written by himself, called "The Fall of Babylon, or the Servant Turned Master," he impersonated with marked success the part of "Snowball," a servant of the order of exquisites.

One of the most popular caterers for public appreciation and patronage was the troupe appeared by Dan, Neil, and Jerry Bryant in 1857. These artists had the happy faculty of associating with them the best talent that could be obtained. Cost was never an obstacle in the way of securing a suitable attraction. The company rapidly became the recruiting station for the whole country, and masters in their art were often heard to boast with pride of their early apprenticeship with the Bryants. Dick Sands, the Yorkshire clog-dancer, crossed the ocean to join them. Dan Emmet was a bright particular star, and of his best—and that best was really great—he freely contributed. Nelse Seymour (known off the stage as Thomas Nelson N. Sanderson), was with the company, off and on, from its first days until his sad death in 1875. He was sure of himself in everything that he undertook. His laugh was unctuous and infectious. He was admirable as middleman, in general utility, and in burlesque. His performance of Prince Paul in "The Grand Dutch S" was rich in "business," and imparted quite a vogue to that mirth-provoking piece of drollery. His tall, spare figure was

in itself irresistible. "All hearts he won by his genial qualities," says one who knew him well, while his status as a man at the head of his profession was never questioned. Eph Horn, a veteran of the Christy's Minstrels, was also one of the forces in the Bryant constellation. His locomotive act, his speeches on topics of the hour, his improvisations, always clever and bright, his stage-struck dandy, his woman's-rights lecture, have not been surpassed by any of his fellow-craftsmen of his day and generation. He was unique in everything that he put before the public, and the annals of negro minstrelsy can point to no competitor who achieved so much in the way of making people laugh till their sides ached.

The first time that I saw Frank Brower was in Boston, at the pretty, snug, and convenient opera house erected by Morris Brothers (Billy and Lon), Pell, and Trowbridge, where he was filling an engagement. He was excruciatingly funny and ridiculous in his travesty of Kotzebue's "Misanthrope, or the Stranger." The rôle of "Mr. Haller"—if my memory serves me—fell to his lot, and Nelse Seymour appeared as "Mrs. Haller." Brower, at the beginning of his career, was a necromancer and votary of the Black Art, but turned his attention to burnt cork and minstrelsy as soon as he found that his genius lay in that direction. His acquaintance with white magic stood him in good stead, and one of his best acts was his burlesque of Hermann the Magician, who was then taking the world by storm with his wonderful tricks and expositions of legerdemain. The Morris' Company became a Boston notion,—nothing could dislodge it from that eminence,—and was ever an evenly balanced, up-to-date institution.

A born manager and artist was William W. Newcomb, who presented for the first time on any stage his song and dance, "Essence of Ole Virginny." He was banjoist, "Tambo," "Bones," dancer, singer, or stump-speaker at will. His burlesques of grand opera, which he conducted with baton (*à la* mustard,) always brought down the house and made the rafters ring again. He associated with him in the 'sixties, H. S. Rumsey, the "lion banjoist" and interlocutor, and a strong combination was the result. Rumsey, in his day, was master of his instrument. He played rare tricks with it, and made it very nearly speak. His imitations always provoked the wildest applause and delight. In this troupe B. Braham sang the sentimental song with fine taste, pathos, and expression, and "Little Bobby" danced "Hop Light, Lu," into everybody's good graces, and essayed the rôle of a full-fledged prima donna. Harry Lehr (when shall we see his like again?) was "Bones," and chief of the break-down and walk-around brigade of singers and dancers. The organization, which lasted some seven or eight years intact, earned a trans-Atlantic reputation, and may with

truth be described as one of the strongest of the old school of minstrels.

Rumsey and Newcomb's contemporary was the troupe formed in 1862 by Billy Birch, David Wambold, William Bernard, and Charley Backus, under the firm name of The San Francisco Minstrels. Birch was "Bones," Wambold was the principal ballad-singer, and Backus was maid-of-all-work. His imitations of popular actors,—notably Forrest, Macready, Booth, Eddy, Joseph Proctor in the "Jibbenainosay," and Charlotte Cushman,—and his burlesques of Blondin and the performers on the tight rope, flying trapeze, and slack wire, were extravagantly amusing. The company introduced all the latest novelties, and every new play which found its way to the boards of the established theatres was travestied with cleverness and piquancy.

In the old days, besides the ones here alluded to, there were several other clean and excellent organizations, such as Duprez and Green's Minstrels (later Mr. Benedict succeeded Mr. Green—"Mocking-Bird Green"—as partner in this troupe), Reynolds, Shorey, and Thomas's Minstrels, Skiff and Gaylord's Minstrels, Sandford's Philadelphia Minstrels, and Sam Sharpley's Ironclads. After them the innovators came with their insidious "improvements," banishing often from their pro-

grammes that *pièce de résistance*, the half-circle of "black faces" in evening dress and dandified manners, once the leading feature of the show. Organizations of real colored men there were also, though they did not, on the whole, give quite such satisfactory performances as their white brothers. The best of these was Callender's Georgia Minstrels, the star of which was Billy Kersands, who justly prided himself on the possession of the largest mouth and the best set of teeth on the lyric stage, or, for that matter, in the whole world. There were some good voices in the "Georgias," but the acting was not above mediocrity. The players did not seem to know how to get off the stage.

Since then there have been born very many persons who would take the same delight as their fathers did in seeing a good old-time performance. A revival of early minstrelsy, a return to first principles, would pay. The jokes need not be too old nor the stump-speeches stale, but the elements which made the show of two generations ago popular and striking should be preserved. How well the old songs, sentimental and comic, would be received by audiences mainly composed of persons to whom the strains would sound very new!

GEORGE STEWART.

QUEBEC, CANADA.

HOW TO FILE AND KEEP CLIPPINGS

ONE of my friends of studious habits began about ten years ago to save clippings for what is usually called a scrapbook, but which he is making into an encyclopedia. His plan of arranging and preserving his material is so good that I believe many could be helped by knowing the method pursued.

Bound government reports are used for the clippings, as they are mostly of uniform height, their thickness being immaterial. By cutting out three leaves to every one used, the volume, when finished, will retain its original thickness. The clippings are classified and each division has its separate volume. Thus all clippings of scientific items are placed in a volume marked "Science," and numbered, say, "XV." Paste made of flour and cold water is used, for by dampening an item with a wet sponge it can easily be removed,—an impossibility with any other kind of paste. The clippings are pasted all over the backs, and all of the original printing of the book is completely covered, even by pasting strips of white paper over the parts not occupied by the clippings. Both sides of the leaf are utilized. Maps or pictures larger than the page are pasted to the leaf and folded in. Two days after pasting, the pages are gone over with a hot flat-iron to dry out all moisture and prevent mould and mildew. In clipping

items, a strip of paper an inch longer than the part wanted is always cut. Then if two or three lines at the end of an article have to be placed at the head of a column, the next clipping, pasted over the inch surplus, will hold the whole securely, narrow strips of only two or three lines being liable to peel off.

The book is paged and its volume number is placed on the back. In indexing no attention is paid to the printed title, but chosen titles are arranged alphabetically and bear the number of the volume and of the page.

There is absolutely no limit to the number of books in this system and there is no chance for crowding or confusion. When volume XV is filled, another volume of "Science" can be started. This may be number XXIII, but the index will always show where everything is. The index may in time have to be rearranged, but all material for such change can be taken from the old index.

The inventor of this system was about eighteen years old when he began to save clippings, and he now has a set of books which he would not exchange for any two encyclopedias published, the articles being fitted to his personal needs. For many years he read the New York "Sun," and one of his volumes is filled with the editorials of Charles A. Dana.

EDGAR W. CURTIS.

CHERRY CREEK, N.Y.

SELF CULTURE

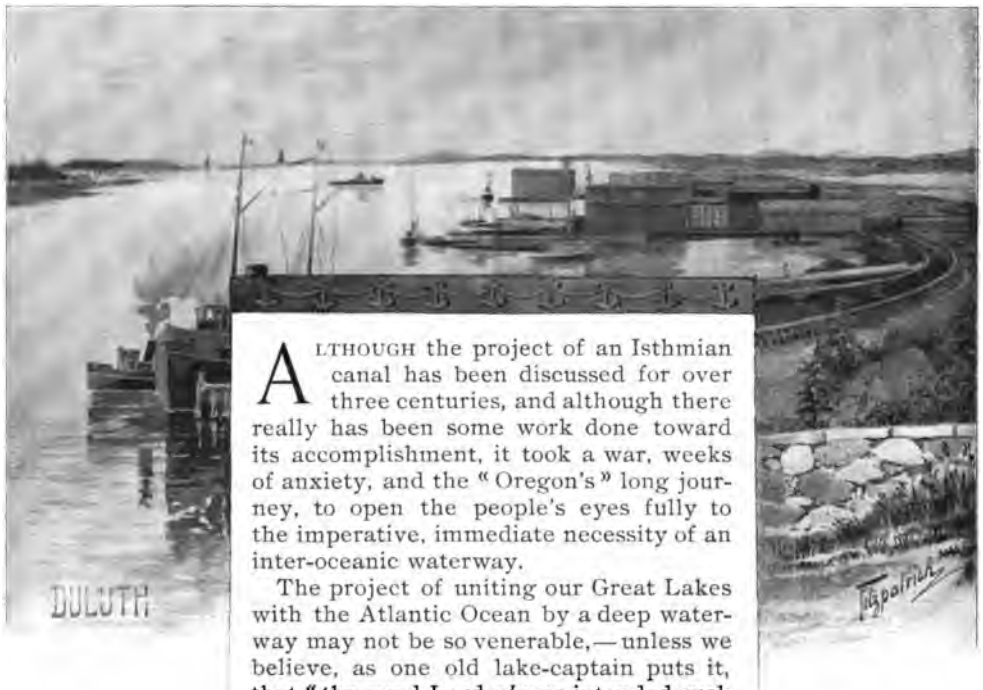
A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. IX

MAY, 1899

NO. 3

DEEP WATERWAYS FOR LAKE COMMERCE



ALTHOUGH the project of an Isthmian canal has been discussed for over three centuries, and although there really has been some work done toward its accomplishment, it took a war, weeks of anxiety, and the "Oregon's" long journey, to open the people's eyes fully to the imperative, immediate necessity of an inter-oceanic waterway.

The project of uniting our Great Lakes with the Atlantic Ocean by a deep waterway may not be so venerable,— unless we believe, as one old lake-captain puts it, that "the good Lord *always* intended such a waterway, but, as usual, the engineer in

charge made a slight mistake in levels and left us Niagara to contend with"; but its importance is greater, its commercial necessity more urgent, and it was only by a slip of the diplomatic cog-wheel that its strategic value was not as forcibly impressed upon us. It has been discussed in and out of Congresses, surveys galore have been made for it, and commissions have reported upon it; but an all-American deep waterway seems as far off to-day as it ever was, and it would seem that only some national catastrophe or other great and unexpected event will fully awaken our people from their lethargic contemplation of this project, and compel them to demand that—Buffalo and railroad influences to the contrary notwithstanding—the work be actually done.

Leaving strategic considerations for our military friends to discuss, let us look at the commercial side of the matter of giving our enormous lake traffic access to the sea. And by way of comparison we will just glance at other and correlated projects, and the realizations, facts, and figures which they present.

The Nicaragua Canal—undoubtedly the best, cheapest, and least climatically difficult trans-Isthmian cut—will probably cost between \$150,000,000 and \$175,000,000. The estimates say \$133,500,000, but there are always so many unforeseen contingencies in canal construction.* Its most enthusiastic advocates prophesy a tonnage of 10,000,000 tons per annum for it, while more conservative statisticians (Pacific Railroad officials for instance) estimate from 900,000 to even as low as 300,000 tons. We know that the Panama Railroad carried a trifle over 200,000 tons last year, and that we annually ship over 1,000,000 tons from Atlantic ports to the Orient and from Pacific ports to Europe, and that of the 6,000,000 (estimated) tons carried by our transcontinental Pacific railroads as through freight, 2,000,000 tons would undoubtedly have been shipped by water had there been a canal. With the comparatively insignificant foreign patronage this canal would receive, this would give us a total of nearly 3,800,000 tons that it would be fair to assume as the beginning of tonnage for such a canal. The average transcontinental freight rate by rail is \$24.80 a ton; by water, around the Cape, \$13.64; and we are justified in estimating that the freight rate by water, via a trans-Isthmian canal between San Francisco and New York, would be somewhere between \$4.16 and \$5.40 per ton—somewhat of a saving—for the 4,760 miles of transportation.

Let it not be understood from what has been said about this project, and what we will say about our lakes, that we would belittle the former, or that, as some would have it thought; we are opposed to the Nicaragua Canal. On the contrary, we believe in its practicability, its utility, its absolute necessity. We only desire to call attention to that which is equally if not more practicable, useful, and necessary.

When we investigate the tonnage of the Suez Canal, the miles of canals in Holland, the Russian, French, and Kaiser Wilhelm canals, the wonderful systems in England, Ireland, and Scotland, we are amazed at the immensity of the figures. The Suez Canal passed 2,986 vessels last year, of

7,899,373 net tons,—a growth from 486 vessels of 436,609 net tons in 1870. The Kaiser Wilhelm Canal passed 23,108 vessels, or 2,469,795 tons, this year; and the canals of the United Kingdom yield an estimated yearly revenue of nearly \$100,000,000. The Erie Canal, a mere vein and not an artery, although it has cost about \$52,000,000 to build and maintain, has turned into the treasury of the State of New York over \$30,000,000 in tolls over and above the outlay. Then note that all our railroads combined—and costing over \$10,000,000,000 to build and equip—carried last year 768,891,385 tons of freight, that, it is claimed, cost us the greater part of the \$800,000,000 we pay annually in freight bills.

These are big figures,—very big; but anyone who thinks that our lake commerce must needs pale into utter insignificance beside them is greatly mistaken. On the Great Lakes there are carried annually about 40,000,000 tons of freight, representing a value of \$500,000,000. Through one connecting link—the Detroit River—there passed last year nearly 38,000,000 tons, carried in 52,000 vessels; and through the "Soo" * Canal—about which so many Americans know much less than they do about the Suez Canal or the proposed waterway in Nicaragua—there passed in the year ending December 1, 1898. 17,761 vessels, carrying 21,234,664 tons of freight, valued approximately at \$240,000,000.

The Mediterranean commerce of which we read so much equals that of our *lower* lake ports only. We "clear" and "enter" over 100,000 vessels a year from our lake ports; or in other words these entrances and clearances equal in tonnage the entrances and clearances from all our ports on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans combined. To-day nearly half of our continent depends upon the lakes to lighten the burden of freight charges, and three quarters of our direct Oriental trade passes through their channels. Even were the Nicaragua Canal open, one half of this Oriental trade would still seek this shorter and quicker northern route to and from our eastern seaboard.

Certainly the matter of cheapening freight transportation merits some consid-

* The Manchester Canal cost over \$78,000,000, and its estimated cost was \$40,000,000; the Corinth Canal cost \$11,000,000, though estimated at \$5,950,000; and the Suez Canal was guaranteed by De Lesseps to cost not over \$40,000,000, while \$113,480,000 in cash and no end of "concessions" and "donated labor" was what it did finally cost.

* The word "Soo" is the colloquial name for the Sault Sainte Marie or Saint Mary's Falls,—the pronunciation being that of the old *voyageurs* and *coureurs des bois*. The same word occurs in combinations elsewhere, as the Long Soo (or Sault) on the stretch of the St. Lawrence between Kingston and Montreal.



WHALEBACKS IN THE NEW LOCK.

eration. We pay in freight bills over \$800,000,000 a year,—\$60 per family, or one month's labor for every paterfamilias in the land. Railroads object to this reasoning, yet it is perfectly sound. They cannot compete with water-carriers, and, had they carried what our lake vessels did this year, their proceeds would have been swelled just about \$170,000,000 over what they did earn; but this freight carried on the lakes cost the shippers only \$22,000,000 for transportation. Surely \$150,000,000 saved to the people is as good as earned, and hence the bitter opposition of the parallel lines of railroad to anything that would still further benefit water carriage.

An impartial calculation, based upon our ton-mileage reports and traffic tables, shows us that the average railroad rate between Chicago and Buffalo, for instance, is \$1.50 a ton. The same class of freight was carried the same distance last year by water for 40 cents.

Chicago is universally conceded to be one of the greatest railroad centres in the world, a great distributing-point; yet she ships as much freight eastward by water every week as she does by rail. Her port does a business of 13,000,000 tons a year. Remember that Chicago and Duluth tap a country that yields 15,000,000 tons of ore and 90,000,000 tons of cereals a year,—a yield, too, that is increasing every year, and will so continue to increase in spite of Sir William Crooke's dire prophecies.

We have 5,000 vessels on the lakes, of which nearly 3,000 are propelled by steam

power. Many equal the best ocean liners in speed and equipment and are nearly as large, some being 6,000-ton carriers on a 20-foot waterway from Duluth to Buffalo. Our American vessel tonnage on the lakes is 1,483,068 tons, our total American tonnage is 4,769,020, and the world's vessel tonnage of over 100 tons is 26,561,250; and yet some people think our lake commerce and its carriers deserve but little attention or legislation.

To the West, Chicago and Duluth are the natural termini of all this vast commerce and shipping. They are the distributing-points or gathering-places for nearly all that is taken from or put upon these 5,000 ships. To the East, Buffalo is the present though not the natural terminal of our lake commerce. There is no insuperable natural obstacle, nor even an exceedingly difficult one to overcome, in the way of that commerce passing on, by that city, down to the sea, to its objective terminals and the ports of the world. To-day, however, those ships do have to stop there. It is not a great manufacturing place where all the raw products that are brought to it are turned into finished, merchantable articles. It is essentially a distributing-point, whence those products, taken from the ships, are scattered by rail to where they *are* manufactured, or on to the sea, where, reshipped, they are carried to foreign ports. Hence the common interest of that city and the railroads to keep the obstacles to continued navigation—surmountable though they be—

just as they are and for as long as they possibly can. Every ton of freight re-handled at Buffalo is levied upon for toll, and contributes just so much to that city's great wealth and power. A small portion of that commerce is, after rehandling and being taxed therefor, carried on small canal-barges, through the Erie Canal, for distribution to the intermediate points or on direct to New York; and another small portion, in small ships, goes down the St. Lawrence by the Welland Canal; this last, however, being chiefly the exclusively Canadian freights.

Next year conditions will have changed. The Canadians, generally supposed to be somewhat backward, will have given us a lesson in progressiveness that, after costing us some money, may stimulate us to renewed activity. Unlike this country, that has allowed most of its waterways and its canal systems (that some authorities claim have been the controlling forces of our development) to lapse into mere relics of a long ago, Canada has about completed a series of deepening of its canals and of the upper St. Lawrence

sage of torpedo-boats, gunboats, and the smaller war-craft to the lakes, but we agreed to leave strategic considerations—important though they be—out of the question.) Can we be surprised if American shippers, too, avail themselves of our neighbors' advantages and send their smaller ships down, around by the St. Lawrence, to our seaboard, and thus rob Buffalo and the railroads of their *just* dues? Staid old Montreal must fairly hug herself in delighted anticipation over the fat American dollars that are bound to roll into her lap as a result of this deflection of trade.

While it may be argued that the St. Lawrence is the direct route from the lakes to the sea there is nothing commercially attractive about it from an American point of view. For all but the direct European trade it is a longer way around to the objective points; it is through another country, entailing never-ending difficulties about customs, shipping-rules, etc.; and it neither feeds nor taps any of our great markets. We are glad enough to use the St. Lawrence now that some



A BUSY DAY AT THE "SOO."

that will allow the passage of vessels 270 feet long, carrying 2,200 tons upon a 14-foot draft, from Lake Erie to the sea. The Canadians calculate upon their lake vessels plying the lakes in summer and engaging in European commerce in winter. (It might be added, too, that this chain of canals of theirs would permit of the pas-

one else has opened it, but simply as a temporary makeshift. What we do want, have clamored for, and are now clamoring for,—but have almost despaired of ever obtaining, although we have a survey thrown to us every year or two to keep us quiet,—is an all-American route passing by and feeding our great markets of the East

and terminating at New York, the logical eastern terminal for our Western business.

We want such a deep waterway because it is a commercial necessity to us; the West is big enough, important enough, to demand an outlet for her commerce by the cheapest transportation that can be had. It would benefit the East, too, immensely, and her apathy if not opposition

tions to prove that our lake commerce naturally ends at Buffalo; that there is nothing beyond for it,—no foreign shipments of any account,—and that we would kill our own shipping by opening up the lakes to foreign tonnage. The same old cry! It has been heard in opposition to every projected railway, to every improvement, to every little step we take in



WINTER ON THE LAKES

is incomprehensible. Although she controls most of the railroads, or at least the money invested in them, her position in this matter is more than absurd. Even the parallel lines to the lake waterway do as much and far more business than if that waterway were not there, for if such were the case there would be just that much less impetus to business. As the lake business grows, so does the railway. Quick freights, short hauls for the latter; through tonnage for the former. The two stimulate each other, and the result is the creation of new lines of commerce and wonderful increase in the old, with added calls for transportation.

We are told that no ships would go on down this new waterway; that canal-barges on a slightly deepened Erie Canal would do all that there is to do. They show us algebraically wonderful deduc-

advance of what actually *is*. Yet the highest authority for the opposition, and the one oftenest quoted to prove the fallacy of our claims (and who says that, at a cost of \$200,000,000 to build and \$2,000,000 a year to maintain, "such a ship canal from the Great Lakes to the sea is not a project worthy of being undertaken by the general government, as the benefits to be derived therefrom would not be properly commensurate with the cost"), admits that the tonnage "possibly tributary to a ship canal is 24,000,000 tons annually." With the opposition admitting such a possibility, what may we not really count upon? Who, in 1855, when the "Soo" Canal was opened,—after much objecting on the part of certain gentlemen,—even dared dream that in less than fifty years' time there would pass through it over 15,000 vessels annually?

Anyone may roughly figure for himself what water transportation means, even on the basis of *only* 24,000,000 tons. The result will be impressive. Water carriage adds but 6½ per cent to the value of goods shipped, railroad carriage adds 45 per cent. Surely no one will gainsay the statement that anything tending to effect a saving to the producer and to the consumer is a source of national wealth and worth having. Why, even the deepening of the lake channels to 20 feet will save us \$135,000,000.

Among other things that have attracted the world's attention to our lakes is our shipbuilding there. With steel and coal as cheaply laid down at Cleveland as they are, we can build ships in competition with the Clyde and other foreign shipyards, as well as with our own seaboard yards. But we cannot get our product into the market. Our lake-built ships are absolutely "bottled up," to use a much-worn term. Is it worth while doing anything for shipbuilding? We paid foreign shipowners last year more than \$150,000,000 for carrying our imports and exports, while the value of the goods carried under our own flag was less than \$190,000,000,—and we aspire to being a maritime power!

Naturally there are different routes proposed for this waterway, and each has its claimed and actual advantages, and each, of course, its advocates. We will thankfully accept any way given us, but may be pardoned for expressing a desire for the best.

The Erie Canal route—that is, the widening and improving of the old Erie Canal, beginning virtually at Buffalo, touching Lockport, Rochester, Syracuse, Rome, Utica, and ending at Cohoes, whence the "noble Hudson" becomes the waterway—is the most natural choice of western New Yorkers. A glance at the map ought to be enough for the reader, even though he be not an engineer, to set this route aside as undesirable. For canal barges and mule propulsion it is ideal; but think of putting a mighty ship through 270 miles of canal and endless lockages before it even reaches the channel of the Hudson River! It would also be enormously costly.

The St. Lawrence-Champlain route—a canal from Tonawanda, near Buffalo, to Olcott, on the shore of Lake Ontario; thence on Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River to a point opposite Montreal; a canal across to the Richelieu River; up

that river to Lake Champlain; over it and the canal of the same name, and down the Hudson—was approved by the Cleveland Commission in 1896, and is most favorably looked upon by Boston and New England business men and the Western faction that is "against" New York. The New Englanders believe it would bring the lake commerce nearer their markets. It is certainly more navigable for ships, though a longer distance, than the Erie route, taking advantage of all the deep water. It is partly within the Canadian line, however, and passes through very little important American territory until it reaches Albany, and it is a long and very indirect way around to that point, with nothing gained. Besides, we may be perfectly assured that the Canadians would not be long in making the short connection to tide-water at Montreal. It is not natural to suppose that vessels bound for European, or even our own, seaports, would, having reached that point, for purely sentimental reasons, turn about, as Major Symons says, "and go over 350 miles of contracted navigation to another point still further away from the European ports than they were at the point of deflection." Even by going on down the St. Lawrence, vessels would be making far more mileage to Boston than by the Oswego route that has lately been approved by the Raymond-Noble-Wisner Commission (appointed by President McKinley),—the only satisfactory all-American route that has yet been suggested; the one for which we may secure, by prayer and other means, at least—some more surveys.

This last route would be a canal from near Buffalo to Olcott, as in the St. Lawrence-Champlain route; then over 100 miles on Lake Ontario's deep waters; going inland again at Oswego, along Oneida Lake and the Mohawk River to Cohoes; and then down the Hudson. This gives a saving of 244 miles over the Champlain route to New York, navigable waters most of the way, and no immediate danger of the business being deflected toward Montreal,—at least, not helping so to deflect it. Remember that the Canadians' efforts to secure business are not to be smiled at. A government that pays heavy subsidies to encourage transatlantic shipping is capable of more than a puny grab at the lake commerce. Its value is too well known to Canadian statesmen.

The cost of this Oswego route is not prohibitive, and the engineering difficulties are not discouraging. Were we dependent upon the methods of three hundred years ago, that have continued in vogue until the last year or two, it might be considered a colossal undertaking; but with pneumatic locks—such as were recently built by Dutton at Lockport—we can practically carry our vessels up and down mountain sides more cheaply than we can a railroad train.

Is the West unreasonable in demanding such a waterway? She is the producer, not the East. In Montana, Washington, and Oregon nearly 3,000,000 acres of land are under cultivation; in Minnesota and the two Dakotas there are 25,000,000 acres so cultivated, and nearly 100,000,000 more capable of being cultivated. In Wisconsin and Minnesota there stand to-day over 50,000,000,000 feet of pine. All this is tributary commerce to our lakes. And whence,

if not from that tributary region, come most of our exports,—the 700,000 animals shipped abroad every year; the 177,000,000 bushels of corn; the 35,000,000 bushels of oats; the 79,000,000 bushels of wheat; the 14,000,000 barrels of flour; the 3,600,000 tons of coal; the 280,000,000 pounds of copper; the \$137,138,084 in meat and dairy products? Her wealth in land and that which grows upon it, and that which is taken from within it, is immeasurable, and, in the words of another, "when it shall be possible for the grain and produce, the coal and iron, . . . to be carried in unbroken cargoes to the sea, this country [East and West, North and South,—*our* country] will command the markets of the world. And because steel ships can be built upon Lake Erie more cheaply than anywhere else, it will command the carrying trade of the world as well."

F. W. FITZPATRICK.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

MR. CHARLES M. DICKINSON, United States consul-general at Constantinople, in a recent report, says that within the past few months a firm in Constantinople ordered from Duluth 200 bags of flour, which, despite freight charges of nearly \$10 per ton, yielded a good profit. So satisfactory was this shipment that further orders for 28,000 bags (about 2,300 tons) have been given, and this staple Western product is now on its way to that distant Eastern port, where, the authority quoted suggests, it seems likely, at present prices, to drive the native Turkish, Russian, and Roumanian product from the market. With reductions of freight rates, such as would naturally result from direct steam communication, the principal markets of Turkey and Greece would be supplied with American flour. Water-carriage being admittedly the cheapest of all transportation, to what extent may not other branches of Western

commerce develop when freights between the manufacturing centres and European markets are reduced so as to permit of competition with manufacturers nearer the places of consumption?

★

THE latest report of the Manchester Ship Canal,—an undertaking for which sure financial loss was predicted—shows that in 1898 2,595,585 tons passed through, as against 925,659 tons in 1894,—the year of its opening. The last half-year's gross revenue amounted to \$647,650, and the expenses to \$458,025, leaving a balance of \$189,625. To this the Bridgewater canal system, which was necessarily absorbed by the greater undertaking, added \$113,700 profit, which was devoted to paying interest on mortgages and interest to the city of Manchester. This growth shows the possibilities of canal traffic.



DULUTH HARBOR—LOOKING WEST

THE GERMAN ARMY AND ITS ORGANIZATION—III*

IN THE previous papers of this series we have shown the methods by which the compulsory military service demanded by Germany of all her sons is made effective for purposes of defence and offence; the organization of the military hierarchy; and the constitution of the reserve forces, the *landwehr* and the *landsturm*. In this concluding paper we present the organization and numerical strength of the regular force. According to the most recent statistics available, for part of which the writer is indebted to the courtesy of the War Department at Washington, the German army consists of 22,657 officers, 77,978 non-commissioned officers, 498,983 privates, and 97,280 horses, besides medical officers, paymasters, artificers, etc., a list of whom is presented in the subjoined table.

bered from 1 to 12 in the regiments, and from 1 to 4 in the battalions of *jäger*. (The forty regiments recently added have two battalions each.) The regiments are denominated: Regiments of the Guard, of grenadiers,† of fusiliers, and of infantry. There are eleven regiments of the Guard, of which four are foot guards, four grenadiers, and two fusiliers; besides a battalion of *jäger*. The other regiments are divided into: 19 of grenadiers, 13 of fusiliers, 160 of infantry, and 10 other specially formed regiments. The two first battalions of each regiment are called the first and second battalions. The third takes the name of battalion of fusiliers, except in the regiment of fusiliers, where it is called the third battalion—as, for instance, in the Bavarian, Saxon, and 89th Mecklenburg regiments.

Arm of Service, etc.	Regiments.	Jäger and Schützen Battalions.	Battalions.	Batteries.	Officers.	Non-commissioned Officers.	Privates.	Medical Officers.	Paymasters and Music Inspectors.	Artillery.	Veterinarians.	Saddlers.	Horses.
Infantry.....	215	19	12,918	48,448	332,424	1,266	724	724
Cavalry.....	93	2,352	9,354	65,375	229	96	93	317	93	64,004
Field Artillery.....	43	494	2,671	10,214	48,210	261	175	175	198	..	29,044
Foot Artillery.....	17	..	1	..	869	4,191	22,824	57	38	37	37
Train.....	21	..	307	1,679	7,654	27	21	..	21	..	4,195
Pioneers, Railway Battalions, and Balloon Detachment.....	72	..	736	2,950	19,085	60	34	30
Special Formations.....	496	1,067	3,409	32	13	1	18
Staff and Non-regimental Officers.....	2,308	75	2	140	1	..	25
Totals.....	368	19	54	494	22,657	77,978	498,983	2,072	1,102	1,060	579	93	97,280

The troops are organized in twenty army corps, of which sixteen are Prussian, two Bavarian, one is Saxon, and one Würtemberg. The normal peace formation of the army corps comprises two infantry divisions, one battalion of rifles, one brigade of field artillery, one regiment of foot artillery, one battalion of engineers, one train battalion, and the staff and auxiliary services. The composition of the corps varies, however, and there are several exceptions which we will not pause to note. On a war footing, of course, the corps is augmented in various particulars, as are all other branches of the service.

Infantry.—The German infantry force is composed of 215 regiments of the line, of three battalions, and of nineteen battalions of foot *jäger* and *schützen*. All the battalions are in four companies, num-

The soldiers are qualified in various ways. In the Prussian Guards (the fusiliers excepted) and in the regiments of grenadiers, the men of the first two battalions are called grenadiers; in the infantry regiments—musketeers; in the battalion of the regiments of fusiliers and in the three battalions of the Prussian regiments—fusiliers; in the three battalions of the 115th Hessian Guards, and in the three battalions of the other Saxon regiments and of the 92d Brunswickers—soldiers; in the three battalions of Bavarian regiments

* Concluded from SELF CULTURE for April, 1899, Vol. IX, No. 2, p. 180.

† Unlike his remote predecessor, Frederick the Great, Kaiser Wilhelm dislikes the use of French words in the German army, and has recently given orders that German or Germanized words be substituted. Hereafter words of command, names of accoutrements, etc., of French origin, will be abolished.

—*gemeine*; but whatever be the names given to the regiments or battalions there is no difference in their mode of use. The regiments also have either the name of the province or dominion from which they recruit, or honorary titles, or the name of their present or of a past commander, and sometimes all these denominations at the same time.

In the several regiments the peace strength differs, as they have high, medium, or low establishment, which in turn depends on their location, frontier regiments being the strongest. The normal establishment is 8 officers and 193 men for the half-battalion, 18 officers and 607 men for the battalion, and 65 officers and 2,020 men for the regiment. In time of war a regiment comprises 5 superior officers, 12 captains, 52 first and second lieutenants, 224 under-officers, 67 musicians, drummers, and clarions, 2,712 soldiers, 12 lazaret aides, 67 soldiers of train, 6 doctors, 3 paymasters, 3 gunsmiths, 12 sutlers, 60 saddle horses, 74 trace horses, and 28 wagons. The implements borne by the men or transported by the wagons are: 162 large shovels, 1,200 small shovels, 84 mattocks, 120 pickaxes, 141 hatchets, and 36 axes. The battalion of *jäger* has an effective force of 1 superior officer, 4 captains, 4 lieutenants, 13 second lieutenants, 81 under-officers, 17 clarions, 904 soldiers, 4 lazaret aides, 20 train soldiers, 2 doctors, 1 paymaster, 1 gunsmith, 4 canteen-bearers, 16 saddle horses, 24 trace horses, 12 wagons; and for implements, 58 large shovels, 400 small shovels, 18 pickaxes, 36 hatchets, and 12 axes.

The entire force is armed with Mauser



Copyright, 1899, The Werner Company

INFANTRY TARGET PRACTICE—NINTH REGIMENT OF GRENADIERS

magazine guns provided with bayonets. Each soldier carries in his two ammunition pouches 90 cartridges and three days' rations, and for field service 60 extra cartridges in his knapsack. The load of a foot soldier is about 53 pounds. Not long since several regiments of the Guards were equipped with repeating guns. Every soldier of the German army wears under his uniform a little tin plate bearing his name.

Each battalion, with the exception of the 108th Saxon, possesses a standard decorated with an heraldic emblem in the

centre, and on the end of the flag—nearly always white—are the national colors, generally in the form of a cross.

The Cavalry, in time of peace, is organized in forty-six brigades of two regiments each, except one, which has three regiments. Generally two brigades are attached to the army corps, the exceptions being the guard corps with four brigades, and three other corps each with three brigades. The cavalry is distributed among two cavalry inspections, and is under the orders of the corps commander as regards its general service, and under the inspectors-general of cavalry in technical cavalry matters. There are 10 regiments of cuirassiers, 28 of dragoons, 20 of hussars, 25 of uhlans, 2 heavy Saxon, and 2 heavy and 6 light Bavarian regiments, and 4 detachments of mounted rifles; in all, 93 regiments or 469 squadrons. All regiments have five squadrons on the peace footing, of which four take the field on mobilization, the fifth remaining at home as a depot squadron after filling up the ranks of the field squadrons to war strength. The strength of the regiment differs according as it is on the high, medium, or low establishment, from 25 officers and 682 men to 25 officers and 762 men. The strength of the squadron is from 133 to 149 men with 4 or 5 officers.

The effective force of the four squadrons of war comprises 2 superior officers, 4 captains, 17 lieutenants, 61 under-officers, 13 trumpeters, 528 troopers, 4 lazaret aides, 4 farriers, 38 retinue soldiers, 3 doctors, 3 veterinaries, 1 paymaster, 1 saddler, 1 gunsmith, 4 canteen-bearers, 693 saddle horses, 18 trace horses, and 8 wagons. As implements the regiments carry 8 large shovels and 112 hatchets. Eight pioneers of the squadron are bearers of a special stock of implements for the destruction of telegraph lines and iron track. The cavalry armament consists of the lance, sabre, and carbine (the latter provided with fifty cartridges), except for the cuirassiers, who, instead of the regular cavalry sabre, are armed with the straight and heavier *pallasch*. The cavalrymen carry three days' reserve rations and one day's oats.

Artillery.—The German artillery forms two entirely separated divisions, the field artillery and the foot artillery.

An artillery regiment is formed by the union of three or four groups of batteries called *abtheilungen*, each commanded by a

superior officer and having its proper administration. The number of *abtheilungen* in each regiment and the strength of the batteries vary with the establishment, ranging in the field battery from 4 officers and 107 men to 4 officers and 120 men; in the horse battery from 4 officers and 91 men to 4 officers and 120 men. The number of horses varies in the field battery from 44 to 75; in the horse battery from 76 to 120. There are, in all, 447 field and 47 horse batteries. The 57 field batteries of the high establishment have six guns and two to three ammunition-wagons, horsed; the 20 horse batteries of the high establishment have six guns and two ammunition-wagons, horsed. The guns are 8.8 cm. calibre.

The field artillery is organized in twenty brigades, usually containing two regiments each; three of the brigades are formed of three regiments.

To each corps of the army is attached a brigade of two artillery regiments, the first of which is termed the artillery regiment of corps, the second the regiment of divisionary artillery. Each battery comprises 6 guns, 6 covered wagons for ammunition, 3 wagons of supplies, and 1 field forge, and is divided into three sections to form the first *échelon* of the battery of combat. The third section comprises, besides, one wagon of supplies. The rest of the wagons formed in three sections compose the second *échelon*. Each wagon is drawn by six horses. Each field-piece is accompanied by 1 under-officer, 3 conductors, and 5 artillerymen in the mounted batteries,—7 in the horse batteries, 2 of whom guard the horses. The service of a mounted battery demands 170 under-officers and soldiers and 150 horses. A horse battery requires 162 under-officers and soldiers, 5 officers, and 230 horses. The gunners of mounted artillery are armed with a straight sabre having a brass hilt and scabbard of leather. All the under-officers, conductors, and mounted men carry a short sabre with a slight guard, and a revolver. The footmen of the column of ammunition are armed with the *jäger* rifle and sabre-bayonet.

The Foot Artillery is grouped in fifteen regiments of two battalions, two regiments of three battalions each, and one independent battalion,—in all thirty-seven battalions of four companies each. There is also a school battalion of three companies. The independent battalion numbers 20 officers and 597 men; the regimental



Copyright, 1899, by The Werner Company

FIRST REGIMENT OF HUSSARS—BODY GUARDS

battalion 20 officers and 596 men; the two-battalion regiment numbers 43 officers and 1,194 to 1,200 men; the three-battalion regiment 64 officers and 1,783 to 1,789 men; and the company numbers 4 officers and 145 to 146 men.

The foot artillery forms a portion of the garrison troops, and is destined for the defence of places, or to be attached to the equipage of siege of the field troops, or to form an artillery of position, if necessary. Under certain dispositions the artillery is provided with field-pieces, wagons, and necessary horses. Establishments of construction are placed under the direction of officers of artillery, except the manufacture of arms and cart-ridges, the direction of which is entrusted to infantry officers.

The Pioneers.—The pioneers represent the engineering force. There are in all twenty-three battalions (with ninety-seven companies), as follows: 19 Prussian, 1 Saxon, 1 Würtemberg, and 2 Bavarian. One battalion forms the guard and is composed of four companies, the first three of which perform the service of pioneers, miners, etc., and the fourth, called the "company of miners," doing the work of sapping and undermining. The strength of the guard pioneer battalion is 29 officers and 765 men; of the other Prussian battalions, 24 officers and 613 men. The strength of the company is 4 officers and 150 rank and file, except in the Würtemberg battalion, where the company comprises 4 officers and 125 rank and file. There is one battalion for each army corps, extra battalions being located at Königsberg, Metz, and Strasburg. Each battalion attached to an army corps furnishes to it three companies of pontoniers, two of which are united with infantry divisions. Each of these companies has an equipment of bridges. The implements borne by the men and in the wagons include a stock of 1,644 shovels, 522 pickaxes, 375 hatchets, and 96 saws. The material in the bridge equipment of a company is sufficient to build a bridge 33 yards long in fifty minutes; that of the army corps, united to that of the two divisions, a bridge 218 yards long in two hours and twenty-five minutes. There are seven battalions of railway troops, namely, one brigade composed of three regiments of two battalions of four companies each, and one Bavarian battalion. To the first regiment

of the brigade the balloon troops are attached; the second regiment contains one Würtemberg and two Saxon companies. The Bavarian battalion comprises three companies and a section of balloon troops. The regiment comprises 48 officers, 4 medical officers, 5 paymasters and armorers, and 1,124 rank and file. The Prussian battalion comprises 22 officers, 2 paymasters and armorers, and 600 rank and file. The balloon detachment numbers 5 officers and 115 rank and file. The railway company numbers 5 officers and 150 rank and file. The military railway, from Berlin to Jüterbog, is managed by the Prussian railway troops, specifically by the 2d Regiment.

For explosives, the companies of an army corps stow 620 pounds of gunpowder in the powder wagons, and 3,300 pounds are carried with the field stores. The battalions of pioneers furnish an effective of 1 superior officer, 18 pioneer officers, 7 officers of train, 665 under-officers and pioneer soldiers of train, 467 horses, and 74 wagons. With the exception of the sergeant-majors, vice-sergeant-majors, and clarions, the pioneers are armed with the Mauser gun and bayonet. The soldiers of train are armed with a cavalry sabre and a rifle. The men carry three days' rations for themselves, one ration of oats for the saddle horses, and three for the trace horses.

The Military Train.—The train comprises twenty-one battalions, as follows: 17 Prussian battalions of three companies each (except one, which has two), 1 Saxon battalion, which has four companies, 1 Würtemberg battalion of three companies, and 2 Bavarian battalions of three train and one sanitary company each. The strength of the three-company battalion is 14 officers, 1 to 2 medical officers, 2 paymasters and armorers, 346 rank and file, 2 officers' and 189 troop horses (not counting condemned horses retained in the service). The strength of the company is 4 officers, 111 to 113 rank and file, 15 riding and 48 draft horses. The 14th and 15th battalions have each 44 horses for horsing heavy foot-artillery batteries of the corps of the same numbers. Each battalion furnishes to each mobilized army corps the train of administration, that of staff, that of the troop corps, and three sanitary detachments,—one to each infantry division, and the

third to the army corps. These different trains together comprise 1 superior officer, 13 officers, 754 under-officers, soldiers, workmen, and lazaret aides, 14 doctors, 4 paymasters, 3 veterinaries, 11 canteen-bearers, 454 horses, and 400 wagons. The wagons carry a store of 37 shovels, 35 pickaxes, 74 hatchets, and 8 axes. Each of the sanitary detachments is divided into two *échelons*.

During an engagement these detachments establish on a central spot a field

receive due care and are assisted on foot to the nearest halting-place.

*Accessory Services.**—First come the administrative services,—the management of the treasury, rations, etc. Second, medical services,—twelve field lazarets of the army corps able to receive many sick or wounded. Third, auxiliary services,—field posts, military justice, chaplains. Fourth, military services, which secure the magazines of provisions and the conveyances on the field of opera-



Copyright 1899, by The Werner Company

CAVALRY ATTACK ON A BALLOON DETACHMENT

hospital, marked in the daytime by two flags, one white, with the red Geneva cross, the other bearing the national colors; during the night, by a red lantern. Between the central hospital and each section, or two united sections, and the points of aid, organized personally by the doctor of the corps of troops, wagons are placed for transporting the wounded. The stretcher-bearers of sanitary detachments, assisted in time of need by the auxiliary corps, bear on the stretchers the men seriously injured, placing them, with the litter, on a wagon which conveys them to the field hospital, whence, after receiving the necessary care, they are taken to the field lazaret in assistance-wagons covered with straw. The men with only slight wounds are gathered together at special places, where they

tion. At the head of this service is placed the Inspector-General, having the rank of lieutenant-general, who receives orders from the Chief of Staff. The Inspector-General is entrusted with the direction of the entire administrative service, being assisted by a general manager; with the entire sanitary service, assisted by a skilful doctor; with the military telegraph, the postal service,

*The so-called cartographical division is entrusted with the preparation and custody of all maps approved by the central direction or ordered by the chief of the survey, and of the plates, stones, and other printing material. All the printing and drawing for the general staff is also done by this division, the personnel comprising 1 chief and 2 directors, officers of the general staff; 2 directors (employees); 31 draughtsmen and assistant draughtsmen; 3 technical inspectors; 1 director of printing; 1 chief photographer; 49 lithographers (engravers on copper); 2 photographers; 11 printers (including 1 electrotypewriter); and 11 assistants and other employees, engravers, etc.

field railroads, repairs, necessary new constructions, etc. To aid in the efficient performance of these services specially trained subordinates are required.

The regiments of the Prussian railroad force and a Bavarian company furnish the Prussian regiment, 9 companies of construction, 3 of excavation, and 2 of workmen. For each army corps a place situated near a railway is designated as a point of departure of rations. Everything to be carried to the army is concentrated at this point; everything sent from the army is received at this point. In all the stations there are always *commandatures*, whose authority extends over the entire territory occupied by the station and its dependencies.

A small corps of mounted field *jäger* is employed in the general quarters of the

army and in the grand imperial quarters, to carry important messages and documents by every means of rapid locomotion—including bicycles—which may be allotted to them while *en route*.

The question of European disarmament has been presented to the nations amid general efforts to increase military and naval strength. Recent attempts, however, on the part of the German Emperor, materially to augment the Imperial army, have met with a check at the hands of the Reichstag. Whatever the future may hold in store for the lovers of peace, it is hoped that this series of papers has shown the thoroughness and system with which Germany has prepared for self-defence or for whatever military emergency may arise.

LEON MEAD.

BINGHAMTON, N. Y.

THE HIGHER CULTURE AND THE NATIONAL LIFE

IT IS related that a student in Yale College, having finished his four years of undergraduate life, received his honors, and discharged his part at Commencement, rushed to the telegraph office in New Haven, and to his mother in Chicago announced the total result, as he conceived it, in a message of one word—"Educated." No doubt the young man intended a bit of humorous satire, but if he was in sober earnest he fell into a mistake by no means uncommon. In ordinary conversation we find ourselves referring to the young graduate as having "completed his course," "done with his studies," or "finished his education"; and yet, if we think soberly of the matter, we know that if the school or college has done its work properly for him, it has only prepared him to be educated.

The idea that education is a thing to be concluded definitely within a few of the earlier years of life, then to be regarded as forever over and done, and that it consists of some disagreeable preliminaries of syntax, Latin grammar, and rhetoric, to be gotten out of the way as speedily as possible,—this idea of education we understand to be thoroughly obsolete. Rather do we understand that education, if it means anything, means the continual enrichment of the resources of the individual; that, as such, it is by no

means confined to those who are found within the schools, nor to youth, but that it is just as much for the adult as for the young; that in fact, just so long as we have our faculties and the world is about us, we are to add to our resources and to strengthen our faculties for the enrichment of life and the improvement of citizenship. Education, therefore, for the individual, is never finished. It is one of the great abiding, permanent interests of life, along with politics and religion.

But in this article I propose to use the word "education" in not quite so broad a sense as this, but rather in the sense in which it is to be distinguished sharply from technical instruction and training. The best example of what I mean by education is found in what we attempt to do in the college and the schools below it. For after the individual leaves the college, if he proceeds with the university or technical school, his work is not primarily that of education, but rather of technical training and instruction.

What, then, is a college, and what do we undertake to do in college education? This question seems to be not at all out of place in a magazine intended in many cases for those who have not chosen to avail themselves of the advantages of a college, or whom circumstances have kept from so doing, because many of the read-

ers of this article are themselves teachers, and they are dealing with students who are primarily concerned now with education. Any attempt, if at all successful, to answer the question, What is education? must be of interest to those who are thus related to it. Moreover, as those who desire culture for ourselves, it is important that we should form a clear distinction between what we are attempting to do under the name of education or culture, and that which we undertake to do when we seek to master the technique of some definite calling or profession. We may hope to arrive at some definite views through the attempt to answer the question, What is a college, and what is its ideal?

A lady who lives in Boston, where they are supposed to know all about this sort of thing as well as all about every other sort of thing, asked me not long ago, What is the difference between a college and a university? It is believed that there are many who may profitably consider this distinction. Let us see. A young man was graduated in June from one of our smaller New England colleges. In September of that year he went to Yale University to pursue special advanced studies in English literature. Before going to New Haven he completed his college studies. He is now engaged in university studies. It is clear what he is now about. He is seeking to gain complete mastery of one definite line of study and to acquire special skill in the use of his knowledge, either for further investigation or for teaching. A classmate of his, that same year, entered Columbia University, in the city of New York, in order to pursue special advanced studies in medicine. He, too, is following his college work with university work; he, too, is seeking complete mastery of one particular line of knowledge, and technical skill in the use of his knowledge, either as an investigator or as a physician.

Now, a university is a collection of just such schools as these of literature and medicine,—schools where men and women go after they have finished what is represented by the general college course. A complete university would include schools of medicine, law, literature, engineering in all its branches, history, archæology, philosophy, political and social science; in short, it would be a collection of schools of every conceivable kind of

knowledge, and, in the ideal, it would receive only those who had first completed the general work of the college course. As a matter of fact, this is rapidly coming to be the case. Harvard long ago announced her intention of receiving into her medical school only those who bring with them their academic diploma. The same is true of her law school. Our best theological institutions do not now receive any but college graduates. If, now, we have a complete collection of such schools of advanced specialized instruction and training, we have a university, in distinction from a college. Its purpose is either to train men as investigators to enlarge the field of knowledge, or, as skilled practitioners, to apply that knowledge in the professions or the arts.

Having gone thus far together, we see that the purpose of the university is narrowed down to two things, namely, the imparting of special instruction and technical skill. Of course the highest ideal of the university is to train men to be investigators, to carry the bounds of knowledge farther out and reclaim more and more from the wild lands of ignorance and mystery. Nevertheless, as a matter of fact, the majority of the students in the universities are seeking rather to become masters of some department of knowledge or industry. The surgeon in the hospital must learn all there is to learn of surgery, or, at least, of his department of it; and he must gain this other thing—the technique of his calling—hand-skill and quickness of eye, the coördination of nerve and muscle that with the swiftness and certainty of instinct guides his trained faculties in the use of the material before him. But when he comes to this advanced specialized study, he must, if he is to gain from it the highest result, bring with him something previously acquired,—an alert and disciplined mind and a body under complete control. They must have been gained through what we call education; and to enable him to gain them is precisely the ideal of the college. That they may be gained by those who have never seen the inside of a college cannot be doubted. The college simply attempts to collect and organize the opportunities and helps which one may find less concentrated and less convenient outside of the college. And we are here discussing the college only because that institution focalizes the helps which one may grasp for

himself under the name of self-culture. The conception of what the college is and tries to do will only make more distinct to us what may be accomplished by those who seek, but are compelled to do this work for themselves.

By education, then, whether gained in the schools or by one's own effort, we mean the rendering the individual alive and alert in every faculty and fibre; the development of individuality and personal power; the teaching a man to understand himself, to command his faculties, and to make them obey his bidding promptly and well; the teaching him to understand life and the world, and to adjust himself truly to others. Of course the school and the college can never do this completely, for one will make further attainments in these directions as long as he lives. But the chief work of the schools lies in education rather than in instruction. The end to be sought is an intelligent outlook upon life, self-knowledge, and self-control.

The value of a college education is not chiefly to be found in what the graduate knows, but in what he is and what he can learn to do. The schools must not regard the pupil as a receptacle into which a knowledge of facts is to be packed and crammed, but rather as the analogue of a bar of iron, whose possibilities of magnetism the physicist would realize. The physicist never dreams for a moment of putting anything new into the bar of iron. What he wants is to realize its latent power. The purpose of the schools, or of education outside the schools, is to make a possible man into an actual man: a human being with his manifold powers is to be brought to the point of symmetrical development. No longer, then, must he be regarded merely as an intellectual being. His physical, social, and spiritual interests must be regarded as well.

It is of the utmost importance, whether we are dealing with others who are under our instruction or are dealing with ourselves in the matter of self-culture, that we regard this fourfold character of education. We have been the losers in the past for failing so to regard it. Time was when we considered only the intellectual and spiritual interests of the student, and regarded even these narrowly. We said to the student: "Get your lessons and attend church, and we are done with you." The physical and social elements of the

student's life, being ignored or repressed, became hostile and disorderly. The relation between pupils and teachers, or between students and faculty, was supposed to be a sort of armed peace. Yet even in those days relations of real intimacy and affection sometimes sprang up. But the typical student was unique. He resembled nothing either in Heaven above or in the earth beneath. He was a distinct variety of outlaw. The laws were not supposed to touch him; society was afraid of him; he was distinctly mediæval, but, like everything else mediæval, his faults were largely occasioned by a lack of wise direction and employment. With a better conception, a new era in school and college life came in. Now we understand that human life in the schools, as elsewhere, is not simple, but complex; that it has elements, physical, social, intellectual, and spiritual, and that full and free activity in each of these directions alone eliminates evil and secures harmony and happiness.

Accordingly we systematize and promote the physical or athletic life of the student. We do this because we believe that the body is a part of the man himself, and that whatever enhances the condition of the body improves the condition of the whole man. We do not hold, as the church has sometimes held and taught, that the body at its worst will give us the mind and soul at their best; but that the body at its best is the indispensable helper of the mind and spirit. We believe that in the sports and games and exercises of the gymnasium, where the student gains the steady hand, the steady nerve, and the true eye, he is gaining also self-restraint, self-direction, the habit of obedience, courage, and fairness. We believe also that organized athletics furnish a most needful absorbent of energies otherwise likely to be harmful to their owner or to others.

It is often asked how it is that the barbarism which persisted in the American colleges so long after it was obsolete elsewhere has now almost entirely disappeared from these institutions; how it is that its presence in a college marks that college as not quite abreast of the times; and how it is that the prevailing emphasis in our American institutions is now upon the things that are true, honest, and of good report. I believe that this is due, more than to any other one thing, to what is represented by the gymnasium, the ball-

field, and the running-track. There are other and more subtle causes, doubtless, but none more potent than these. The organized athletic life of our high-schools, colleges, and universities has proved the best solution of good citizenship among pupils. Distinctly it is on the side of better scholarship, better manhood, and better morals.

We believe also in organizing and promoting the social life of the student. We are not likely to emphasize this element in education too much. Many a graduate has complained bitterly and justly that the school has left him utterly rude and crude, without social tact, grace, skill, or power to deal with men. And yet this is one of the very keys to success; and while it ought to be gained during the student period of one's life, it has to be gained mostly outside of the premises of the school, though its accomplishments have, perhaps, their best field of practice within the school itself. How finely Newman described it:

"The polished manners, the high-bred bearing so difficult of attainment,—all that goes to constitute a gentleman: the carriage, grace, gestures, voice; the ease, the self-possession, the courtesy; the art of conversing; the talent of not offending; the loftiness of thought; the happiness of expression; the taste and propriety; the candor and frankness; the generosity and forbearance; the openness of hand,—these qualities, some of them come by nature, some are found in any rank, some are the direct precept of Christianity; but the full assemblage of them bound up in an individual character,—do we think that they can be learned from books? Are they not rather to be acquired where they are to be found—in high society?"

This thought is permeating all our education and our self-culture, and it is showing itself in college towns in a hearty sympathy between the three elements formerly supposed to be indifferent or hostile, namely, students, officers, and the public.

Of course we believe in promoting the intellectual life of the student. And here again the spirit of the schools has always been the spirit of those outside of the schools, seeking self-enrichment. American communities, especially in the North, have always been strong—at least in theory—on the intellectual side; and whatever may be said of the new education with all its helps, we must surely not depart in the least from the old rigid intellectual exactions. A prominent educator said a very true thing recently: "In the

ideal school I would insist upon unprecedented emphasis in respect to thoroughness, logic, and system." Surely, we can do nothing wiser for ourselves or for others than to insist upon the cultivation of habits of clear, independent, consecutive thought.

But we believe still further in the spiritual side of education, and if our ideas of culture are weak in any direction, it is in this. But we are beginning to see that it is illogical to attempt to fit for life a creature like ourselves or our pupils, who is primarily a moral and spiritual being, and to ignore the moral and spiritual element in his training. But the matter is being thrust upon us by our studies in psychology, pedagogy, and social science, and we are beginning to see that it is as unscientific to ignore this element in education as it would be to ignore the facts of physiology, hygiene, or psychology. Morals and religion are just as much a necessary part of human life as digestion or sleep. The assertion will hardly be contradicted that if you do all else thoroughly to educate yourself or others, but ignore this part of training,—the part that has to do with the sense of individual responsibility to one's fellow-men and to God,—you run immense risk, not only of making all else useless, but of making it a positive menace to self and to society.

As a matter of fact, this element of education is strongly emphasized in the best of our American institutions, and the helps to it are abundant in every community. The growing attention and thought bestowed upon this part of education is one of the most hopeful signs for the future of our country; and it is noticeable that the distinctive character of the recent war with Spain was derived from the fact that this nation is a Christian nation and that the President is a man of God. The sense of obligation to fellow-man and to the Deity have distinctly shaped the course of events and determined results.

But we now understand not only that education, if it be complete, must regard these four coördinate interests of men and women, but that it must accomplish its purposes in the face of two mischievous and prevalent fallacies.

The first of these is the fallacy of the short cut, the desire to avoid a long course of study and discipline, the disposition to make our culture consist in a few phrases and in merely superficial knowledge of a

great many things. Young people especially begrudge the time between now and their active participation in busy life. While a boy is at his studies, his acquaintance, who is doing something that can be rated in dollars, measured with the yardstick, or weighed upon the scales, seems to him to be getting on, while *he* seems to be standing still; and so he chafes and frets at his studies and longs to be at business. The wise parent or teacher should see to it that the boy stops this chafing; that he be cheerful and happy in his work; that he even contemplate with pleasure the long vista of study. He must be made to understand that it is no gain, but a fatal loss of time, to undertake to have a hand in the world's work before he knows or can do anything that the world really wants; that if he wants a place, he must first become such a sort of person that the place wants him. The impatient boy must understand that, so far as he is concerned, the world is entirely patient,—that it is quite willing to wait for him until he has mastered himself and some department of knowledge or industry, but that, when he has done that, the world is so impatient for him that it will at once find him out and set him at work. He must see that he is, therefore, doing the most practical sort of thing to remain in school until he has made the utmost of himself; that if he undertakes to participate in the world's work before he has done that, whatever he seeks he will find at his elbow some better man seeking the same thing,—some man who did what he failed to do; a man who made the most of himself; who did not strive to do three years' work in two, or four years' work in three; a man who made the utmost of all his opportunities, whether in school or out of it, and fitted himself especially for the special thing he desires.

Never before was it so true, not only that the trained man wins, but that the trained man is about the only one wanted to do any kind of work. Wendell Phillips was once asked how he acquired his splendid oratory in the lecture on the "Lost Arts." He replied: "By getting one hundred nights of delivery behind me." A celebrated publicist, asked by a young man whether, after all, the time spent in advanced education and culture was not wasted, replied: "If I knew that I had only ten years to live, I would spend nine of them in getting ready for the tenth."

We are all familiar with the reputed answer of the president of Oberlin College, who, on being asked by a young man if he could not in two years probably get all the good that the college could do him, said: "Well, young man, when God wants to make a squash He takes about six weeks, but when He wants to make an oak He takes a hundred years."

The second of those fallacies against which we must strive in the education of others or of ourselves is the alluring fallacy about the self-made man. Some one has wittily said that the chief characteristic of the man who has made himself is that he is much given to worshipping his maker. Doubtless this is more witty than it is just. By a "self-made" man we mean, of course, one who has achieved distinguished success without the aid of the schools, and if we think soberly about the matter we are in no great danger of saying too much in praise of such men. America, of all countries, should speak respectfully of the self-made man. In no country has he achieved such splendid things; no country probably owes so much to the self-made man. But what does he prove? In every case where a man has achieved great success by his own unaided efforts, he has been a man of extraordinary abilities, and he has succeeded by means of these abilities *in spite of* and not *because of* the lack of other aids.

There was in the West a one-armed farmer who was the most successful farmer in all the region. What then? Shall we infer that the best guarantee of success in farming is to have but one arm? 'Way down East there is a boy who has made some beautiful violins and guitars without anything to work with save his own native wit and a broken jack-knife. What then? Shall we say that he was a lucky boy to have escaped tools and training? Nonsense. You would at once say: "Give that boy the best training and the best tools." The lack of tools did not make those musical instruments; the best set of tools in the world could not make them. First, you must have a boy—a genius. But, given a boy, tools and training produce the best results. The schools never made a man; the lack of schools never unmade a man. But, given a man to begin with, schools and training mightily multiply his powers.

We shall have to revise our definition of the self-made man. *A self-made man is one who has made the most of his oppor-*

tunities. Every man in the world who amounts to anything is a self-made man, and therefore every kind of culture is self-culture. It is simply a question of using one's actual opportunities. If it is in a man to make the most of these, the better you make them, and the more you multiply them, the better for him and for all concerned. Abraham Lincoln was a self-made man. So just as truly was William Ewart Gladstone. The opportunities of the one were those of narrowness and poverty; of the other, abundance and comfort. Each made the most of his opportunities, and for each equally this was the condition of success.

It is interesting to notice the changed attitude of the business world toward those who are thoroughly trained and educated. Horace Greeley is reported to have said once that he had no use for a college man in his office. But it is said that before his death he had thoroughly equipped the "Tribune" office with college-trained men. His successor in the management of the "Tribune" was a distinguished example of the college-bred man in business. The same thing is true of almost every one of the great dailies of our leading cities. Probably no more astute business men can be found than the great corporation lawyers who manage the largest businesses of the country. Almost to a man they are college-bred. And one has only to run over in mind the names of such men as A. T. Stewart, Abraham Hewitt, Chauncey Depew, and the prominent men in our presidential cabinets, to conclude that the practical business of the world is dominated by college-trained men. Surely this consideration is of great interest for every intelligent reader, whether he has or has had access to a college or not. The outcome of it is to make us emphasize and value the highest education and training that is accessible to us, and to lay before the young people who are under our advice and direction, if possible, even better advantages than we ourselves have had.

Not only are we bound to infer that the business of the world is dominated by men of higher training and education, but the same thing seems to be true in every department of life. It is out of men who, if not through the schools, then by their own reading and observation and study, have attained higher than the average culture, that we have made and are mak-

ing our best teachers, preachers, lawyers, physicians, engineers, and leaders in every department of industry which men follow; and these are the hope of the country and the guarantors of its future. We sometimes get vivid and startling glimpses of the working of fatal tendencies in our national life, and we ask what is to save us from anarchy and general disaster. I believe that that question will be answered, under divine providence, by the thousands of young men and women who every year come forth from our higher institutions of learning, and by those who, though they have never been within these institutions, have entire sympathy with their spirit and aims. Such as these are answering these questions and have in the past answered them. In army, navy, church, and state, in public and domestic life, the thoughtful, intelligent, self-trained or college-trained men and women—those who have hungered and thirsted for culture and power—have been the leaders, the counsellors, or initiators of far-reaching measures of good. At this moment it is this class of men and women who are at the heart of our municipal reforms, our civic federations, social settlements, university extension, free hospitals, and charitable endowments,—bands of men and women leagued together for the practice and promulgation of the will of God for men.

Before the cultivated man or woman there opens up to-day, as never before, a high and definite mission. It is to carry true ideals into every walk of life. Never before did the country stand so much in need of the service that the cultivated man or woman can render; never before did it so much need the sober, self-restrained thinker. It is these who must be looked to,—North, South, East, and West,—to see to it that life and property are free from disturbance and destruction. It is such as these who in times like those through which we have just passed calm the rash ardor of the unthinking multitude, and teach us to think first and to act afterwards. Who can fail to see the value of self-restrained, careful second-thought when he thinks of the attitude of the President in the recent crisis? And who can fail to see that it is the trained, educated, cultivated second-thought of Great Britain that has enabled her to penetrate below the superficial causes for international jealousy, and to see reasons for quietly but unmistakably arraying herself

on the side of a kindred people making its protest against a nation's iniquity?

Because all peoples of genuine culture are, by that very fact, of one family, there results a moral and sympathetic alliance which makes a political or military alliance unnecessary. But it guarantees that the ideals for which the English-speaking peoples stand—the best ideals not only for themselves but for the whole of mankind—will be powerfully emphasized and widely promoted by the events that have come to pass during the last year. And it is the well-trained, Christian, intelligent thought of America that is now seeing its way clear to the right conclusion in the midst of all the perplexities by which we have been surrounded.

Thus we are coming to see that neither imperialism nor anti-imperialism properly describe the situation or the appropriate policy, but that we have to face a national opportunity and duty. More and more we are coming to agree that it is more than doubtful whether, if the recent war and its events had never been, we have any right as a people to say that world issues are no affair of ours. Whether we like it or not, we are a world power. We stand in the very first rank in wealth and in all national resources. We have realized the best ideals in the world, in education, government, religion, social and domestic life.

By a series of utterly unforeseen events, two of the worst-conditioned spots of the earth have been thrust into our hands. By the same series of events we have the sympathy of the entire English-speaking world. Never before had a nation a wider-opened door to a mission of world-wide beneficence. We shall doubtless cease talking about imperialism or anti-imperialism, and shall set ourselves wholeheartedly to the task of seeing that Cuba and the Philippines become places where men and women may securely enjoy life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; places that shall be what nature obviously intended,—sources of immense commercial and industrial advantage to the world. For this purpose, and for this purpose only, we are to keep our hand upon these peoples until they are fit for self-government. We are to do our present and obvious duty, and leave Providence and the future to develop the wisdom of the future.

The purpose of culture—whether derived from the schools or from one's own efforts in improving such opportunities as

he has—is to train men thus to think and thus to lead, to see their way through what perplexes untrained minds, to let the sober second-thought take the place of the first rash impulse. The purpose of culture, therefore, is not primarily to make a citizen know more about books and dates and facts and science, but to make him able to render a larger output to his fellow-men and to contribute his full share to the sum total of useful activity in the world.

The vast number of students—never so many as now—who are by every means seeking self-improvement in and out of the colleges, and the tens of millions of dollars that within the most recent times have been bestowed for this purpose, show that the instinct of the people recognizes the practical value of the highest culture that the individual can attain. We ought to understand that self-culture is not a term to be applied only to those who have not the advantages of assistance from the schools, but that the term self-culture describes the personal enrichment of every individual who simply makes the best of such opportunities he has.

The practical value of culture, however derived, was well set forth by Chauncey Depew in one of his characteristic speeches, at the close of which he said:

"He who gives to the hospital gives well; he who gives to the asylum or the home gives well; but he who gives to the college gives best: for [said he, dropping into the language of the railway, so familiar to him] the money that goes to the hospital goes for repairs, but the line can never be made as good as new, and the earnings are not sufficient to keep the concern going. The money that goes to the home or the asylum, where are the incurable in mind or body,—that is where humanity is in the hands of a receiver, and the money goes to keep the receiver in funds to keep a bankrupt concern going. It is all very well, all very well. But the money that goes to the college goes for construction,—a new line, new cars, new locomotives. The line runs through the region where God's acres have never felt the beneficent influence of the plough. The line runs past a spot where the mill may be built; it runs past the place where the home may be established; it runs through the region where cities may spring up; and it carries out and distributes right and left the missionaries of God for the enlightenment of mankind and the salvation of the republic."

NATHANIEL BUTLER.

COLBY COLLEGE,
WATERTOWN, ME.

THE ELECTRO-MAGNETIC TELEGRAPH

ITS BIRTH AND INFANCY

JOSEPH HENRY, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in the Albany Academy, at Albany, N. Y., in 1826, commenced his scientific investigations of the electro-magnet, invented in 1824 by William Sturgeon, of Woolwich, England. He was enabled to exhibit all the manifestations attempted by Sturgeon, not only with the use of feeble magnets, but with a still further reduction of the battery power, and pursued his experiments with such success that within five years he had constructed a magnet capable of sustaining 3,600 pounds.

Early in 1831 Henry set up the first electro-magnetic telegraph, which is thus described by him:

"I arranged, around one of the upper rooms in the Albany Academy, a wire of more than a mile in length, through which I was enabled to make signals by sounding a bell. The mechanical arrangement for effecting this object was simply a steel bar, permanently magnetized, of about ten inches in length, supported on a pivot, and placed with its north end between the two arms of a horseshoe magnet. When the latter was excited by the current, the end of the bar, thus placed, was attracted by one arm of the horseshoe and repelled by the other, and was thus caused to move in a horizontal plane, and its farther extremity to strike a bell suitably adjusted."

In 1832 Henry was elected to the Chair of Natural Philosophy in the college at Princeton, N. J., and his experiments with the electro-magnet, and its improvement, were continued there. In October of the same year the ship "Sully," on her homeward voyage from Europe, had among her passengers S. F. B. Morse, of New York, who had just concluded a lengthened sojourn in Italy, in the pursuit of his profession as a painter. Of an incident of the voyage Morse wrote, March 10, 1837:

"In the year 1832, on my voyage home from Europe, the electrical experiments of Franklin upon a wire some four miles in length were casually recalled to my mind in a conversation with one of the passengers, Dr. C. T. Jackson, of Boston, Mass., in which experiments it was ascertained that the electric current travelled through the whole circuit in a time not appreciable, but apparently instantaneous. It immediately occurred to me that if the presence of electricity could be made visible in any desired part of the circuit, it would not be difficult

to construct a system of signs by which intelligence could be instantaneously transmitted.

"The thought thus conceived took strong hold of my mind in the leisure which the voyage afforded, and I planned a system of signs, and an apparatus to carry it into effect. I cast a species of type, which I had devised for this purpose, the first week after my arrival home, and although the rest of the machinery was planned, yet from the pressure of unavoidable duties I was compelled to postpone my experiments, and was not able to test the whole plan until within a few weeks. The result has realized my most sanguine expectations."

Thus, nearly two years before the date cited by Morse as that upon which he first *conceived* the idea of the transmission of intelligence by the aid of the electric current, Henry had *conceived and executed* an experimental electro-magnetic telegraph of a mile circuit. In this connection it will be of interest to quote from the "Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institution" for the year 1878, as follows:

"Whether judged by the standard 'conception' of practical operation or of active introduction into use, the Morse telegraph must be assigned a position tolerably low down in the list. More than sixteen years before Professor Morse's first 'conception' of the idea, Dr. J. R. Coxe, Professor of Chemistry at the University of Pennsylvania, at the beginning of 1816 'conceived' the idea of a practical electro-chemical telegraph, whose signals should be permanently recorded by the decomposition of metallic salts; the precursor of Dyer's electro-chemical telegraph, successfully operated in 1828 (about five years before Morse's first conception), of Bain's electro-chemical telegraph (patented December 12, 1846), and of Morse's electro-chemical telegraph (patented May 1, 1849), a third of a century afterwards.

"Schilling's electro-magnetic telegraph (developed to a 'practical operation' in 1823, certainly before 1825) preceded that of Morse more than a dozen years. And the electro-magnetic telegraph of Gauss and Weber (certainly conceived before 1832) was in actual use and employment more than ten years before the similar establishment by Morse; while that of Steinheil (probably conceived as early) was some eight years earlier than his, in its practical introduction into use.

"That Professor Morse would greatly have expedited his own improvements, and have saved himself a large amount of wasted time and labor, if he had studied more carefully the state of the art at the commencement of his

experiments in 1835, is sufficiently obvious. But his complete unconsciousness—not only of the earlier successes of others in developing the galvanic telegraph, but of even the elementary facts of scientific history bearing on the problem, as well at the time of his original ‘conception’ on board the ship ‘Sully,’ from the fecundating suggestion of Dr. Jackson, as during the years following, in which the invention was being slowly matured—would be incredible on any other testimony than his own.

“In a letter to Mr. Alfred Vail, late in the year 1837, he wrote: ‘I ought perhaps to say that the conception of the idea of an electric telegraph was original with me at the time, and I supposed that I was the first that had ever associated the two words together; nor was it until my invention was completed and had been successfully operated through ten miles that I, for the first time, learned that the idea of an electric telegraph had been conceived by another.’

“With that strong ‘subjectivity’ (perhaps essential to the success both of the artist and of the artisan) which characterized him, Morse always believed his invention to have been practically full-fledged at its birth, or rather at its ‘conception’; and, quite unconscious of the slow and small advances derived from gathered experience or external suggestion, failed, seemingly, to realize how completely his earlier methods were discarded and displaced by later improvements.”

The history of the electric telegraph conclusively shows that no single individual can justly claim the distinction of having been the “inventor” of it, for it was, in fact, a growth rather than an “invention”; the work of many brains and of many hands.

Morse landed at New York with thoroughly well-defined plans as to what was necessary to harness the electric current, and so control it as to make communication between distant points perfectly feasible; but it was not until three years afterward that he was enabled to finish his apparatus, and at the close of the year 1835 he wrote of his first crude experiment: “The truth is, the child was born, and breathed, and spoke in 1832; it had then all the essential characteristics of the future man.”

The following account of his first experiments, taken from his deposition in the “Bain” case, under trial in February, 1857, will explain his apparatus:

“In the year 1835 I was appointed a professor in the University of the City of New York, and about the month of November of that year I occupied rooms in the University building. There I immediately commenced, with my

limited means, to experiment upon my invention. My first instrument was made up of an old picture or canvas frame fastened to a table; the wheels of an old wooden clock, moved by a weight, to carry the paper forward; three wooden drums, upon one of which the paper was wound, and passed over the other two; a wooden pendulum suspended from the top piece of the picture or stretching frame, and vibrating across the paper as it passed over the centre wooden drum; a pencil, at the lower end of the pendulum, in contact with the paper; an electro-magnet fastened to a shelf across the picture or stretching frame, opposite to an armature made fast to the pendulum; a type rule and type, for closing and breaking the circuit, resting on an endless band (composed of carpet-binding), which passed over two wooden rollers, moved by a wooden crank, and carried forward by points projecting from the bottom of the rule downward into the carpet-binding; a lever with a small weight on the upper side, and a tooth projecting downward at one end, operated on by the type, and a metallic fork, also projecting downward over two mercury cups, and a short circuit of wire, embracing the helices of the electro-magnet, connected with the positive and negative poles of the battery and terminating in the mercury cups. . . . Early in 1836 I procured forty feet of wire, and, putting it in the circuit, I found that my battery, of one cup, was not sufficient to work my instrument. Up to the autumn of 1837 my telegraphic apparatus existed in so rude a form that I felt reluctance to have it seen.”

On Saturday, the 2d day of September, 1837, Professor Daubeny, of the University of Oxford, England, was invited, with a few friends, to see the operation of the telegraph in its then rude form, at the University of the City of New York, where it had been installed with a circuit of 1,700 feet of copper wire stretched about the walls of the room. This exhibition, although the apparatus was of very inferior and imperfect construction, demonstrated to all present the feasibility of transmitting intelligence by means of an electric current.

The trial appears, however, not to have been entirely satisfactory, for on the following Monday, September 4, Morse wrote to the editor of the “Journal of Commerce”:

“I have the gratification of sending you a specimen of the writing of my telegraph, the actual transmission of a communication made this morning, in a more complete manner than on Saturday, and through the distance of one third of a mile.”

This specimen of telegraphic communication was reproduced in the newspaper

alluded to, three days later, and forms the earliest publication of the actual operations of the "Morse" telegraph.

"Silliman's Journal" for October, 1837, stated:

"Since the 4th of September 1,000 more feet of wire, No. 23, have been added, making, in all, 2,700 feet, more than half a mile, of a reduced size of wire. The register still recorded accurately. Arrangements have been made for constructing new and accurate machinery."

Up to this time Morse had been unable to enlist the interest, embodied in cold cash, of any of his many friends and relatives, and it was therefore a great satisfaction to him when, on September 23, 1837, he signed articles of agreement for partnership in his invention (for the patent for which he had not yet been able to pay), by the terms of which he was to secure, not only the means required to continue his experiments, take out his patent, and present the invention to the notice of Congress, but also the great benefit of the scientific research and inventive ability of Alfred Vail, the other party to the agreement.

Alfred Vail was the son of Judge Stephen Vail, owner of the Speedwell Iron-works at Morristown, N. J., at that time probably the foremost in the country. Having graduated from the University of the City of New York in June, 1837, young Vail returned to New York and his alma mater, with the avowed intention of taking a course of study preparatory to entering the ministry.

He was present at the exhibition of Morse's apparatus on that eventful 2d of September, and was deeply impressed with what he saw. Writing of this period he later stated:

"On one of my visits to New York prior to September 4, 1837, I accidentally, and without invitation, called upon Professor Morse at the University, and found him with Professors Torry and Daubeny in the mineralogical cabinet and lecture room of Professor Gale, where Professor Morse was exhibiting to these gentlemen an apparatus which he called his 'electro-magnetic telegraph.'

"There were wires suspended in the room, running from one end to the other, and returning many times, making a length of 1,700 feet. The two ends of the wire were connected with an electric magnet fastened to a vertical wooden frame. In front of the magnet was its armature, and also a wooden lever or arm, fitted at its extremity to hold a lead pencil. . . .

I saw this instrument work, and became thoroughly acquainted with the principles of its operation, and, I may say, struck with the rude machinery containing, as I believed, the germ of what was destined to produce great changes in the condition and relations of mankind. I well recollect the impression which was there made upon my mind; I rejoiced to think that I lived in such a day, and my mind contemplated the future in which so grand and mighty an agent was about to be introduced for the benefit of the world.

"Before leaving the room in which I beheld for the first time this magnificent invention, I asked Professor Morse if he intended making an experiment on a more extended line of conductors, to which he replied that he did, but that he required pecuniary assistance to carry out his plans. I promised him assistance provided he would admit me to a share of the invention, to which proposition he assented. I then returned to my rooms, and, locking the door, threw myself upon the bed and gave myself up to reflection upon the mighty results which were certain to follow the introduction of this new agent, in meeting and serving the wants of the world.

"I traced the most important lines (upon the atlas in my hand) which would most certainly be erected in the United States, and calculated their length. The question then arose in my mind whether the electro-magnet could be made to work through the necessary lengths of wire, and after much reflection I came to the conclusion that, provided the magnet would work even at a distance of eight or ten miles, there could be no risk in embarking in the enterprise. And upon this I decided, in my own mind, *to sink or swim with it*. Soon after this I became a partner with the inventor, and immediate steps were taken for constructing an instrument for the purpose of exhibiting its powers before the Congress at Washington."

On the 6th of October following, Morse filed in the United States Patent Office a caveat, signed October 3, stating in the petition (dated five days earlier) —

—"that the machinery for a full practical display of *my* new invention is *not yet completed*, and I therefore pray protection of my right till we shall have matured the machinery."

The specification declares:

"I have invented a new method of transmitting and recording intelligence by means of electro-magnetism, . . . and for the purpose aforesaid I have invented the following apparatus, namely: First, a system of signs by which numbers, and consequently words and sentences, are signified. Second, a set of types adapted to regulate and communicate the signs, with cases for convenient keeping of the types, and rules in which to set up the type.

Third, an apparatus called a port-rule, for regulating the movement of the type rules, which rules, by means of the type, in their turn regulate the times and intervals of the passage of electricity. Fourth, a register which records the signs permanently. Fifth, a dictionary or vocabulary of words, numbered and adapted to this system of telegraphy. Sixth, modes of laying the conductors to preserve them from injury. The signs are the representatives of numerals."

These individual parts are then more elaborately described. The register consisted of an electro-magnet, moving by its armature; a pendulum, in which was a pencil, by which marks were made upon a strip of passing paper. The document concludes:

"What I claim as my invention, and desire to secure by letters patent, and to protect for one year by a caveat, is a method of recording permanently electrical signs, which by means of metallic wires or other good conductors of electricity convey intelligence between two or more places."

In response to a public circular which had been issued by the Secretary of the Treasury, March 10, 1837, "with a view of obtaining information in regard to the propriety of establishing a system of telegraphs for the United States," Professor Morse addressed a communication to him, September 27, 1837, calling his attention to the disadvantages of the mechanical telegraphs as being—

—"useless the greater part of the time,—in foggy weather and at night. Having invented an entirely new mode of telegraphic communication, which, so far as experiments have yet been made with it, promises results of an almost marvellous character, I beg leave to present to the Department a brief account of its chief characteristics."

In a second communication to the Department, dated November 28, 1837, he announced:

"I informed you that I had succeeded in marking, permanently and intelligibly, at the distance of half a mile. Mr. Alfred Vail, of the Speedwell Ironworks, Morristown, New Jersey, is now associated with me in the scientific and mechanical parts of the invention. We have procured several miles of wire, and I am happy to announce to you that our success has thus far been complete. At a distance of five miles, with a common Cruikshank battery of eighty-seven plates (four by three and a half inches, each plate), the marking was as perfect on the register as in the first instance of half a mile. We have recently added five miles more (making in all ten miles) with the same

results, and we now have no doubt of its effecting a similar result at any distance."

Immediately upon the formation of the partnership between Morse and Vail, the wooden apparatus of Morse was removed to Morristown, and (in a locked room in the iron-works set apart for the purpose by Judge Vail) the experiments were resumed. Alfred Vail, soon finding that the lead pencil used in the register was ill-adapted to the purpose, owing to its inability to maintain a point to the lead, devised a fountain pen to take its place, which, although not without objections, was used thereafter.

On January 6, 1838, Judge Vail was informed that the apparatus was completed, and his presence was desired at the tests about to be made. The Judge, who had been supplying the sinews of war for some months without being furnished with any very tangible results, had for some weeks been much dissatisfied, and had pretty plainly intimated to the two enthusiasts that unless something very suggestive of certain success was soon forthcoming, his contributions to the cause of science, and especially of telegraphy, would cease at once. This threat, if carried out, meant complete annihilation of the fondly cherished hopes of Morse and Vail. It was therefore with considerable alacrity that the Judge responded to the invitation for which he had so long been waiting, and he was soon with the inventors. In a large room, some seventy feet long and forty wide, three miles of copper wire had been stretched around the walls, attached to either end of which, in opposite parts of the room, was an apparatus, Morse at one, and Alfred Vail at the other.

The Judge, upon being informed that everything was in readiness for transmitting the message that was to show him that his confidence had not been misplaced, and that it would now be sent, said to his son Alfred (whom he had not seen for some time, as he and Morse had avoided meeting him, fearing to hear the fatal word that would dash their hopes): "Stop; I will write a message upon this paper, and if you can send it to Professor Morse, and he can tell me at the other end of the room what it is, I shall believe."

Alfred took the slip of paper, and, reading the message his father had written thereon, transmitted it to Morse. The Judge, joining Morse, asked what he had received, and upon being told that the

message was "A patient waiter is no loser," — the identical words that he had written upon the paper he had handed to his son Alfred, and which he knew it was impossible for Morse to have knowledge of,—he was overcome with emotion; but soon his enthusiasm became as great as before had been his dejection, for he realized that at last the invention was a success, and that there had been brought into the world an infant, not puny and destined to be short-lived, as was the crude device of Morse, but one with lusty lungs, which would make itself heard throughout the confines of civilization.

It should be remembered that the recording lever or pendulum of the original Morse apparatus as described in his caveat was operated vertically, and could only make a continuous line, either straight or of a zig-zag character, and, not being adapted to any other movement, was consequently absolutely incapable of producing an intermittent or dot-and-dash marking.

On the 11th of January, 1838, the first public exhibition was given. Referring to this occasion the Morristown paper stated:

"The words were put up into numbers through the dictionary; the numbers were set up in the telegraph type, in about the same time ordinarily occupied in setting up the same in a printing-office; they were then all passed complete by the port-rule, and, being automatically recorded at the extreme end of the wire, the marks or numbers were easily legible, and, by means of the dictionary, were restored again into words."

Not at all satisfied with a system of reading messages by recourse to a dictionary, and realizing the impossibility of making a commercial and practical success by this slow and laborious method, Mr. Vail, shortly after this exhibition, devised the dot-and-dash alphabet, rendered possible and as a natural sequence to his substitution of a perpendicular action of the recording lever instead of that of Morse's apparatus, which was vertical. Mr. Vail, in his disposition of the dots, dashes, and spaces, obtained by the perpendicular action of the marking-lever, was aided by his sense of rhythm (for he was no mean performer upon the violin) and his consultation with the typesetters upon the Morristown paper. From them he learned that the most frequently used letter was *e*, and recognizing that to it should be assigned the most quickly made sign, he appropriated to it a single dot (*.*), which

is the synonym for that much-used member of the alphabet. To the other letters he assigned the most easily and quickly made dot-and-dash characters in accordance with their relative use in point of frequency. The letter *i*, being next to *e* the most largely used, was made to consist of two dots very close together (*..*); the letter *o*, by two dots separated (*. .*); the letter *a*, by a dot and dash (*.-*); and the remaining vowel, *u*, by two dots and a dash (*..-*).

On the 20th of January, 1838, the new apparatus was exhibited at the University in New York, a circuit of ten miles being used, constituting a distance of really but five miles, the line being a double loop of wire now known as a metallic circuit, in contradistinction to one in which the two ends of a single line of wire are placed in the earth, which, through its latent electrical condition, completes the circuit. The new alphabet was used upon this occasion for the first time, and the messages were recorded by the fountain pen, upon the moving ribbon of paper, without the aid of a numbered dictionary. The New York "Journal of Commerce," noting the exhibition, stated:

"Professor Morse has recently improved on his mode of marking, by which he can dispense altogether with the telegraphic dictionary, using letters instead of numbers; and he can transmit ten words per minute, which is more than double the number which can be transmitted by means of the dictionary."

Five words per minute was then the limit of the ability of the original Morse system to transmit! Expert telegraphers of to-day, by the aid of the key and sounder, or receiving-instrument (it does not record), incorporated into the Morse invention by Alfred Vail, together with his dot-and-dash alphabet, send on an average, in regular business, forty words per minute, while as many as sixty words per minute have been sent. How long would it require to send and receive forty or sixty words if compelled to use the dictionary, not only in sending but in receiving the message?

About the middle of February, after an exhibition at the Franklin Institute, Philadelphia, the instruments were taken by Morse and Vail to Washington, for the purpose of exhibiting them to Congress, and a room at the Capitol was appropriated to the installment of the apparatus. The Committee on Commerce of the

House of Representatives, on April 6, 1838, reported as follows:

"The committee agree unanimously that it is worthy to engross the attention and means of the Federal government, to the full extent that may be necessary to put the invention to the most decisive test that can be desirable, and the committee recommend an appropriation of \$30,000, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury."

This bill failed to receive favorable action, and it was not until after a delay of five long and weary years that the appropriation "for testing the capacity and usefulness of the system of electro-magnetic telegraphs, invented by Samuel F. B. Morse, of New York," was obtained on the last night of the expiring session, March 3, 1843, by the passage of the bill by the Senate by a bare majority of but six votes.

It was decided to construct the line, thus authorized, between Washington and Baltimore, a distance of forty miles, and the work was very soon commenced, Morse being appointed Superintendent, and Alfred Vail, Assistant Superintendent, of "United States Telegraphs." For protection of the wires from injury it was deemed necessary that they be placed underground, and a plough for the purpose was devised, which, with a share extending two and a half feet deep, and carrying the coil of insulated wire enclosed in leaden pipe, deposited it in the ground, covering it with earth as it progressed. Forty miles of lead pipe were made in New York in the autumn of 1843, and shipped to Baltimore in the latter part of November. The laying of the pipe and wire was commenced at Baltimore, and in the early part of December it had reached the Relay House, then, as now, a station upon the line of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and nine miles distant from Baltimore, when it was found that not even one mile of the wire was sufficiently insulated to carry the electric current from end to end of the line.

This plan was abandoned soon after, when more than half of the appropriation had been expended. In order that this unfortunate result should not become known, with its consequent unfavorable criticisms, the plough was purposely broken, so that to this supposed accident might be attributed the failure to proceed with the work, and that time might be obtained in which to discover the cause

of failure, and, if possible, provide a remedy. In March, 1844, it was decided to place the wires upon poles, and the line was erected in this manner, being this time commenced at Washington. A double line, or loop, was strung upon the poles, until it was ascertained by experiments, made by Alfred Vail, that a single line was, in conjunction with the current of electricity found in the earth, sufficient to complete the circuit when both ends of the wire were buried in the ground.

Upon the 1st of May, 1844, the partially completed line had reached Annapolis Junction, a station upon the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and twenty-two miles from Washington. As upon that date the Whig Presidential Convention was to assemble at Baltimore, Morse and Vail arranged to obtain at the junction, from passengers on the afternoon train from Baltimore, all the information possible concerning the proceedings, and immediately transmit it to the Capitol at Washington, where it would be given to the public.

Upon the arrival of the train at the junction Mr. Vail ascertained that the Convention had assembled that morning, had nominated Clay and Frelinghuysen, and had adjourned, which important information he at once transmitted to Morse at the Capitol. The train sped on to Washington, the passengers full of the belief that they would be the first to give the news to its citizens, all unconscious that it had reached there ere their train had left the junction.

An hour and a quarter later they reached the Washington station, where to their utter bewilderment they found an enormous crowd of citizens vociferously shouting and cheering for Clay and Frelinghuysen. Not only that, but in the papers which the newsboys were crying (for they had "extras" even in those days), they saw in cold type, under the heading "By Telegraph," the information which they believed that they alone possessed. They then recalled the queries propounded to them at the junction, the man whom they saw working a machine in the little wooden house, and the wires stretched along the side of the railroad all of the way into Washington, and they realized that their sneers and jokes must now give place to full belief.

The line was finished to Baltimore, and on the 24th of May, Morse, at Washington,

sent to Alfred Vail, at Baltimore (the terminus of the line being at the Mont Clare station of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad), the so-called historic message, "What hath God wrought?" dictated by Miss Annie G. Ellsworth, daughter of the then Commissioner of Patents, who, as the bearer to him of the long-awaited tidings of the passage of the bill on the night of March 3, 1843, was promised by Professor Morse that upon the completion of the line she should frame the first public message to be transmitted over it.

The merits and value of the invention having been once demonstrated, arrangements were entered into for extending the line to New York. Rival enterprises soon developed, and the patentees became involved in extensive litigation in the effort to restrain the many who endeavored to

appropriate to their own benefit the results of the years of effort, anxiety, depression, and elation, before final success at last came to those who had so striven to achieve it. But fifty-five years ago the telegraph, which to-day is not only a convenience, but an absolute necessity in our commercial and domestic existence, consisted of but that little twenty-two miles of wire stretched between Washington and the station at Annapolis Junction. To-day millions of miles of wire stretch over the lands, through mountains and under the seas of the globe. Can human thought conceive of the condition of the world at this day had that little line proved a failure, and the hope of utilizing electricity as an agent for the transmission of intelligence been abandoned?

STEPHEN VAIL.

NEW YORK.

RECENT CANADIAN VERSE

THE charge has been made against recent Canadian verse that it seldom voices national themes to any marked degree. But a nation's literature does not consist solely, nor even mainly, in the narration of historical events and the constant dwelling upon patriotic commonplaces. The noblest art is ever cosmopolitan, and it is a question whether the day of definedly national literatures has not passed, now that politico-geographical and even ethnic lines are being eliminated in the realm of intellect and culture. It is surely enough to ask of a poet that his imagination shall seize upon and ennoble the spirit of the life which conditions his own mode of existence. If his art adequately expresses his environment—social, ethical, and intellectual, as well as the æsthetically natural—and is in essential accord with what is best in his own soul-life, his poetry will be above the cavilling of an ultra-nationalism.

The pioneer name among the younger poets of Canada is that of Charles G. D. Roberts, born in New Brunswick in 1860. Engaged for some years in professional or journalistic duties, he is now devoting his time to independent literary production. His first collection of verse, "Orion and Other Poems" (1880), is as Hellenic in theme as the poetry of Landor, but his second volume, "In Divers Tones" (1886), emits a

stirring note of native northern force. The "Ode to Canada," which first appeared in the "Century Magazine," thrilled the hearts of his countrymen and attracted more than continental attention. "Tantamar Revisited," in the same volume, contains scenic verse inspired by an emotion finely imaginative. "Songs of the Common Day" (1893) comprises forty sonnets and about as many other poems. The quondam wooer of the Grecian Muse now essays to make "dull familiar things divine," and not a small measure of the spirit which prompted Wordsworth is apparent in such poems as "The Potato Harvest" and "The Sower." The latter sonnet has the realism of a picture by Millet, but its impressive simplicity lacks somewhat in imaginative touch. At the close of this third volume is appended "Ave! An Ode for the Centenary of Shelley's Birth," consisting of thirty-one stanzas. This, in a spirit akin to Shelley's own verse, affords a striking though not incongruous contrast to the remainder of the book. It is a fitting tribute—

"—to him whose birth,
One hundred years ago,
With fiery succor to the ranks of song,
Defied the ancient gates of wrath and wrong."

In "The Book of the Native" (1896) the element of human interest is strong in the seven "Ballads" composing the third sec-

tion of the volume. In the part entitled "Lyrics" several musical love-verses find a place amid the varied nature-songs, while in the first and title section of the book such poems as "An Epitaph for an Husbandman" treat of man in his kinship to nature.

"But the green growing things
Lean kindly to his sleep,—
White roots and wandering strings,
Closer they creep.

"Because he loved them long
And with them bore his part,
Tenderly now they throng
About his heart."

This volume voices a lyric spontaneity springing from a deeper feeling of the significance of beauty in nature than was evinced in previous work. No longer imitative of it, the poet nevertheless comes nearer his early Hellenic ideal than ever before, when he goes—

"Back to the bewildering vision
And the borderland of birth;
Back into the looming wonder,
The companionship of earth."

Roberts's recent success in the writing of history, both as a novelist and as a sober chronicler, justifies the hope that he may in verse, too, revive early Canadian days as he has in his Acadian romances, "The Forge in the Forest" and "A Sister to Evangeline."

Closely associated with Roberts in literary work and aims has been his college mate and cousin, Bliss Carman—his junior by one year. Before the publication of "Low Tide on Grand Pré" (1893) much of this writer's work had appeared in the "Century," the "Atlantic," and other periodicals. This book is one of verse descriptive of nature, but of nature seen in its varying, yet essential, relations to the moods and feelings of a soul whose subtle insight pierces the outer seeming. The opening and final stanzas of the title poem picture the weirdly suggestive beauty in the surroundings of the transient happiness upon which the poet muses. In his second volume, "Behind the Arras—a Book of the Unseen" (1896), the writer's vague unrest seems intensified. Subjective moods are presented with grotesquely human or strangely supernatural associations. They are shadows that flit through this "Book of the Unseen"—figures like those upon the Arras tapestry:

"Degraded shapes and splendid seraph forms,
And teeming swarms
Of creatures gauzy dim
That cloud the dusk."

The most weird of grim allegories, and comparable to a degree with "The Ancient Mariner," is "The Red Wolf"—one of the strongest poems in the collection. His verses in "Songs from Vagabondia" have the unconventional charm of a Bohemian outlawry somewhat characteristic of this poet.

"Ballads of Lost Haven: A Book of the Sea" (1897) contains Carman's most distinctive sea-poems. The fascination of ocean for him is not merely of color, motion, or vastness; something of its unrest and its mystery seems essential to his life—seldom do its calmer beauties appeal to him. It has for him the fateful unchanging spell that it possesses for those whose lives its despotism has from the cradle controlled.

"I was sired among the surges,
I was cubbed beside the foam,
All my heart is in the verges,
And the sea-wind is my home."

Only "a son of the sea" could have written the stanzas beginning:

"Oh, the shambling sea is a sexton old."

None other would dare such gruesome familiarity. The poems with local Canadian setting are few. Northern mythology, with its "strange unearthly creatures," provides the dream-stuff from which his fancy weaves tales of doom and eery phantom allegories. "The Master of the Isles," an allegory of life's ending, is typical in its grim energy and sombre imagination. Recognizing this poet's subtle insight, his picturesque employment of the weird and fantastic, his rugged northern strength, his music and verve of expression,—all qualities for which the London "Academy" declared him "in the front rank of lyrists,"—there remains the conviction that his art has as yet failed to achieve its full greatness. Shadowy and mystical, at times obscure, too, seldom with clear "poetic message," its compositions are formed of minor strains with a keynote too often of discontent and gloom. Its vague unrest finds expression in "Outbound."

"A lonely sail in the vast sea-room,
I have put out for the port of gloom.

Swept on in the wake of the stars, in a stream
Of a roaming tide from dream to dream."

Happily, in his most recent work Carman seems growingly conscious of the poet's most sacred office—to interpret the real in the light of the ideal.

- This alone is art's ambition, to arrest with form and hue
Dominant ungrasped ideals, known to credence, hid
from view,
In a mimic of creation,—to the life, yet fairer, too,—
- Where the soul may take her pleasure, contemplate
perfection's plan,
And returning bring the tidings of his heritage to
man,—
News of continents uncharted she has stood tiptoe to
scan.
- So she fires his gorgeous fancy with a cadence, with a
line,
Till the artist wakes within him, and the toiler grows
divine,
Shaping the rough world about him nearer to some fair
design."

These three stanzas alone, which are quoted from "A Winter Holiday,"—published in a recent number of the "Atlantic Monthly"—contain a *credo* that appears to warrant great expectations for Bliss Carman's future art.

William Wilfred Campbell was born in the province of Ontario in 1861 and spent his early days by the waters of the Georgian Bay, the "heart" of the lakes which have inspired so much of his song. He was educated at the University of Toronto and is at present in the Civil Service at Ottawa. His first collection, "Snowflakes and Sunbeams" (1888), was reprinted afterwards as part of "Lake Lyrics and Other Poems" (1889). Under the varied aspects of passing days and seasons, the changing moods of the great inland waters, with their wealth of story, appeal irresistibly to this poet.

"There where the jewels of nature
Are set in the light of God's smile,
Far from the world's wild throbbing
I will stay me and rest awhile."

It is not only when on an August evening—

"—silvery ripples lave
The sands and rustling reed-beds"

—that his imagination responds;

"In wild October, when the lake is booming
Its madness"—

—he listens to the songs from its depths, and expresses its grander music in harmonious verse. In two of the poems of this volume we are made aware of deeper passages in the poet's soul-life. In "Lazarus" is pictured the unrest of love's full compassion, which seeks the lowest depths to answer the anguished cry of Dives. "A Lyric of Love," in a sense, is a companion picture; to a soul long prisoned "in fetters of demon desires" has come the spirit of "a true love,"—

"O love, with the strength of thy love thou slewest my
woe.
Thou slewest my hate of God and the angels above,
And sprouted a germ that blossomed, O love, into
love."

In the opening and title verses of "The Dread Voyage and Other Poems" (1893), the pessimism which has found occasional utterance in earlier writings becomes a more dominant note. But let us do the poet this justice. If he inspires but little hope for the Beyond, he counsels no laxity of endeavor during "this Now." In "The Dreamers" his indignant denunciations are directed against those who loiter "on the middle ground" of actionless indifference to mankind. "Unsolved" is a strongly dramatic monologue suggestive of Browning; while "The Last Ride," with its fascination of a soul's woe, its vague and indefinite terrors, and its dream memories "of the haunted No More," might almost have come from the pen of Poe. In "The Mother," too, no mean degree is apparent of Poe's delicate skill in the treatment of a subject gruesome and in itself repellent. But tender pathos, somehow, is secured in this poem in the description of the longing of the buried mother for her living babe.

"It was April, blossoming spring,
They buried me when the birds did sing:

But under the sod, in the grave's dread gloom,
I dreamed of my baby in glimmer and gloom."

One of the finest of Campbell's nature-poems, both in emotional content and music of versification, is "Premonitions." Here his later pessimism is forgotten for the time; the comfort of our universal mother is his sufficient anodyne for discontent or woe. One cannot but wish that human life had appealed more grandly to this poet—as more glorious in its possibilities if not more joyous in its present realities. "Mordred and Hildebrand: A Book of Tragedies" (1895) contains two essays in the writing of drama in blank verse. The first is founded on the Arthurian legends as chronicled by Sir Thomas Malory; the latter upon the life and character of Pope Gregory VII, the history of whose struggle for papal supremacy and the enforcement of clerical celibacy involves a stress and conflict to which dramatic interpretation is well adapted. Diverging widely from Tennyson's treatment, the dispersion of Arthur's "table round" is represented in "Mordred" as an inevitable outcome of a sin

committed in the king's youth. The drama is upon the Greek model in so far as its main action is the working out in the life of an individual of a fateful Nemesis. This play seems less adapted for the stage than "Hildebrand," being characterized by a tense subjectivity akin to that of Browning's dramatic mode.

Descended from an old pioneer family, born in western Ontario (1861), and educated at Trinity University, Toronto, Archibald Lampman was essentially a product of Canadian soil and environment. In 1882 he became a clerk in the post office department at Ottawa; in 1887 he began contributing to the chief American magazines; and in 1888 there appeared "Among the Millet," a collection of about seventy-five poems. His second book, "Lyrics of Earth," was published in 1897, and was to have been followed by a third, entitled "Alcyone," early in the present year. On account of the poet's death in February this collection has not appeared, but in its place a complete edition of his works is soon to be issued under the editorship of Duncan Campbell Scott,* his close friend and fellow-poet.

If less versatile than Charles Roberts, Archibald Lampman's single strain reaches a higher excellence, and Mr. William D. Howells has done well in ranking him among the foremost of American singers. An intense love for nature is the inspiration of his verse,—an emotion not fervidly exuberant, yet joyous in its sympathetic contact with the beauties of earth, and expressing itself in music of clearest melody. Lampman has the faculty of treating scenes by a few effective strokes in such a way as to suggest the unity of outline and pervading tone in the more fully elaborated picture which is to follow. The effect upon the mind of the first four lines in "Heat" is not the seeing of any detailed picture, but the exciting of the imagination to call up a general image which has in it certain suggestions of background, color, and atmosphere. These secured, there follows the full description of the scenic panorama and the still summer music. All is in harmony with the original atmospheric tone.

*The proceeds from the sale of this volume will be for the benefit of the widow. It is to contain a portrait and memoir of the poet, and in addition to the three collections mentioned will include many other poems. Fuller information may be had from Mr. D. C. Scott, 108 Lisgar Street, Ottawa, Canada.

"From plains that reel to southward dim,
The road rides by me white and bare;
Up the steep hill it seems to swim
Beyond and melt into the glare."

The opening lines of "Snow" likewise serve the purpose of general suggestion. In "Freedom" the opening stanzas describe the strife and din of city streets; then follow in contrast lines containing the *motif* of the poem:

"Into the arms of our mother we come,
Our broad strong mother, the innocent earth;
Mother of all things, beautiful, blameless,
Mother of hopes that her strength makes tameless,
Where the voices of grief and of battle are dumb,
And the whole world laughs in the light of her mirth."

In the series of pictures that follows this introduction, the necessity of time-succession in description is no longer a limitation, but an element in the freedom of movement that characterizes its charm. Over meadows and fallows the poet takes us, past swamps and streams, hollows and swells, through woods, and—

"Up to the hills where the winds restore us."

"Lyrics of Earth" comprises a seasonal sequence of melodies descriptive of nature, in which the poet leaves, for the time,

"Men, her degenerate children, behind."

But while Lampman seldom essays the objective delineation of life and action, his work is not lacking in essential human interest. Three sonnets in his first volume—"Love-Doubt," "Perfect Love," and "Love-Wonder"—afford an interesting contrast to the treatment of the master-emotion by other Canadian poets. The heated passion of Roberts's "In Notre Dame," the weird infatuation in Carman's "Kelpie-Riders," the resistless might of Campbell's "Lyric of Love," have no counterpart in the deep but simple and unaffected feeling of these poems. In the expression of his finely contemplative spirit there is but little sign of inner stress or of reaction upon external conflict. The vague unrest of Carman's "Outbound," and the grim despair of Campbell's "Dread Voyage," are very far removed from the philosophic calm of Lampman's "Outlook"—perhaps his noblest sonnet. Similar in theme and in content of emotion is "The Largest Life," the poem which appeared in the "Atlantic Monthly" about the time of the poet's death. What could be more triumphantly fitting at such a time than these closing lines?—

"To greet with open hands the best and worst,
And only for another's wound to bleed;

This is to see the beauty that God meant,
 Wrapped round with life, ineffably content.

* There is a beauty at the goal of life,
 A beauty growing since the world began,
 Through every age and race, through lapse and strife,
 Till the great human soul complete her span.
 Beneath the waves of storm that lash and burn,
 The currents of blind passion that appall,
 To listen and keep watch till we discern
 The tide of sovereign truth that guides it all;
 So to address our spirits to the height,
 And so attune them to the valiant whole,
 That the great light be clearer for our light,
 And the great soul the stronger for our soul:
 To have done this is to have lived, though fame
 Remember us with no familiar name.*

The four writers already considered have been grouped usually as leaders of the younger school of Canadian poets. With them, and deserving of more extended notice than can now be given, may be classed Duncan Campbell Scott, Frederick George Scott, and possibly others. The former possesses the world-vision of beauty, and the clear lyric note adequate to its interpretation and expression. If a certain melancholy is at first apparent in his verse, it is counteracted by a fine resoluteness of spirit.

* Let your soul grow a thing apart,
 Untroubled by the restless day,
 Sublimed by some unconscious art,
 Controlled by some Divine delay.
 For life is greater than they think
 Who fret along its shallow bars.*

His latest volume, "Labor and the Angel" (1898), contains many beautiful lyrics; his "Winter Song" is one of four inscribed to the Seasons.

* Sing me a song of the dead world,
 Of the great forest deep and still,
 Of the sword of fire the wind hurled
 On the iron hill.

* Sing me a song of the driving snow,
 Of the reeling cloud and the smoky drift,
 Where the sheeted wraiths like ghosts go
 Through the gloomy rift.

* Sing me a song of the still nights,
 Of the large stars steady and high,
 The Aurora darting its phosphor lights
 In the purple sky.*

Frederick George Scott's recent volume, "The Unnamed Lake" (1897), contains more than one poem that is a distinct addition to contemporary verse. A more hopeful note is struck; a wider outlook that grasps something of God's eternal plan is granted to this singer.

* Though we see not the start or the finish, though
 blindly we call for the light,
 Let us mount in the glory of manhood, and meet
 the God-man face to face.*

Just such a voice was needed to sound with "clarion-breath" above the chorus

of discontent and incertitude in which our younger poets have sometimes joined.

Although of late years "Fidelis" (Agnes Maule Machar) has written but little, Canada is not without her women-poets. Pauline Johnson, a cultured writer of Indian descent, has published some praiseworthy work in her book, "The White Wampum." Recitals of Indian and frontier life, poems descriptive of nature, and, best of all, spirited river-songs, go to make up the volume. Ethelwyn Wetherald, who wrote "An Algonquin Maiden," a Canadian novel, in conjunction with the present Editor of SELF CULTURE, has written many nature-lyrics that will find more than a temporary place in American literature. Her book, "The House of the Trees," evinces a sympathy with humanity and nature.

* Thousands of childish ears, rough chidden,
 Never a sweet bird-note have heard,
 Deep in the leafy woodland hidden,
 Dies, unlistened to, many a bird.

Ah the pity!
 Opulent stretch the country skies
 Over solitudes, while in the city,
 Starving for beauty, are childish eyes.*

Jean Blewett, the authoress of "Heart Songs," among verse of varying merit, largely in dialect, has some simple gems that give glimpses of a poet-soul. "Seranus" (Mrs. S. F. Harrison), though her best work has been in prose, is a poetess of considerable merit.

Passing reference only can be made to dialect verse. "The Khan's Canticles" (1896), by R. H. Kernighan, have the vigor of Riley's work, with often a bold stroke reminiscent of Bret Harte's early rhymes. The distinctively Canadian verse in this class is that of Dr. William Henry Drummond, of Montreal, whose well-known collection, "The Habitant, and Other French-Canadian Poems," gives vivid portrayal of the life and dialect of the people of French Quebec who have but begun to attempt the English tongue. He has recently published a small illustrated volume containing two poems, "Phil-o-rum's Canoe" and "Madeleine Verchères," the latter being a historical tale in orthodox English. In his delightful French preface to "The Habitant" Louis Fréchette speaks of Drummond in terms applied to himself by Longfellow thirty-five years before—"The pathfinder of a new land of song." It is a high tribute from this French-speaking poet of Canada, who, while a British subject, is recognized in France as

one of her most brilliant sons. Among other traits of character admirably portrayed by Drummond is the habitant's love of home. "De Bell of St. Michel," for example, expresses the longing in the heart of an exile in a New England factory town.

"It's fonnny t'ing for me I'm sure, dat's travel ev'ry-
w'ere,
How moch I t'ink of long ago w'en I be leevin'
dere;
I can't 'splain dat at all, at all, mebbe it's naturel,
But I can't help it w'en I hear de bell of Saint
Michel."

Youngest of Canada's poets with respect to date of publication, though a senior in years, is Professor Theodore H. Rand of McMaster University, Toronto. For nearly a quarter of a century he was a leader in the equipment of the public educational system of Canada's maritime provinces. But the beauty and vigorous grace of the poetic prologue to his published volume, "At Minas Basin" (2d edition, 1898), are the expression of another nature than that merely of the man of affairs. Beauty of form, but sensate with a soul-message,—such is the high ideal the poet prefigures for his work. The majority of his sonnets and many of his other poems make explicit reference to the charms of that Acadian land which has inspired so much of the song of Roberts and Carman. The heights of frowning Blomidon, the vales of picturesque Gaspereau, the quaint old-world village of Grand Pré, the "tireless sea" and the meadows of diked Tantramar, seldom, if ever, have been observed by a spirit more in sympathy with their varying phases of beauty. The externals of color and form are not enough for this poet; some deeply emotive or subtle spiritual insight is their almost constant accompaniment. But there is no lack of æsthetic charm, even though some moral truth be embodied. A large contentment is the outcome of nature's message to him.

"The tameless tides unresting seethe;
I rest me, for He works beneath;
Peace! Peace! the toiling waters breathe."

A poem more beautiful than "The Dragon-fly," in its interpretation of nature and its lofty message of immortality, would be indeed a notable production. Edmund Clarence Stedman has spoken of Rand as "a congener of Emerson and of Arnold too." His suggestive rather than

elaborative treatment of metaphors, particularly in his more philosophic poems, may prove a cause of stumbling to appreciative readers of his simpler lays. The moral vigor, the reliant hope, and the deep religious sense, characteristic of what is best in Canadian life, are embodied in Rand's poetry as in the verse of no other writer. That the "body of beauty" is any the less art because of this "soul of truth," few would care to contend.

Now that Lampman has passed away, his place in the group of younger writers will, in a sense, be taken by Duncan Campbell Scott. No one of the four—Scott, Campbell, Carman, or Roberts—has passed his fortieth year, so that greater achievements may be expected from each as he attains to the maturity of his powers and the perfection of his peculiar art. Scott's lyric note is the outcome of a soul contemplative of life and beauty and in sympathetic accord with the music of nature. The tendency of Campbell's imagination, while responding to the beauties of landscape, lake, or sky, is to brood upon the sombre aspects of life. The nervous, exhilarant verse of Carman, whether it picture life or nature, is restless ever as his own spirit. Roberts's later nature-lyrics are like the melodies of Pan in their *abandon* to the immediate influences of earth. In energy and freshness of thought, impatience of undue restraint, and sensitive soul-response to the influences of a land of beauty, these four of Canada's younger singers are worthy to represent her in the great dominion of letters. By their devotion to art, and by the spontaneity and felicity of their poetic expression, they have already won high recognition upon both sides of the sea. That which is highest in the work of these and of other Canadian poets is made easy of access in the "Treasury of Canadian Verse" compiled by Dr. Rand. If, in charm of versification and wealth of descriptive imagery, its editor's own verse fall short of what is best in some of theirs, he surely surpasses his younger brothers in earnestness and in content of the poet's message, and in the adequate expression of a definite ethical phase of national character.

STAMBURY R. TARR, M.A.

WOODSTOCK COLLEGE,
ONTARIO.

BRAIN AND BRAWN

SCIENCE has been reading us some marvellous tales from Nature's wonder-book these recent years, compared to which the creations of human invention are as children's idle fancies. Upon the everlasting rocks has been engraved the story of our planet's life in bygone ages, and by deciphering it we hope to solve the riddle of Man's origin, evolution, and destiny. The equation of existence resolves itself into three factors, — brute force, intelligence, and environment, which have varied in their values, but with a constant tendency to intelligent dominion. To-day the work and warfare of Man is done by the instruments of his brain, and brawn finds only menial occupation. The spectacle of a Roman rustic winning the imperial purple by his tremendous prowess, which delighted in contests with wild beasts, belongs to an epoch the direct antithesis of our own. It is the proper balance in life of these two forces, brain and brawn, that gives to the individual his largest usefulness and happiness, while to the race is added the increment of stability which makes for its preservation. The consideration of these forces in the evolution of society, and their direct relations to our moral and material warfare, is one of the many interesting phases of sociology.

Beginning with the great fundamental truth of evolution, that the work of Nature has been progressively developing higher types with more complex functions, requiring higher intelligence for their exercise, we observe the gradual elimination of brute force from the dominion of existence with the advance of intelligence. Progress, which has left its records in the animal and plant life of various orders in ages past, can be explained on no other ground than the growth of intelligence at the expense of brute force in response to environment. In human life the evidence of this is near at hand. Civilization is a recent event in Man's life upon the planet. It takes but a comparatively few lifetimes in continuous extension to bring us to the dawn of History, where primitive Man was but little advanced beyond his neighbors of the brute creation. The wild Aryan race about the shores of the Mediterranean, and out of which the races and dominant civilization of the

world has been evolved, were a race of savages who in their mode of existence were quite like other savage tribes in the world to-day. In many parts of the earth yet, Man is nearer the higher apes in his intellectual development than he is to the average Caucasian, and the history of civilization is the history of newer and higher types of man being evolved from simpler orders. Nor has this process of evolution been as active and as far reaching as at the present moment, when new types are being rapidly produced in North and South America, Australia, and in the far East, where the vitality of the Slavic race promises to expend itself upon the Mongolian for the uplifting of the latter. In Africa the type of man which will ultimately dominate the continent is a matter of uncertain ethnological speculation; but to doubt that the infusion of the Anglo-Saxon and northern races into the native stock will result in higher type and vitality would be to doubt the wisdom of Nature's cosmic processes. It is quite apparent that we are in the midst of a wonderful evolutionary process in human life, whose purpose and ultimate end are entirely beyond our reckoning.

In all the movements of the human mass by which new types have been evolved, the intellectual advance has been at the expense of brawn. History records how, in the second and third centuries, when the opulence and luxury of Roman life reached its height, the state became defenceless and the patrician order was threatened with extinction by the decay of the nation's brawn, which had once led the legions and perpetuated the patrician families. Society, like the individual, as its needs become more complex and of a higher order, loses much of the inherent force which it possessed in a simpler state. It possesses less endurance and capacity for the severe exactions of large affairs, and thus it happens that men possessing the great force necessary for leadership develop in the simple life of the farms or small communities, and not at the populous centres. We must still concede that a large portion of life's battle is waged by brute force, and, while the sword and battle-axe are largely laid aside, the element of strength in everyday affairs is omnipotent. The man who

can labor constantly, unhesitating and un-resting, will win against almost any obstacles, by virtue of strength alone, in the battle of life.

Shakespeare has well depicted the contrast between the lofty, philosophic, and refined Hamlet, and the brutal, usurping, and murderous element of force which outrages propriety and justice in life almost to the verge of madness, but is eventually crushed by the higher order. This contrast is even more beautifully drawn in "The Tempest," where the rightful Duke of Milan, cultured and humane, is cast upon a desert island, and, by the resources of his intellect, creates about him a little world of perfect happiness, with dominion over good and evil, and even over the elements themselves. Did not the poet intend to convey the truth of mind's dominion over matter, brain over brawn, as well as the immediate operations of the moral virtues in the beautiful allegory? Beautiful indeed is the mystical belief of the Hindoo, that the human mind, unshackled from its material environment, is omnipotent. If from his lowly origin, whence science traces him, Man shall attain that spiritual development whereof the Hindoo dreams, then will the concept of evolution tax the human imagination in its magnitude. How infinitely wonderful and past all ultimate understanding is the work of a beneficent Creator who evolves these results by natural laws, placing Man in harmony with the world about him, protected, advanced, and developed by the laws governing and operating in all life upon the earth. Contemplating his origin and progress in this light, how much more wonderful and beautiful becomes the order of his being as contrasted with the inventions of human fancy to explain his existence and destiny.

To the high priest of science the whole earth is the Garden of Eden, and every inch of its soil and water are eloquent of the omnipotent wisdom which has ordered all things in harmony beyond understanding. Evolution, by enlarging man's knowledge of his relations, is destined to shed upon his life a flood of spiritual light as no other concept has yet done; for the logical resolution of the problems of matter, motion, space, time, and life lead us to a vitalizing source in the Infinite and Unknown, a part of which we are, working out a purpose by evolution in the

order of creation, unknowable and unknown.

Such is the spectacle of human progress; from a few yesterdays in history, when, clothed in skins, with implements of stone, Man gained the necessities of existence, until to-day, when by the exercise of his brain he has wrested from the hand of Jove his thunderbolts, and made them the invisible centaurs of his chariots, the witchery of Man's brain, like the music of Pan, is drawing in its train all the powers of the earth, air, and sea. This process, by which life advances to higher intelligence and toward that spiritual life which we think is our ultimate goal, eliminates the depraved and inferior orders to which Man is no exception. The wild tribes of earth will vanish before dynamite and machine guns; for it is brain against brawn, and brain will survive, as in all the ages. In society the brutal, criminal, and depraved will not flourish against the intelligent, the moral, and the cultured. Nature, in all her work, advances by intelligence over brute force; and when the animal instinct for supremacy and existence began to subserve the higher faculties for the acquisition of knowledge, the development of the religious instinct, and the cultivation of the arts, then the brain of Man began the conquest of Nature, and the human spirit unfolded rapidly.

The practical application of the foregoing to our everyday life is far more important than is generally realized, and only the student of aggregate results can grasp their meaning. In the development of the Western Hemisphere the genius of the Anglo-Saxon has found its greatest expansion. Great cities, great wealth, and an uncrystallized society, varying with the growth of the country,—all these have combined to stimulate exertion and ambition to the highest degree. As the result of this great draft upon the nation's brain—for these achievements are solely the creation of brain—we have about us insanity, neurasthenia, the degenerative diseases, and malignant growths increased beyond precedent. Institutions for the care of these diseases have sprung up like a crop of mushrooms almost in a night, and the reason for their existence must be found in the conditions of our social life.

As we have grown wiser, we have grown weaker; as luxury, education, and indulgence have advanced, it has been at the

expense of brawn: and while we dazzle other nationalities by our enterprise, versatility, inventiveness, and adaptability, we are doing it at the expense of our national vitality. Our children are literally hurried through our high schools and colleges into the professions and social life, where we find them burnt out and *blasé* just as the brunt of the conflict is falling on them, and when the foundation and backing of brawn is so absolutely essential to support this vital drain. One has only to go to Oxford and look over the men that England has in training there for her affairs all over the globe, and the methods of their life and education, easily to understand why the sun never sets on her dominions. It is because the man is symmetrically developed in brawn and brain that he possesses the endurance for anything that may be required of him.

A leading medical journal of London not long ago offered a hundred pounds to any family that had lived in the city continuously for three generations, and it has never been taken. Vitality is exhausted and perpetuity fails where the demands upon the brain are so large as we make them in our complex social order. The collateral demands of high domestic and social life are often greater than those of a business or profession, but when both are united the brain often reels and staggers under its load prematurely. The few who successfully carry such obligations are men of large physical endurance, generally endowed with brawn which has not been impaired by fictitious modes of life, whose habits are regular and whose tastes are simple. Little wonder that those who emulate their example with less brawn fall under the blight of degenerative or digestive disorders, Bright's disease, nervous exhaustion, or apoplexy, just when they should normally be entering on the enjoyment of full maturity of their powers.

The men whose lives have been epoch-making, with great responsibilities and achievements, display that proper balance of brain and brawn which is so essential. In our own century, Washington, Lincoln, Bismarck, Gladstone, Napoleon, Wellington, Von Moltke, and Grant were all men of simple yet rugged lives, prepared for great undertakings by an education that inures men to hardships and to persistent labor.

Washington was the best wrestler and frontiersman of northern Virginia, and though he was born and reared an aristocrat it was the brain and brawn trained in endurance and danger that wrought victory out of the defeat, treachery, and exhaustion of a seven years' war.

Lincoln was so powerful that, taking an axe by the helve with his thumb and first finger, he could extend it at arm's length. There is not a man in the Central States to-day who can perform this feat. This was the Tubal Cain of state who reformed the nation's links in the furnace of war; the mightiest character ever produced on American soil, the harmonious and reciprocal support of whose brain and brawn bore, Atlas-like, the destinies of a continent.

Gladstone probably worked harder than any man of his time. No life was ever so conspicuously devoted to labor from a high sense of obligation to his country and to the best he was capable of in himself. Yet this was only possible by the proper development and exercise of physical as well as mental powers in the fields and forests, where cares of state were forgotten in hardy toil and sound sleep.

Bismarck was the most powerful swordsman and wrestler of the German universities, and, had he lived in the time of the Crusades, would doubtless have been another Cœur de Lion in his prowess. It was this physical vigor which steadied the head and hand in the game of statecraft when kings and princes were pawns and only a man of blood and iron could direct armies as chessmen.

Napoleon possessed that wonderful mental and physical equilibrium which dismissed the fortunes of war when sleep was necessary. At the battle of Bautzen he gave his final orders for the engagement, and, with the roar of cannon for his lullaby, lay down to peaceful slumber, in which he found perfect renewal.

The great military and executive men of history have possessed that symmetry of brain and brawn which sustains disaster and success with equal poise. Charles the Twelfth of Sweden, whose career can only be likened to Alexander of Macedon, could endure more hardship than any man in his army. Charlemagne was great in both brawn and brain, nor was anyone after him worthy to wear the spurs of gold or the iron crown of the emperor who for a brief period restored

the Roman Empire with a capital at Constantinople. The lance of Attila the Hun, in the museum of Vienna, would be a load for an ordinary man, to say nothing of wielding it for defence. It eloquently attests the mighty brawn of him whose prowess plunged Europe into the darkness of the Middle Ages and caused him to be known to history as "the Scourge of God."

Who has not read the beautiful legend of King Arthur's sword "Excalibur," rising from the waters of the lake by divine command. Whatever its origin in fact or fable, the sword preserved among the crown jewels in the Tower of London as that of King Arthur would be of little more use to an ordinary swordsman than a crowbar, so massive is it. The brain which made his court renowned, and the brawn which wielded Excalibur, have not lost their might in a thousand years. History can multiply indefinitely the characters that, harmoniously uniting in a large degree physical and mental force, have towered above the human mass for its guidance and government.

It is when we examine the lives of the mental toilers in art, literature, or philosophy that the subtleness of the relation is seen in a more striking light. Many of these men, in the intensity of their lives, burned out the candle in half its allotted time. Byron, Burns, Schubert, Chopin, Mozart, Millet, and a host of lesser lights, reached the pinnacle of Fame early, where exhaustion of the vital forces is rapid. Nature, in her methods of educating genius in these fields, heaps upon her chosen child adversity and calamity beyond human endurance, for only through suffering is the soul of man aroused to its greatest possibilities.

The quality of men's brawn is reflected in their intellectual life. Martin Luther was heroic in his strength, while Milton is sublimely beautiful in his submission to the greatest of all physical infirmities. Rousseau, Voltaire, Carlyle, and Johnson were lifetime sufferers, to a greater or less degree, from chronic disorders, and, like a multitude of writers, their work was affected by their sufferings. The wild and weird Hungarian music of Liszt has in it the fire and fury of the Magyar race, which came into Europe by the sword. What a marvellous store of greatness has come from the rugged Scotch hills, where brawny and brainy men have been educated

by conditions requiring persistence and endurance, and how they have illuminated the path of progress like beacon lights on the jutting headlands of human thought. The little kingdom of Holland, dug out of the sea, developed a quality of brawn and brain that has been almost dominant in the modern world. Its commerce and art, its political and religious struggles for freedom, have no parallel among the other nations.

It is therefore when Nature places obstacles about him, that Man develops a quality of brain and brawn that will ensure his survival. In those lands where life is sustained without toil by Nature's spontaneity, the highest quality of culture and endurance cannot be attained. The Caucasian to-day surpasses all races in his endurance, in his adaptability to new conditions, and in his mental vigor.

In these days, when the rapid concentration of population is robbing the human mass of its brawn, confining it in narrow streets and darkened rooms, where physical development is impossible, and drawing constantly upon the brain capacity for existence more urgently, it is little wonder that the state is becoming seriously burdened with the physically, mentally, and morally degenerate. If the purpose of Nature in evolution is to educe a constantly higher type of man intellectually, we know that in her wisdom she would supplement such an achievement with a physique correspondingly enduring. It would therefore seem that we have more need to-day to care for our physical development than ever before. The growth of luxury and wealth, and the increasing demand in all lines of work for long mental preparation which begins early,—all has a tendency to exhaust the physical forces. If we add to these the atmosphere of social discontent which prevails in our cities, where the consuming desire for wealth, success, and recognition is almost an insanity, and in which the child unconsciously shares, we can see little hope for the production of symmetrical men of brain and brawn in such a soil. It is almost a rule that great intellects arise in obscurity, and, as we scan the fields of literature, art, and science, we observe how closely to Nature these great minds lived and worked. Shakespeare, Goethe, Beethoven, Wordsworth,—all were in sympathetic communion with the source of all that is best

and beautiful in life. Huxley every year sought the solitude of the Alps for companionship with Nature, while Darwin lived exclusively in the fields.

There is a symmetry in life which we have not yet learned, but which we must learn if we would conserve our national vitality and gain the measure of contentment and success which makes life worth living. This is found in the healthy development of body as well as mind, by which healthy ambition finds its exercise, and the work and purpose of life are fully accomplished.

The physiological life of Man is six score

years, and rarely is it attained or surpassed. For the bulk of humanity three score and ten still remains the limit, and this is quite enough for the brainy and brawny man who has profitably occupied his time. When the serious obligations of a useful life are considered, and the comparatively little that the average individual accomplishes, it would seem that it was the highest development of all that is best in human life by the exercise of brain and brawn that was implied in the injunction of the Psalmist: "So teach us to number our days that we may apply our hearts unto wisdom."

MINOR MORRIS, M.D.

JOHN MUIR, THE AGASSIZ OF THE PACIFIC SLOPE

HUMAN history, its determining epochs and the master-spirits which embody its demands and direct its forces, bears, in numerous instances, a striking resemblance to the great rivers, with their humble origin and their wide domains as they approach the sea. Tracing back race history, events, and great personages to their origin, we find that they appear to collect in all obscurity on the highlands and in out-of-the-way corners of the earth, to gather volume and body from a thousand unknown rivulets. The determination on the part of nature to conceal the beginnings of signal events and personages is but the wise instinct personified in the mother-bird who carefully selects the most inconspicuous spot obtainable for the hatching-place of her coming brood. She avoids the direct sunshine and the open breeze, well knowing, however, that those she now so carefully shelters from it will some day court both.

Speaking generally, it can be said that human history, like rivers, reaches its climax and destination at the meeting-place of ocean and shore line. Given a great river,—a noble harbor and a wide reaching ocean beating against its bar right towards this conjunction,—one may rest assured that destiny will focalize events, which is but another term for the appearance of the full-fledged individualities which create history.

Standing at the "Golden Gate," watching the departure of our troops for the Philippine Islands, gave emphasis to these reflections. When the tea chests

were thrown overboard in the historic harbor at the other side of the continent, the mission of the "Charleston" and the "Peking" was not contemplated, but it has been hatching ever since. The history of this part of our domain, which many "stay-at-homes" on the east side of the Missouri deem half-closed, has barely opened, and was never more pregnant with events than now. What Constantinople, Genoa, Alexandria, Smyrna, Carthage, Athens, and other cities have been and are to the Mediterranean, San Francisco will prove to be to the Pacific. Among other attributes in common with the cities named, it has the very potential of having collected within its environs representatives of every nation, who are adding something to the world's progress and welfare. As the human rivulets became mighty rivers and learned to harmonize the divers currents and appreciate the worth of each genuine ingredient, out of the very vortex and because of it came the commerce, art, literature, and sciences of the past. Each department was that much richer and more diversified because the great city had become the hatching-place for a thousand obscure mother-birds whom fate had brought there from strange and unknown places.

San Francisco holds all the elements in solution that give the requisite setting to great and epoch-making individuals, and we shall not look for them in vain. The influence of the Sierra Nevada scenery upon the first cultivated American man who saw it appeared at once in Fremont's reports. In another way, and in an even

more universal language, came Bierstadt's "Heart of the Sierras." The Rev. Starr King, of San Francisco, caught perhaps the first deeply human aspect of the Sierras. No one can read his sermons and lectures of the *ante bellum* days and not realize that his patriotic fervor had



JOHN MUIR, DISCOVERER OF "THE MUIR GLACIER"

been dyed and his thoughts winged by the inspiration drawn from the Sierras. But as yet only the major key of the mighty Sierra Nevadas (God's best and greatest dower to his beloved Columbia) had been touched, and, as we all know, the heart of the race is not easily attuned to the visions of mere grandeur; it asks unconsciously for a fellow-interpreter, yet not any farther away than it can at any time reach and find the hand of its guide; then it follows even to unknown heights. Such a guide, philosopher, and friend, taking one direct to the innermost sanctuary of the Sierras, is John Muir, of Martinez, San Francisco Bay, California.

As Hans Christian Andersen sat down at the foot of the great mountain descended through the ages comprising the fairy-

tales and legends of the race, and soon felt it thrill with life and beauty, its innermost recesses were opened to him; the fairies came, adopted and carried him away, making him their very own; and when he descended once more into the valley of men, it was to rain visions and blessings upon them in veritable showers of purest gold.

Similarly, the subject of this sketch, the American explorer and naturalist of the Pacific coast, upon discovering the Sierras, became as "a little child" and entered their solitude, as it were, with uncovered head. Sincere lover, with an undivided heart, the keys to the innermost sanctuaries of these temples of the Lord were given to him, and right nobly has he used this intimacy. From Shasta to the San Jacinto extend 700 miles of the Creator's omnipotence expressed in grandeur and sublimity nowhere surpassed; but over and through it all Mr. Muir has fused the human elements, so that one almost hears the throb of his heart from the centre of the mountains.

John Muir is an Agassiz, a Thoreau, a John Burroughs, with something of Henry Drummond all commingled; yet it must be remembered that it required the setting of the Sierras to bring out just such a genius, for the light he sheds over "sea and land" in the Golden State is one that never before was there. No one can speak for John Muir, however, although books could be written about him. The most judicious thing to be done is to allow John Muir, for the time, to take possession of these pages and allow him to speak for himself. Fortunately, he is the most "quotable" of all living authors. It was in the latter part of the 'seventies that the writer first became aware that a new and fresh voice had entered the arena in which nature and science were under discussion. The crudest and therefore the most vociferous misinterpreters of Darwinism, Tyn-dalism, and Huxleyism were rampant—the clerical defenders of the "Faith of our Fathers" were as misleading in their well-meant answers as the incipient students but would-be masters of departments of science then and still in process of evolu-

tion, while from an unexpected quarter, and above the battle of mere "words, words," came a "still small voice" which all that had ears instantly recognized as authoritative. It proclaimed no mandate, it did not seek to startle, it spoke in simple words coined at the hearthstone, yet it was the language of a master.

"A Windstorm in the Yuba Forests," in "Scribner's Monthly," was among the first of Muir's utterances that served to convert the writer into a permanent devotee, and, if, by quoting a portion of it, we shall add a few more students to the Muir writings, it will be in itself ample compensation.

In order to obtain from an original source (and all of his utterances are obtained in this manner) a perfect idea of the velocity and character of a great windstorm in the California forests, Muir went up into the midst of one, when others would have sought safety and shelter at the nearest house. Not only that, but in order to be sure that he was right in the very heart of the storm, he selected a tall, slender sequoia, climbed into its branches, and there permitted himself to be swayed backward and forward, following the motions of the tree, yet observing most intently and accurately the imposing scene before him.

Concluding his description, Mr. Muir observes:

"When the storm began to abate I dismounted and sauntered through the calming woods. The storm tones died away, and, hurrying towards the east, I beheld the countless hosts of the forest hushed and tranquil, towering above one another on the slopes of the hills like a devout audience. The setting sun filled them with amber light, and seemed to say while they listened, 'My peace I give unto you.' As I gazed on the impressive scene all the so-called ruin of the storm was forgotten. Never before did these noble woods appear so fresh, so joyous, so immortal. . . .

"Winds advertise all they touch, telling their wanderings by their scent alone. As an illustration, I breathed the sea air on the 'Frith of Forth' when a boy, and was then taken inland in the United States for nineteen years. After that I walked quietly and alone, botanizing, from the middle of the Mississippi valley to Florida. Suddenly I recognized sea air among the palmettos, which at once awakened and set free a thousand dormant associations and made me a boy in Scotland again, as if all the intervening years were annihilated."

The following is a picture from the

same source of the mountain streams of the Sierra Nevadas:

"After tracing the Sierra streams from their fountains to the plains, marking where they rush over falls in white crystal plumes, or surge, gray and foam-filled, in boulder-choked gorges, or anon slip through the woods in long tranquil reaches,—after thus learning their language and form in detail, we may at length hear them chanting together in one grand anthem and comprehend them all in a clear inner vision, covering the range like lace."

Referring to the office and mission of the storm clouds, as observed on the crest of Mount Shasta, the giant of the Sierra Nevadas, Mr. Muir writes as follows in "Harper's Monthly" for 1878:

"Storm clouds on the mountains—how truly beautiful they are! Floating fountains, bearing water for every well; the angels of streams and lakes; brooding in the deep pure azure, or sweeping along the ground through forests, over gardens and groves, lingering with cooling shadows and soothing rugged rock-brows, with a gentleness of touch and gesture no human can equal."

In the summer of 1897 Mr. Muir was a member of the United States Forest Commission, whose duty it was to report on the various forest-reserves in the western part of the United States, and to advise the government what further measures were necessary to complete the important task inaugurated under that commission. Mr. Muir himself may be said to be the most conspicuous of the promoters of this wise measure, as he certainly is its most intelligent exponent. In the course of the wanderings of this commission its members visited the Yellowstone Park, and, as one might expect, we are at once supplied with a new vision of that wonderland. In the "Atlantic Monthly" for April, 1898, a fascinating account of his observations in the park will be found, from which we quote the following:

"How admirable it is that, after passing through so many vicissitudes of frost, fire, and flood, the physiognomy and even the complexion of the landscapes should still be so divinely fine. Reviewing the eventful past, we see nature working with enthusiasm like a man, blowing her volcanic forges as a blacksmith blows his smithy fire, shoving glaciers over the landscape as a carpenter shoves his plane, clearing, ploughing, harrowing, irrigating, planting, and sowing broadcast like the farmer or the gardener—doing rough work and fine work—planting sequoias and pines, rose-bushes and daisies; working in gems, filling every crack

and hollow with them, distilling fine essences, painting plants and shells, clouds and mountains, the earth and the heavens, like an artist—ever working higher and higher toward beauty. Where may the mind find a more stimulating pasturage? A thousand Yellowstone wonders are looking up and down and round about you. A multitude of still, small voices may be heard directing you to look through all this transient shifting show of things, called substantial, into the truly substantial spiritual world, whose forms of flesh and wood, rock and water, air and sunshine, only veil and conceal, and teach us that here is a heaven and the dwelling-place of angels. The sun is setting, long violet shadows are growing out over the woods from the mountains along the western rim of the park. The Absaroka range is baptized in the divine light of the Alpen-glow, and its rocks and trees are transfigured. Next to the light of the dawn on high mountain tops, the Alpen-glow is the most impressive of all the terrestrial manifestations of God."

It is to be hoped that some capable editor will soon compile a selection of Mr. Muir's writings, and, in coöperation with a competent publisher, make an effort to secure their popular introduction on the widest scale. The feverish, overstrained era of which we are all a part needs just such a spirit as his. He is not a preacher and does not moralize, but he shames mere worldly wisdom out of countenance; his sweetness and spiritual insight admonish mere intellectual conceit, as the sacred stillness of a Quaker meeting makes a mere noisy exhorter ridiculous. He demonstrates without argument that the open-visioned soul, pure and teachable as that of a child, can extract from nature her profoundest secrets, and that it behoves mere fashion to enter the woods and ascend mountains with more reverence than to pass into costly city church pews. It is no surprise to us that Emerson, when in the Yosemite Valley, secured Mr. Muir for his guide and teacher. El Capitan is Mr. Muir's pulpit, and that unmatched cathedral of the Sierras, the Yosemite Valley, is his very own, he being its chief oracle and exponent. This is not mere theory, as will be seen from the following extract from "The Century Magazine":

"It was to one of his papers describing the wonderful country in the neighborhood of Yosemite, and setting forth the desirability of reserving these environs for public use, that was primarily due the establishment, in October, 1890, of the great Yosemite National Park, embracing a territory almost as large as the

State of Rhode Island. Mr. Muir's article on the King's River Cañon, entitled 'A Rival of the Yosemite,' contained a similar suggestion, which led to the important series of forest reservations made by President Harrison and Secretary Noble in 1892-93, one of which includes the territory specifically proposed. It is not surprising that such a lover of the Yosemite was also among the first to make energetic protest against the uninstructed meddling with the native wild beauty of the valley, and to show the need of greater skill and care in the management of its affairs."

Mr. Muir passed ten years in the upper Sierras practically without meeting there a single fellow-being, excepting upon one occasion, when he encountered some stray Indians; but to offset this seeming isolation he established the closest intimacy with bird and beast, all of whom appear to have recognized in him an old-time friend. The writer has forgotten in what particular journal, some six or eight years ago, he read a description of his little camp high up in the Sierras. In that article Mr. Muir relates how a deer, coming near his camp, clearly indicated by its actions that a man was an entirely new species in its mountain home. After assuring itself that this curious-looking newcomer was perfectly harmless, it scampered away, only to return with two more; then signalled to others, and shortly a small herd was giving object lessons in the daintiest wood-nymph graces before an audience of one; but they evidently felt certain that he was a select one, for the description given of this interesting event would enable any painter to portray them all on a lifelike canvas. He is perhaps at his very best in disclosing his intuitive perceptions of bird-life and their sphere as the orchestra of the Sierra Nevada temples. Limitation of space forbids any extract on this topic save one of his many delightful reminiscences of the mountain-ouzel or water-thrush.

"He is a singularly joyous and lovable little fellow, about the size of a robin, clad in a plain waterproof suit of bluish gray, with a tinge of chocolate on the head and shoulders. In form he is about as smoothly plump and compact as a pebble that has been whirled in a pot hole, the flowing contour of his body being interrupted only by his strong feet and bill, the crisp wing-tips, and the up-slanted, wrenlike tail. . . . No cañon is too cold for this little bird, none too lonely, provided it be rich in falling water. Find a fall, cascade, or rushing rapid anywhere upon a clear stream, and there you will surely find its complementary ouzel,

fitting about in the spray, diving in foaming eddies, whirling like a leaf among beaten foam-bells, ever vigorous and enthusiastic, yet self-contained, and neither seeking nor shunning your company. . . . Even so far north as icy Alaska I have found my glad singer. When I was exploring the glaciers between Mount Fairweather and the Stikeen River, one cold day in November, after trying in vain to force a way through the innumerable icebergs of Sum Dum Bay to the great glaciers at the head of it, I was weary and baffled and sat resting in my canoe, convinced at last that I would have to leave this part of my work for another year. Then I began to plan my escape to open water before the young ice which was beginning to form should shut me in. While I thus lingered, drifting with the bergs, in the midst of these gloomy forebodings and all the terrible glacial desolation and grandeur, I suddenly heard the well-known whirr of an ouzel's wings, and, looking up, saw my little comforter coming straight across the ice from the shore. In a second or two he was with me, flying three times round my head with a happy salute, as if saying, 'Cheer up, old friend; you see I'm here, and all's well.' Then he flew back to the shore, alighted on the topmost jag of a stranded iceberg, and began to nod and bow as though he were on one of his favorite boulders in the midst of a sunny Sierra cascade."

Mr. Muir, as has been said, belongs to a class of men whom it is futile either to add to or to try to define by a mere title. If we have ventured to call him "the Agassiz of the Pacific slope," it is because that great master preferred the simple prefix of a "student of nature." And as Agassiz doubtless was at his death the preëminent authority of the glacial epoch as regards the Mississippi Valley and the Atlantic slope in general, so unquestionably John Muir sustains the same relation to-day to the more intricate and perplexing glacial problem of the Pacific slope.

Mr. Muir believes that, for instance, the noble sculpture gallery presented in the vast *ensemble* of mingled majesty and grandeur known to the world as the Yosemite Valley, constitutes the everlasting monument of the glacial epoch of the Sierras, carved by the Invisible Sculptor, the chisel wielded being that of moving glaciers. "I am off for Norway to prove it," said the indefatigable student, as we met during the World's Fair year in Chicago. He returned from that last stronghold of glacial Europe more convinced than ever that the lesson he had learned in the high Sierras and elsewhere on the Pacific was more than borne out by the corresponding testimony of the rocks as

he read them in the "Land of the Midnight Sun." Bearing all this in mind, one is prepared to appreciate our hero's delight in obtaining at first hand one of the grandest object-lessons in actual glacial action on a splendid scale in the North-American portion of the "Land of the Midnight Sun."

Mr. Muir, in one of his references to Alaska, designates it as a "continent yet in the making." The term is significant, since to get as near as possible to the Creator's own methods is the paramount desire of all great investigators. And as Alaska, more than any other portion of the Pacific slope, has afforded Mr. Muir just that opportunity so far as glacial phenomena is concerned, his researches there in that department of science have undoubtedly yielded him many of his most cherished results.

It was at the end of October, 1879, after a long sojourn in Alaska, and when he had practically made ready to return home, that the remark of an Indian guide led him to prolong his stay, and enabled him to make the detour on which he discovered the now world-famous "Muir Glacier." In making the attempt, at that season of the year, he found full scope for that inherent capacity for overcoming natural and all other unexpected obstacles to investigation which has enabled him to pass years in the solitude of the Sierras. After he was practically within reach of his object, the Indians in charge of his boat determined to turn back, and only the most skilful diplomacy, coupled with firmness, enabled him to make the trip one of the great epochs in his remarkable career as an explorer of the Pacific slope.

For the full story of this remarkable exploit we must refer our readers to "The Century Magazine" for the year 1895. In reading the following description of the effect of the sunlight on the glaciers and the vast ranges of snowy mountains behind them, the reader will bear in mind that he is reading the utterances of a man who had been drenched with rains, chilled by icy blasts, and who, in making his discovery and in climbing the summits here referred to, actually took his life in his hands.

"About daylight," he says, "we crossed the fjord and landed on the south side of the island that divides the front walls of the Pacific glaciers. . . . Leaving the Indians in charge of the canoe, I climbed the island and gazed a

good general view of the glacier; at one favorable place I descended about fifty feet below the side of the glacier, where its denuding and fashioning action was clearly shown. Pushing back from here I found the surface crevassed in sunken steps like the Hugh Miller Glacier, as if it were being undermined by the action of the tide-waters; for a distance of fifteen or twenty miles the riverlike ice-flood is nearly level, and when it recedes the ocean water follows it, and thus forms a long extension of the fjord, with features essentially the same as those now extending into the continent farther south, where many great glaciers once poured into the sea, though scarce a vestige of them now exists. Thus the domain of the sea has been and is being extended in these sculptured lands, and the scenery of the shores is enriched. The dividing island is about 1,000 feet high, and is hard beset by the glaciers which still crush heavily against and around it. A short time ago its summit was at least 2,000 feet below the surface of the oversweeping ice. Now 300 feet of the top is free, and under present climatic conditions it will soon be wholly free from the ice, and will take its place as a glacier-polished island in the middle of the fjord, like a thousand others in this magnificent archipelago. Emerging from its icy sepulchre it affords an illustration of the birth of a marked feature of the landscape. In this instance it is not the mountain, but the glacier, that is in labor, and the mountain itself is what is being brought forth.

"After we had seen the unveiling of the majestic peaks and glaciers that evening, and their baptism in the downpouring sunbeams, it was inconceivable that Nature could have anything finer to show us. Nevertheless, with what was coming the next morning, all that was as nothing. The sunrise we did not see at all, for we were beneath the shadows of the fjord cliffs; but in the midst of our studies we were startled by the sudden appearance of a red light, burning with a strange, unearthly splendor, on the topmost peak of Fairweather Mountain. Instead of vanishing as suddenly as it had appeared, it spread and spread until the whole range down to the level of the glaciers was filled with celestial fire. In color it was at first a vivid crimson, with a thick furred appearance, as fine as the Alpen-glow, yet indescribably rich and deep. It was not in the least like a garment, or mere external flesh or bloom, through which one might expect to see the rock or snow, but every mountain apparently glowed from the heart like molten metal fresh from a furnace. Beneath the frosty shadows of the fjord we stood, hushed and awe-stricken, gazing at the holy vision. Had we seen the heavens open and God made manifest, our attention could not have been more tremendously strained. When the highest peak began to burn, it did not seem to be steeped in sunshine, however glorious, but rather as if it had been thrust into the body of the sun itself.

Then the supernal fire, slowly descending, with a sharp line of demarcation separating it from the cold shaded region beneath, peak after peak, with their spires and ridges and cascading glaciers, caught the heavenly glow, until all the mighty hosts stood transfigured, hushed and thoughtful, as if awaiting the coming of the Lord. The white rayless light of the morning, seen when I was alone amid the silent peaks of the Sierra, had always seemed to me the most telling of the terrestrial manifestations of Deity. But here the mountains themselves were made divine and declared His glory in terms still more impressive. How long we gazed I never knew. The vision passed away in a gradual fading change, through a thousand tones of color to pale yellow and white, and then the work of the ice-world went on again in everyday beauty. We turned and sailed away, joining the outgoing bergs, while *Gloria in Excelsis* still seemed to be sounding over all the white landscape, and our burning hearts were ready for any fate, feeling that whatever the future might have in store, the treasure we had gained would enrich our lives forever."

John Muir is a native of Scotland. He was born at Dunbar in 1838. He received a comparatively good education up to the age of fifteen, when his father became a pioneer of Wisconsin. He then shared all the toils and privations of such a life, but realized none of them, for birds were plenty. A clear stream meandered through the homestead, and the little Wisconsin lakes were full of water lilies. Why should not a boy be happy amid such surroundings as these?

John Muir is one of the most natural and unassuming of men—the most approachable of mortals, and too well balanced ever to allow the praise of the world or its censure to alter the even tenor of his ways. Graduating from Wisconsin University after a four years' course, he still found a mechanical talent his surest source of revenue. This practical faculty has indeed served him many an excellent turn. Before starting out on his permanent career as an exploring scientist, he became associated with a manufacturing firm in Indianapolis. There he met with a fortunate accident which forever deprived the firm of a first-class mechanical genius, but gave to the world a great seer and scientist. A file injured one of his eyes, and on recovering his sight "he determined to get away into a flowery wilderness, to enjoy and lay in as large a stock as possible of God's wild beauty before the coming on of the time of darkness." These are his own words, and no man ever suc-

ceeded better in carrying out a noble purpose. Mr. Muir is happily married and resides at Martinez, on San Francisco Bay. Were the resources of a painter like Sargent at my disposal, instead of those of a humble sojourner in a limited field of word-pictures, another canvas would be added to the collection of fine arts in San Francisco. It would depict the subject of this most incomplete biography against a

background of the blue Sierras, surrounded with a wreath of Sierra Nevada Alpine flowers, all enclosed in a frame made from the native sequoia wood, for John Muir is at once the truest prophet, the clearest seer, and the noblest poet that the grandeur and majesty of our great West has yet produced. Long may he live, a gracious benediction to our land and people!

OLAF ELLISON.

THE LOVES OF GOETHE

IF "all mankind love a lover," we must all be ardent worshippers of Goethe, for he was certainly a very prince of lovers. Not that he was so narrow in his affections as to limit himself to any one woman, or to see loveliness in only one; that would not do for a man so many-sided and so insatiable in his demands as the peerless poet. Indeed, at no time in his "multifarious love affairs" was he so much in love with the woman as he was with love. He was a very Greek in his passion for love and beauty, but wiser than they; he worshipped no marble deity, but beauty itself, made manifest in some young girl. I say young girl advisedly, for, Frau von Stein excepted, the women who stirred his emotions were all young, most of them under eighteen.

To speak of the women a man has loved may seem absurd to those of us who believe in the Arthurian creed, which demands that a man "love one woman only, cleave to her, and worship her by years of noble deeds until he win her." But Goethe did not hold to this, and so, in his experience of women, what he lost in depth he gained in extent, for from the time when, as a boy of fourteen, he felt that marriage was a necessity, until, at seventy-four, he was forced to leave Marienbad to overcome his passionate admiration for Fraulein von Lewezow, he was constantly in love, which is quite a different thing, however, from being constant in love.

An old Oriental legend tells us that the touch of a maiden's hand causes the trees to bloom, so, with Goethe, each maiden whom he met brought forth the blossom of love in his heart, a blossom doomed always to perish before fruition, and, even while dying, to know itself replaced by another equally frail and beautiful. We

have hardly time to give a sigh at the *finale* of one heart-drama of love, longing; despair, and disappointment,—the latter presumably felt by the women, as he showed little of it,—than we see our star performer enacting the same rôle of passionate lover to another leading woman. His heart was a veritable phoenix, for from the ashes of an old love always arose a new and a brighter one.

The first romance which Goethe records in his "Autobiography" occurred when he was fourteen, an age at which the end-of-the-nineteenth-century boy is thinking rather more of skating, coasting, and other kindred sports than he is of sentimentalizing; but Goethe seems to have been made of different stuff, and so we read of his Gretchen, a Frankfort maiden whom he first met while she was serving wine to her brothers and their friends, among whom he was counted. From that time a new world was opened to him. He went to church to gaze his fill at her, wrote poetical effusions to her, and once—only once—he kissed her. Just as this kiss seemed to be drawing them nearer, Fate, personified in magistrates, broke up the coterie of young people to which she belonged, arresting them on the charge of perpetrating forgeries. Gretchen was proved innocent, but in her confession she admitted that she had always regarded Goethe as a child. This affront to his self-pride killed his love for her, and his heart was swept and garnished for a new occupant, whom he found in Annette, the daughter of a tavern-keeper at Leipsic. She at first returned his affection, but he, becoming bored by the innocence of the connection, relieved its monotony by absurd fits of jealousy, which alienated her love. Having attained this end, he at once discovered that he really cared for

her and could not live without her. The discovery was made too late, and the necessity for expressing his feelings and treating his condition dramatically, not to say theatrically, led to the writing of "The Lover's Caprice." From this time we find him transforming his real experiences into poetry, "nourishing his fancy from the fullness of actual life," seeking to solve the problem of the Sphinx as propounded in his own feelings by any epigram or rhyme, no matter how personal.

In the next episode more of the passions were brought into play, as two sisters, daughters of Goethe's dancing-master at Strasburg, took part in it. Given a handsome youth, loved by one sister and loving the other, we have the materials for a tragedy that, beginning as they all do with music and gaiety, ended in a scene that, according to our hero's own words, could be reproduced in a theatre by only the best of actors. In this last scene both sisters kissed him fervently, and the unloved one, hoping to consecrate him to herself, called down innumerable woes upon the unhappy woman who would first kiss him after her.

This woman he found in Frederika, and to me it seems that the passion he has for her was the first that we can regard at all seriously. His love for the others seems unreal, affected, fictitious, and, owing to his extreme youth or to the ease with which he left the scenes of his conquests to seek "fresh woods and pastures new," one cannot help thinking that in his relations with them he was simply playing with his emotions. Gretchen, Annette, Emilia, are but names and signify little, but over Frederika the poet has thrown a glamour of youth and springtime beauty which brings her near to us. When he first met her, he was himself overflowing with the joy of living, and that he was yet merely a great boy is shown by the manner of their meeting. She was the daughter of a country clergyman, who, with his family, led a life of idyllic simplicity, compared by the poet to that of the Vicar of Wakefield. Goethe was taken to see them by a common friend, and was presented as a needy theological student. This rôle became distasteful to him as soon as Frederika, dressed in a quaint but very becoming German costume, appeared. He feared that the impression he made upon her was, owing to the poorness of his clothing, not a

favorable one, and in his desperation he borrowed clothes from his landlord's son, whom he impersonated for a short time. When discovered, he revealed his own identity, and Frederika, whom he found all grace, all loveliness, soon showed her fondness for him, while by her side he found not even the dry sermon of her father too long,—surely the highest test of his love which he could give.

That this love was not wholly selfish is shown by the fact that at first his fears lest the curse of Emilia's sister might fall on her led him to avoid her in the kissing games of that period. But at last even his care for her had to give way to his love, and when the opportunity to embrace her came, he did not miss it or deny himself a repetition of the pleasure.

Frederika, with her country surroundings as a background, was charming, but a visit to town presented her in a different light and was the beginning of the end. She was as sweet, as fresh, as good and kind as ever, but his feelings toward her had changed—why, even he could not tell. She may have been too generous in her love—too fond. "Man loves to conquer, likes not to feel secure," and, having gained her affections, he said "Good-bye" and left her. It is probable that she sorrowed over his apostasy, and this is another reason why she seems more near and dear to us than those who preceded her in our gay lover's favor, for to them he brought no pain. She, too, outgrew her sorrow as tragic Necessity forces each of us to do, and years after, when he visited her, she received him as a dear friend.

After this Strasburg experience he went to Wetzlar, and here came into his life for a time the woman whom he has immortalized as Lotte, in the "Sorrows of Werther." In reading this we must not forget that the author took advantage of his poet's license and presented everything in the most lurid light of romance, so as to justify Werther in his sorrows and despair. What really occurred was this: Charlotte Buff, a serene, joyous, open-hearted girl, with the cares of the household and younger children early thrown upon her by the death of her mother, was betrothed to a secretary of the Hanoverian legation named Kestner, who seems to have been an estimable man, very unlike the Albert of the romance. Goethe became the intimate friend of both Lotte and her lover, spending much of his time

with them. As she already belonged to another, he felt, or thought he felt,—which in such a case amounts to the same thing,—a hopeless passion for her, which at last drove him from her side, and which he used in the book that made his name famous.

Charlotte, who by the time the book appeared had become the wife of Kestner, must certainly have been rather sceptical of the existence of a love which could so falsify herself and her husband, and we know from letters that both felt the embarrassment of the position in which Goethe's work placed them before the public. We must surely conclude that Goethe's love for Charlotte was an imaginative one, that if she had been free he would have left her as he had left Frederika. At any rate, whether this be so or not, in writing the "Sorrows of Werther," he must have outgrown his own sorrow. Pain, before it can be worked into art, be embodied in a poem or a statue, must pass into the glorified life of memory; so, though we may weep for Werther, tears shed over Goethe's hapless love for Charlotte would be quite superfluous, and he is rather to be congratulated on having known a woman who could inspire the creation of Lotte.

On his return to Frankfort the poet met a type of girl entirely different from any of those who had heretofore interested him. These had all been simple, home-keeping girls, but Lili Schönmann, the banker's daughter, belonged to a different sphere. Young, pretty, coquettish, the centre of a gay circle, and, at first, indifferent to him, or regarding him simply as one among her many admirers, she drew him and held him longer than any of the more easily won conquests. The family of each disapproved of the rapidly growing intimacy between the two, but in spite of this opposition, or perhaps because of it, the young people came to an understanding with each other and were betrothed. But the restless, freedom-loving spirit of the poet chafed under the restraint of bonds, even the dearest, and having reached the summit he had so much desired to gain, everything looked rather flat, and he longed to be again free.

Was it that, as Herder said, he was incapable of a genuine enthusiasm—that his heart was not great enough for a love that never tired? We do not judge the artistic value of a man's poetry by his love

affairs, or demand that the poet's life in itself be a poem, and yet it is strange that the creator of "Faust" should, as Grimm says of him, never have experienced a self-absorbing passion, never have felt an emotion which took him wholly out of himself. No woman ever aroused his whole nature, no living man fully met the wants of it. To each new woman he turned with fresh hopefulness, eager to find in her that which would satisfy him, but, ever doomed to disappointment, he soon felt something lacking, felt that he was grasping at shadows, and so left her. It is, perhaps, the price men pay for greatness, that the great must be always alone; that, reaching the highest peaks of human endeavor, they must, while breathing a clearer, purer air than common folk, feel also the cold and desolation of the heights. It may be that, dimly recognizing this, but hoping to escape the penalty of his genius, Goethe sought restlessly for some one to belong to him, in whom he could find himself revealed and understood. This some one he never found, and, dissipating his heart-power in loving many, he missed the deepest joy, the highest happiness of a self-sacrificing, self-absorbing love.

* This could but have happened once,
And he missed it, lost it forever.*

But to return to Lili. Goethe was uneasy at the thought of marriage, and having an opportunity to take a tour through Switzerland, he decided to go as an experiment to see whether he could renounce her. The experiment must have been successful, as on his return the engagement was broken, and soon after he went to Weimar, where the rest of his life was to be passed.

In his Weimar career, as the famous author with the prince his dearest friend, he was brought into contact with women of culture, showing perfect grace and ease in social intercourse. Among them was the Baroness von Stein,—no untried, unformed girl, but a charming woman of refinement, intelligence, and tact, acquainted with life and its sorrows. At the time Goethe first met her, she had reached the age which French novelists love to give their heroines—thirty-three. She had been married for years to a man who was, according to his lights, a good and kind husband, but between the two there existed little real sympathy. Before Goethe met her he had passed a sleepless night

thinking of her picture, and when he saw the real woman he succumbed at once, and between the two was formed one of the famous friendships of literary history. Though she lacked the poetic charm of girlish beauty, she had that which bound him to her in a chivalrous allegiance, different from any he had yet yielded.

The women whom he had loved before her had merely reflected the fire of his own nature, but in her he found a woman whose nature possessed a fire of its own. His love for her, his biographer, Lewes, calls a silver thread woven among the many colored ones which formed the tapestry of his life, and it approaches more nearly to our ideal of a poet's love than any he ever felt. They were constantly together, reading the same books, thinking the same thoughts. To her he told his hopes, his fears, his joys, his sorrows. So much was she to him that he could not conceive of the possibility of her not being more; he felt that, even in past ages, she must have known and understood him; that their earthly life and companionship was only a memory of those other days. With this thought, he wrote to her:—

* Thou didst know each motive of my being,
 Feel each subtle nerve ring out reply,
 Glance of thine could read without the seeing,
 Deeps almost unknown to human eye."

For ten years they were all in all to each other, but with the joy they must have felt in their friendship there is mingled something tragic, for surely the ghost of a past possibility, the wraith of what might have been if they had only known each other sooner, must have been with them always. Yet it will not do to waste too much sympathy on Goethe, at least, who was perhaps only asserting his genius, when, at the end of ten years, he again began to feel that he was self-sufficient. The sunny paganism of his nature made him realize that he could not spend his life sighing for the impossible. The longing for Italy, which he had inherited from his father, came over him with a strength so irresistible that Frau von Stein had no counter charms great enough to subdue it. So he left her and his other Weimar friends for a visit to the land he so loved that he transmitted his love, not to his son, as his father had to him, but to one of the fairest creations of his pen, Mignon. "Absence is to love what water is to fire; a little heightens, too much extinguishes it."

When he returned to Weimar, he had outlived his passion for Frau von Stein. He felt the need of a woman to share his life, but asked only for health, freshness, youth, devotion. These qualities he obtained in Christiane Vulpius, a child of the people, reminding him, in her bright, sensuous beauty, of his well-loved Italy. He took her into his life and home, but not until years after was the connection sanctioned by the Church, although Goethe himself always regarded it as legitimate. Naturally enough, Frau von Stein was hurt, offended;—to be dethroned and by such a woman,—“a kind of cook who later gave herself up to drinking.” Indeed, the vulgarity of Christiane, more than the laxness of the alliance, seems to have provoked the censure of Weimar society. But to Goethe, Christiane was more than a mere cook; she was his pupil, his confidante, the mother of his son, the director of his household, and his devoted nurse. Perhaps, as Grimm says, it was not altogether marvellous that, weary of the delicacies on the table of life, he at last took a great loaf of wholesome brown bread under his arm and walked off with it. After the battle of Jena, during the French invasion of Weimar, Christiane encountered hardships and dangers bravely, and at that time Goethe decided to give her the position she should have had long before, and married her.

With marriage we naturally expect a cessation of love affairs, and most of our novels having love as their basis terminate in the marriage or death of the leading characters. Having reached either climax, there is, of course, nothing more to do except live happy ever after, either in the heavens above or on the earth beneath.

But Goethe was Goethe even after he had married Christiane, and we find his name coupled with that of Bettina, who has left us a book called “Goethe's Correspondence with a Child.” She was a strange, elflike creature, and some have advanced the theory that the poet encouraged her in her expressions of affection, hoping to use her letters as poetic material; but Lewes struck the keynote of Goethe's character when, in answer to this charge, he declares that the great author was too fond of expressing his own experiences to care for those of another.

His love for Minna Herzlieb he embodied in "The Elective Affinities," but even after his romance with her, which came in his old age to keep his heart young, we know that although he had passed the allotted span of life—three score and ten—he was very devoted to Fraulein von Lewezow. Indeed, he would have married her, his wife having died, were it not that he feared the ridicule of his friends. A magnificent old man, to be able to retain so long the life of life, the power of loving—and yet—and yet—if he had only stored up the power and then exhausted it on but one woman, how rich she would have been, and what different women we should have found in his books. As it is, the women he has depicted are the women he admired,—sweet, girlish, loving, emotional, but lacking the life, the soul-depth that a woman-individual should have. They stand as personifications of sex rather than as human beings.

Judged in his relations with the women for whom he professed love, Goethe is not a great man, but we must revere him as a poet even while deprecating his personal attitude toward his contemporaries. Of him, as of Burns and others of our sweet-

est singers, it may be said that it is "impossible to measure genius by the tape-line of conventionality." In studying the bare outlines of a man's life it is much easier to see where he made his mistakes; to point out things done that were better left undone, and things undone which should have been done; it is much easier to do this than it is to enter sympathetically into the thrilling, throbbing, passionate life itself, to feel how impossible it was for the man—being what he was, when and where he was—to do otherwise. Yet we must concede that each human being, from Goethe down to the most uninteresting of us, must of necessity live his own life, think his own thoughts, feel his own emotions, and love his own loves.

Nevertheless, though as individuals we may grant this, those of us who are women are rather glad that the average man, while living a less intense life and thinking less brilliantly colored thoughts than Goethe, is, by reason of his limitations, forced to narrow the sphere, also, of his sentimental and emotional activities, and to be satisfied in loving fewer women than the immortal poet.

IRENE C. BYRNE.

OMAHA, NEB.

THE AFRICAN OSTRICH IN AMERICA

MANY of the readers of SELF CULTURE are doubtless familiar with the solitary specimens of *Struthio camelus*, the African ostrich, to be found in almost every travelling menagerie or zoological garden in this and European countries. These travel-stained and solitary exotics, however, are very different individuals from the magnificent creatures that ceaselessly wander around their corrals in the ostrich farms of southern California. There broad fields covered with alfalfa are populated with ostriches which thrive on the luxuriant grass (of which there are eight crops every year), and which find in that superb climate a pleasant change from the torrid heat of central Africa.

The illustrations in this article show various groups of birds and incidents in ostrich life at the South Pasadena Ostrich Farm, California. The superintendent of this curious enterprise, thirteen years ago, started from Natal, Africa, for Galveston,

Texas, with forty-eight birds of both sexes. Six of them died on the passage, from seasickness or other causes, but forty-two were safely transferred to Norwalk, southern California, where they went to house-keeping, and in a double sense *laid* the foundation of a great industry.

Of the original importation all the birds have died save one, but their numerous progeny are to be found to-day in Arizona, Texas, and South Carolina, as well as in the State of the inception of the industry. American experience in raising this peculiar kind of live-stock is so far a matter of few years; but if the creatures thrive here half as well as they have done in the past at the Cape of Good Hope under competent management, it is safe to prophesy a great future for ostrich-farming.

Though its home has long been the pathless desert, and for thousands of years the ostrich was an inhabitant of wastes that could support no other creature,



A MAGNIFICENT HERD

ostriches have been sent to South America, Australia, and New Zealand, and are now successfully cultivated in those latitudes. Only within the last thirty-five years has the bird been domesticated; but since 1865, when there were less than one hundred tame ostriches in Africa, and when ostrich feathers commanded a high price and were a rarity, their cultivation has increased until now there are 300,000 ostriches feeding on the vast plains of South Africa, enclosed by thousands of miles of barbed wire, and yielding feathers

valued at \$7,000,000. Thus the ostrich feather, instead of being, as formerly, the luxury of wealth, has become the common adornment of every domestic in the land.

The business of the ostrich-farmer thus being the production of feathers, success in this line naturally presupposes the production of feather-producers. Hence every encouragement to perpetuate their kind is given to the birds; breeding-pens being arranged for their use.

An ostrich egg weighs over three pounds and is edible; it contains thirty-five ounces of albumen

and is equal to thirty hen's eggs; it cannot be distinguished in omelet from that of the ordinary hen. The Mosaic law expressly prohibited the eating of the flesh of the ostrich. The hen ostrich is so prolific that she will lay nearly her own weight in eggs every year, — say 250 pounds; but her capacity to sit is



"JUST OUT"

limited to fifteen at a time, or thereabouts; she sits twice a year. The extra eggs are placed in incubators, which are watched day and night, varying success attending the process; sometimes as many as fifty per cent have been hatched out. Nature, however, with man's assistance and care, has so far proved the best nurse of infant and prenatal ostrich life.



CONRADES

One pair has produced thirty-seven chicks in a year, the value of each chick being about twenty dollars. During the day the male bird patrols in the vicinity of the nest, guarding the sitting hen;

at night, however, they change places, she sitting down on the ground near by, while he faithfully covers the nest. In the morning the hen again resumes her position, and this alternate watch is kept up



A FINE SPECIMEN

for forty-two days. The hen turns the eggs daily with her beak, so that both ends shall be equally warmed. When hatched, the chicks are taken away immediately by the ostrich-farmer and are raised with the greatest care.

The shells of infertile eggs are decorated and sold to visitors. Small ostriches stuffed, ostrich skins, legs, and pieces of egg-shell, decorated, are also sold as souvenirs.

Unlike its relative, *Rhea americana*,—the nandu, or American ostrich, which inhabits the plains of Brazil,—*Struthio camelus*

The Romans used the ostrich for its skin, feathers, and brains; the latter being served at banquets. It is recorded that six hundred ostriches were killed for one meal, which, considering that the brain weighs less than an ounce, may be within the bounds of possibility.

The adult male ostrich stands about eight feet high and weighs from 200 to 300 pounds. Maturity is attained at five years of age. During the breeding season the males are very dangerous, but the females are always timid and never fight.

The chicks are usually striped; adolescent birds and females are a dirty-gray in color, but in the male the plumage changes to black, the tail and wings being white. Every four months the ostriches are plucked, and at the appointed time a large crowd usually assembles at the farm. Bird after bird is caught, hooded with a bag, and deprived of those feathers for which the breed is so patiently cultivated. An experienced feather-cutter clips the plumes,



CLIPPING THE PLUMES

is no swimmer and will not enter deep water even to avoid pursuit. He will, however, bathe in a few inches of water, and at the South Pasadena farm tanks are provided for this purpose. Travellers have asserted that the African ostrich will bathe in the sea.

The stomach of the ostrich resembles that of the camel; and on the torrid and trackless deserts of Africa the creature is compelled to go a long time without water. At the California farms, however, the average individual consumption is eight quarts a day. The thirst, like the taste, is doubtless influenced by domesticated life and regular meals.

which in the course of nature would fall off unless so removed. They are worth from twenty to one hundred dollars a pound, according to length and width, but they have to be dyed or bleached, for neither the black nor the white of the ostrich is of the proper commercial hue. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Birds, of which the Princess of Wales is president, has particularly excepted the ostrich from its list of unfortunates, knowing that the cutting of the feather, misnamed "plucking," is as harmless as the cutting of claws. After the bird has been carefully raked with the clipper, a boy mounts its back, the hood is removed, and

away it goes into the corral through a little wicket gate provided for its escape. A few frantic darts up, down, and sideways, and the boy is seen hanging to its neck with both hands, awaiting the inevitable, and soon is projected to the floor amid the laughter of the spectators. At the Jardin d'Acclimation at Paris a couple of trained birds draw around a children's carriage, but that may be considered the limit of their hauling ability, and as riding-steeds they are failures. If unblinded they retain their speed, yet the slightest apparent danger will cause them to shy; if blinded they can be led or pushed along slowly, indeed at too slow a pace to make riding desirable. The wings of the ostrich are practically useless for flight as the term is ordinarily understood of birds; the ostrich's method of escape from his enemies being by running. For this they are admirably fitted by reason of their long and powerful legs and peculiar two-toed feet. The wings are, however, used as aids to rapid locomotion to the extent of their lifting and propulsive capacity.

The speed of the ostrich is well described by Job in the same chapter as that in which he has so thrillingly described

the courage of the horse.* The conditions of life of the wild bird in its native desert and those of the domesticated ostrich in America are so different that the patriarch's account might perhaps be disputed by the farmer of to-day; but consideration of the difference in climate and the manner of obtaining sustenance will probably convince the reader that Job knew whereof he wrote. Here is the passage:

- 13 The wing of the ostrich rejoiceth;
But are her pinions and feathers kindly?
14 For she leaveth her eggs on the earth,
And warmeth them in the dust.
15 And forgetteth that the foot may crush them,
Or that the wild beast may trample them.
16 She is hardened against her young ones, as if they
were not hers:
Though her labor be in vain, she is without fear;
17 Because God hath deprived her of wisdom,
Neither hath he imparted to her understanding.†
18 What time she lifteth up herself on high,
She scorneth the horse and his rider.

Dogs are sometimes trained to pursue the flocks for the benefit of spectators, as no more attractive sight exists than a troop of ostriches running at full speed across the plain; their motions are indescribably beautiful, and the graphic description of their speed by Job is fully borne out.

E. H. RYDALL.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

SUPERSTITIONS OF THE SEA

JACK is not as superstitious as he used to be, for, with the advent of steam and the consequent annihilation of distance, the sea has lost much of its mystery and romance. During the voyages from port to port, when months passed without sight of land; in the long days when the vessel lay becalmed in tropic waters, "a painted ship upon a painted ocean," and the dark nights when he kept watch in the solemn silence between the sea and stars,—every little happening was magnified into importance, and anything his untutored mind could not explain was ascribed to supernatural influences. The yarns which were first spun in the fore-castle for amusement were gradually implanted in the innocent minds of the new hands as gospel truth, and from much repetition the grizzled old salts grew to believe in them too. Probably in this way originated the "Flying Dutchman" and all the phantom fleet,—tales born, no doubt, of floating derelicts, paintless and

ghostly, and steered only by the winds and tides. But many of the old superstitions still survive, and even the captains, who are now a well-educated and intelligent body of men, are inclined to put some faith in them.

"What is the unluckiest omen that can happen on a ship?" I asked a Danish captain who had sailed the seas for nearly half a century, and worked his way up in the days when every shipmaster served a long apprenticeship before the mast. "Nothing could possibly be worse than a clergyman, unless it should be two," was his reply. It is true that, to this day, deep-sea sailors look upon a clerical passenger with marked disfavor, and feel uneasy during the entire voyage. This feeling extends to a corpse, and crews

* Job xxxix, 13-18.

† In domestication the hen ostrich is quite as faithful as, and a great deal more intelligent than, many other fowls. An ostrich disturbed upon her nest in the desert will, however, run away, and, finding another nest, will sit on that.

have frequently mutinied in preference to carrying a dead body as cargo. When the French liner "*La Champagne*" was so nearly lost on her eastward passage some time ago, many old sailors gravely set it down to the fact that a minister was on the passenger-list and a corpse was in the hold,—a terribly disastrous combination. Even the jolly tars in the navy do not care to be billeted on a ship that has a chaplain.

The captain of a large three-masted schooner was surprised one sunshiny morning when the forecastle hands came to him in a body and informed him of the discovery of a dead man floating under the schooner's counter. He was a strong-minded man, of stern New England stock, and he knew the law about floating bodies, so took a boat-hook to push the corpse toward the near-by wharf; but the crew, with every manifestation of stubborn fear, declared in chorus that for the commander to touch a corpse meant death to every man aboard, and it was only by resorting to threats of imprisonment for mutiny that he prevented them from leaving the vessel *en masse*. Such of the men as afterward received shore-leave failed to return.

Some years ago a United States cruiser bound from La Paz to San Francisco carried, lashed on the poop deck, the remains of a chief engineer who had died and been buried at La Paz, but had been exhumed at the request of his relatives and was being brought back to the United States for interment. After an unusually stormy voyage the ship ran into a severe gale in the Gulf of California, which threatened her destruction. All efforts to get her up in the wind so that she would run easier were unavailing, and, standing knee-deep in water on the main deck, the executive officer heard a gruff voice over his shoulder, "If they'd cut the weather-lashings of that corpse up on the poop, and let it go to leeward, she would come up in the wind soon enough." The speaker was one of the oldest men-o'-war's men in the navy, and the executive learned later that most of the crew were of the same mind, believing the gale to be due entirely to the presence of the corpse.

"Sailors all over the world hate to have the dead on board," said Lyman Denison, purser of the ill-fated "*Olivette*." "I once met a sea-captain who had experienced a forcible illustration of this fact. He was

in command of a big sailing-ship homeward bound in the Indian Ocean, when his wife died on board. As he could not bear the thought of burying her at sea, he had the ship's carpenter make a coffin in which he laid her; then, depositing the coffin in a large box filled with soft tar, he closed the latter as tightly as possible and sewed it up in tarred canvas, his object being to keep the body until he made port. The seamen first objected to having the box put forward of the mainmast, and later came aft in a body, vigorously protesting against having it on board at all. The captain would not listen to their objections, whereupon they flatly refused to work the ship until the body was cast overboard. Having no alternative, he was obliged to read the service over the remains, and, with the aid of the mate, consign them to an ocean grave. Two days later the ship was driven on a reef by a typhoon, and totally lost. All hands escaped in boats and were picked up, and when I met the captain he was looking for another ship and, incidentally, another wife."

Women are considered extremely unlucky on a warship or merchantman, and are supposed to bring squally weather and dangerous gales. Away back in the early 'fifties it was customary for a captain in the navy to take his wife and family with him on long voyages, but Jack's influence gradually prevailed, and the women were left at home.

St. Elmo's lights are another source of uneasiness to the sailor. They are usually seen in the tropics, and are probably due to electricity, but they certainly present a spectral sight on a dark night at sea when the little globular greenish-blue flames are seen floating and flickering above the yard-arms, jumping at a bound from topsail yard to topgallant yard, or disappearing there only to reappear on the truck of the mainmast. These phenomena precede a storm, and become visible during the calm that is generally followed by a deluge of rain and an electrical display of unusual brilliancy. Originally known as Corpus Christi lights, the sailors have corrupted the name to "corposants," and believe them to be the souls of departed seamen appearing to presage misfortune,—usually the loss of the ship. It was formerly a hard task to get a sailor into the rigging while a corposant was flickering aloft.

Of course, most men who follow the sea believe Friday to be an unlucky day, but the Spanish sailor is an exception and has no prejudice against it, probably because Columbus started on his great voyage of discovery on that day. English and American sailors, however, believe that the whole trip is "hoodooed" and certain disaster is ahead if they weigh anchor on the sixth day of the week, while to end a voyage on Friday means bad luck the next trip, and anything begun on Friday is never ended. Few captains are bold enough to sail on Friday even if their crews are willing, and I have found but one officer who is entirely free from this prevalent superstition,—Lieut. Amélie Notay, of the French liner "*La Champagne*," who professes to have no fear of Friday, the thirteenth, or any of the signs or omens dreaded on the sea. Perhaps a more credulous sailor might say that "*La Champagne*" has had her share of mishaps, and that "*La Bourgogne*" came perilously close to Davy Jones's capacious locker when Lieutenant Notay was connected with her.

To break a looking-glass on shipboard means a broken mast, and a broken tumbler means a shattered compass. A sneeze invites misfortune unless you sneeze to the right. The man at the wheel under any flag will tell you that he cannot steer straight if there is a cross-eyed passenger aboard, and if the helmsman is a son of the British Isles he will repeat:

"St. Peter, St. Peter, pray give us a charm
Against the bad eye that would do us a harm."

To fall down without any apparent cause is a warning of death in the immediate future. An American cruiser was lying off Nice a few years ago when a seaman fell prone on the deck. Upon rising he went to his bunk, and, returning, placed a slip of paper bearing his mother's address in the hand of a messmate, saying he never expected to see home again. Two days out from Nice he died, and covered with the starry folds of the Union Jack—the sailor's pall—was committed to the deep.

For the nose to bleed only a few drops is believed in the navy to foretell death in as many days or weeks as there are drops of blood, but while I have talked with any number of sailors who were firm believers in this particular sign, I have never been able to learn of an instance where it came true. You may hear a sailor sing at sea, but he rarely whistles: whistling is sup-

posed to bring a hurricane, and is always hushed by the remark, "There's a hurricane sailor here."

"When I was a youngster—I won't say how long ago," said Captain Eastaway of the British S. S. "*Scandinavian*," "I had my ears cuffed for whistling, and also for turning a hatch upside down on deck. I have seen old sailors, when a big sea was coming, hold up their hands and motion it down, as if they had the power to break it." A horseshoe has been the fetish of English sailors ever since Lord Nelson nailed one to the mast of the "*Victory*." Odd numbers are regarded as lucky, and this belief is shown in the number of guns fired in salutes.

Sharks following the ship indicate a death on board, as they are supposed to be waiting for the body. Stormy petrels, or Mother Carey's chickens, flying between the masts, are evil omens. Seagulls flying high denote fine weather; flying low, the reverse; though this can hardly be classed as a superstition any more than the landsman's belief that the voice of the cuckoo brings rain. Gulls are believed to be the spirits of departed sailors. If a pig is killed aboard ship and the captain wants the wind from a certain quarter, he has the pig killed with its nose in that direction. When porpoises are met at sea, the way in which they are travelling is believed to be the quarter from which the wind will blow next.

Pets are believed to bring good luck, and when, in the recent war with Spain, a man was struck and killed by a bursting shell on the "*Texas*," all the sailors in the fleet said it was because the battleship was without a mascot. The cat has a bad reputation among seafaring men, most of whom believe she brings ill-luck to a ship. If a cat falls overboard and is drowned (she is always rescued if possible), the men will often leave at the next port, believing the ship to be doomed; and I have heard men-o'-war's men cite the case of the old "*Kearsarge*" as proof thereof. On her last voyage the frigate carried a cat and a monkey, between whom a violent feud existed, and on the way north, one dark and stormy night, Jocko threw poor Tom overboard, running along the rail and chattering like a fiend as the unfortunate pet disappeared in the boiling waves. The seas were running too high to admit of launching a boat, and puss was left to a watery grave, but not without many gloomy forebodings,

which were realized soon after, when the "Kearsarge" stranded on the fatal reef.

There is an executive officer in the navy who will not allow a cat to leave port on his ship, and he has never yet met with an accident of any kind, while the ill-starred "Maine" carried a cat which after the disaster was found clinging to the rigging, and was rescued by a tender-hearted mariner. Old sailors say that when a cat claws the ropes or frisks about the deck it foretells wind, and a ship having a black cat and white dog aboard will encounter many squalls. The cats of the steam sloop of war "Resaca" brought all kinds of bad luck with them, and were famous in every fore-castle for many years. No. 1 was washing her face on deck one fine morning when she disappeared as suddenly and completely as if she had been an astral body, and next day her master, the boatswain, fell overboard and was drowned. No. 2 took fright at an American visitor while the ship lay at Callao, and committed suicide by jumping over the rail. That night the American was taken ill and expired before he could be got ashore. In the harbor of Talcahuano No. 3 was introduced into the fore-castle, but killed herself in a mad race after a rat, and soon after the captain of the star-board watch staggered against the bulwarks and died before help could reach him, holding his throat with both hands and crying with his last breath "All throttled here!" There was never another cat allowed on the "Resaca."

The prejudice against carrying women on merchant ships and men-of-war also extends to feminine names, sailors believing that a ship which bears a woman's name is sure to be unlucky. Certain names are also known as "hoodoos," and even when these are painted over and others substituted they are believed still to exert an evil influence on the ship and its inmates.

Occasionally a captain has some pet superstition of his own, as, for instance, Captain George Oakes, of the good ship "Pentagoet," has sailed the ocean for twenty continuous years, and believes in the—

"—sweet little cherub that sits up aloft,
To keep watch for the life of poor Jack."

He related the following instance of the interposition of an unseen power:

"At the time of the great Saxby hurricane, in September, 1869, which was the most de-

structive gale ever seen on the New England coast, I was master of a fine new vessel bound from Philadelphia to Damariscotta, Maine. The gale came on at 6 o'clock in the evening, and three hours previous we lay at anchor outside of Boothbay Harbor, in a very exposed place, with the wind from seaward. Having run from Cape Cod in a dense fog, and seeing nothing since leaving the Cape but a ledge below which boiled a long line of breakers, I did not dare to venture further in, but waited, hoping the fog would lift a little. As it did not lighten any, shortly before the gale came on I gave orders to weigh anchor and run into the harbor, there to wait until it cleared up. There was still a dense fog, a fresh breeze, and a heavy swell from seaward, but the anchor was caught in a rock, and, after trying every means to get it clear, I ordered forty-five fathoms of chain paid out, saying to the mate, 'It is summer, we will wait until it clears up.' Walking aft, without a doubt in my mind as to the wisdom of my course, I was stopped at the main hatch as if by an imperious hand, and *felt*, if I did not actually hear, a command to retrace my steps. Now there, I suppose, was where the superstition of a seafaring man came in, for I returned, countermanded my last order, and was lucky enough to get the anchor clear and reach the mouth of the harbor before the fog disappeared in a flash, and the hurricane was upon us in all its fury. Fifteen minutes later we were one of the only three vessels of a large fleet that had not dragged anchor and gone ashore. At our first anchorage we would have been exposed to the full force of the gale and sea, with not one chance in a thousand of riding it out. Now, what stopped me at the main hatch but the shadow of a coming event and the voice of God?"

The course of events that follow a ship during construction are said to control her whole future. The "John Bunyan" was most unlucky while building: the hull fell over and seriously injured many workmen; she obstinately stuck on the ways and refused to be launched; and a very dark future was predicted for her; but she was afterward a very lucky ship, though of course this may be the exception that proves the rule.

The town of Medford, Mass., in its early days, had a phantom ship of its own, terrible enough to satisfy the most blood-curdling *raconteur* of sea-stories that ever lived. The original phantom ship—better known as the "Flying Dutchman"—was merely a peaceful merchantman which was driven back so many times by wind and weather while trying to round the Cape of Good Hope, that her captain, Vanderdecken, swore an awful oath that he would

round the Cape in spite of God himself. For his sin the choleric commander was doomed for eternity to endeavor to weather the Cape, but always to be driven back by adverse gales. The Medford legend runs that a ship laden with gold put out from that place in the dark days of piracy, when Blackbeard and Morgan ranged the seas, and the dreaded "Jolly Roger" haunted every ocean highway. Five days out the vessel was becalmed, food and water gave out, and all hands perished of thirst and starvation. When the tardy winds rose again, the ship filled away with her ghastly crew and captain, and a buccaneer on a sharp lookout for plunder, after lying idle for days on the glassy ocean, saw her and gave chase. He soon overhauled her and was first to board the death-ship; but the rope with which she had been carelessly made fast to his own vessel parted under the strain of the seaway, and

he found himself rapidly borne away from his comrades on what he soon discovered to be a floating coffin. Night was descending, and before his own ship could come up to him, he went mad with terror, seized the helm and raced away before the wind, and—so says the legend—he was condemned for his many sins forever to sail the gruesome craft, which has often been seen by affrighted sailors scudding past in moonlight or lightning's glare, manned by blackened corpses and steered by a shouting, gesticulating madman.

No more than fifty years ago there were people who believed that Captain Kidd patrolled the coast on moonless nights in a ghostly craft, landing here and there to visit the various places where he had secreted treasure, and to see that the spectres of his murdered slaves still mounted guard over his buried gold.

MINNA IRVING.

TARRYTOWN, N. Y.

COUNTRY LIFE AS A FACTOR IN CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

SOME truths are so obvious that they appear to need no demonstration, and this may seem so plainly the case in the subject-matter of this essay that it will be deemed a useless task to dwell on what all men know. Yet the simplest truths often escape notice in our search after abstruse problems, and we fail to estimate, in our complex system of education, what the silent voice of nature is teaching us.

It is so much easier to believe that a man grows because of the active agencies of city life, its competition, the friction of mind with mind, the restless struggle to be first, than that he develops because the foundation was first laid by the noiseless, unseen forces of the country. What are some of the salient features of a well-developed character? Let us see how many are bred in the country lad, how many are native to the soil. Let us investigate what the country does for us and see if we exaggerate its importance. The proof of a philosophy is in its products, and I venture to assert that it would be hard to find a great man who was not in touch with nature and whose early years were not moulded by the educative

influences of the country. Emerson says that "all natural leaders come from the country" and that "their children must go back to learn the secret of their fathers' power." And Victor Hugo makes the startling statement that "woods and fields make the education of all great men." It is certain, the city alone never developed a great man nor a happy one, which last trait is more closely connected with virtue than one might at first sight think. A nation must be grounded in the ethics of nature before it conquers the world, and then it cannot hope to endure many generations if it does not go back to nature and renew its strength on her ample and generous bosom. President Eliot once affirmed that the survival of particular families in the United States depended upon the maintenance of a home in the country. This statement applies more truly to our country than to Europe, for people there spend far more time outside of the city, holidays in the country are more frequent, and more persons go for long intervals to the country during the year. Nowhere can the evils of a great city be more painfully studied than in our large centres, and nowhere are the

dangers from overcrowding more vividly exemplified. We are conscientiously studying our own social problems, and our progress in material things is a matter of fond national pride. Yet our civilization leaves much to be desired, and we are confronted with questions which we are unable to solve.

Humboldt remarks that "the specific work of civilization is to get the individual out of the mass and to exalt personality." If we accept this definition, it follows that the highest civilization must grow out of the virtues of the country-bred man, for personality is the salient feature of him who dwells apart, who communes with nature, who lives alone. In the country every man is an individual, every man has convictions. They may be false, that is probable; but it is well to nurse an original idea, since there are not too many of them. The country boy is self-opinionated; he feels that each problem worked out by himself is the first of its kind, and the knowledge makes him a king. The city boy hears so much that his confidence is weakened, and when it comes to trial he finds himself frequently without opinions. The country lad has more self-respect; he seems to himself to stand out more clearly against the background of things, and he feels his dignity more as a human being. Circumstances conspire to make him self-reliant, a fortunate state for any young growing thing, and he early learns from nature all that the wisest political economy can teach. There is a certain high quality of simplicity found in every great man, which is hard to dissociate from country influences. Nature has taught him to look at things in a large way; he is simple, because so sure of himself, and he is nowise blinded by conflicting standards. He is not easily wafted hither and thither, being so well grounded in his own principles, and he inspires others with his ability and weightiness.

Perfect character development depends upon a certain privacy of life. We must live successfully with ourselves before we can be of use to others or impress our character upon them, and the moral uses of solitude go deep down into the roots of our being. Far more essential than anything which the city can offer in the way of discipline is this need for thoughtful quiet, yet how lightly estimated is it in our day. George Herbert quaintly said: "By all means use

some time to be alone." This deep truth seems one of the intuitions of our natures, though, like the voice of conscience, we do not often heed it. We find the pagan Pythagoras insisting upon an hour of solitude each day, "in which a man might meet his own mind and learn what oracle it had to impart." The beneficent influences of solitude were better appreciated by the ancients; Pan was easily comprehended by them, and their characters were consequently built on larger lines, more epic in their grand simplicity. Even to-day every mind has its oracle, its message to deliver, and yet how seldom do we pause in the nervous hurry of our lives to commune with our own minds and lay hold of the pivotal points of our natures. Solitude not only throws us back upon ourselves, but it leads us to nature, and "nature is loved by what is best in us." We mistrust a man who is deaf and blind to these lessons almost as much as we do one whose heart is untouched with love for animals and children. The high priests of nature, the poets, like Wordsworth, Bryant, Emerson, and Thoreau, do us benign service in bringing before the mind's eye what we fail to apprehend alone or unaided by their finer insight. Wordsworth teaches practical ethics when he says:

"One impulse from a vernal wood
Can teach you more of man,
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the sages can."

And this brings us back to the country boy, whose honesty and perception of right and wrong are manifestly superior to his city cousin's. He may not know as much of actual evil, but, being so much simpler, deeper, and self-centred, he is better equipped to battle against temptation, and that is the main thing after all.

There is a poise and depth in the man who lives close to nature which is lacking in him who has never come under her spell. We feel the artificiality of city life when we talk with the city child, whose heart has never expanded under the gracious ministration of field and wood, who has never heard the woodland symphonies of tone and sound, and who has never thrilled under the mysterious pageant of the seasons. Free, happy denizen of the country! He learns the secrets of nature without let or hindrance; he lays up stores of moral sweetness and strength; in him all the primitive virtues thrive. His senses are as alert as those

of an animal, and he finds himself equipped with weapons which are unknown to his sophisticated brother.

Cities do not give the human senses room enough, and we hug our little stock of acquired knowledge so closely that we do not feel the deep, silent scorn of the country boy for our real dulness of perception. The city child is shut out from a thousand avenues of knowledge held by the country boy. Can he tell the time by the gently creeping shadows? Does he learn his natural history from the four-footed dwellers of the forest? And, chiefest of all, is he taught reverence and pity for all of God's creatures?

The child feels all this, if left alone to grow, but the old man recognizes its truth. Wordsworth speaks for him when he says:

"For I have learned to look upon nature, not as in
the hour
Of thoughtless youth; but hearing oftentimes,
The still, sad music of humanity,
Nor harsh, nor grating, though of ample power to
chasten and subdue."

All this and more the old man feels, and he looks upon a home in the country, perchance a farm of his own, as the ambition of his declining years. There he may go back to the happy years of his boyhood, to the haunts and nooks so richly peopled by retrospective fancy, and there forget the ineffectual struggles of middle life.

I run the risk of being trite in saying that the city must be recruited from the country, but this fact is brought out with startling clearness when some great crisis urges from the backwoods or far frontier a man hitherto unknown. Sometimes all the powers and virtues of city and country are centred in one rare human being, like Abraham Lincoln, and we have the phenomenon, appearing once only in many centuries, of a perfectly balanced man, native and at home in city and country alike, having the virtues of each, the vices of neither.

As in many other instances, the scientific view coincides with the traditional and intuitional one. Scientific men have for some time been investigating the growth of the central nervous system, and they conclude that the human brain contains more or less undeveloped cells.

Now these cells are supposed to develop in proportion as the environment affords proper exercise, and, while environment is relative, yet certain surroundings are deemed in general best for the growth of these cells. It is beyond question that

some kinds of environment afford more chances for the central nervous system to develop than others, and the country, especially in summer, seems to appeal to all the senses more effectually than any city ever could. Everything is presented in its most appropriate setting in the country, and the proper stimulus is found for each budding sense. Life on a farm is the ideal way of spending the summer, since it presents more opportunities for the symmetrical development of the senses than any other surrounding. Yet continuous farm life will frequently disclose as many drawbacks as uninterrupted city life. It is the change of environment which acts as a spur to growth, and this selection of the environment of the child cannot be too strongly insisted upon. The number of poets whose creative powers have been stimulated by their life in the country is very large. Milton and Shakespeare, Victor Hugo and Wordsworth, were keenly alive to these aids, and their intimate knowledge of nature's homely secrets shows how well their senses were trained in early youth. Even plants and animals need an occasional change of environment, and Darwin is our authority for saying that the most symmetrical animal and vegetable growth requires these periods of change.

On the whole, character growth has the best of it in the country, and the parent or teacher whose noble function it is to forward such growth finds his beautiful task vastly lightened when the child is enabled to pass at regular intervals from city to country life. This would seem the ideal way to live, and by means of this gentle and habitual passage from the culture of books and school to the culture of kindly nature, the character and the senses would grow into fair and beautiful symmetry.

But living in the country does not in itself make us virtuous or wise; we have strayed too far from nature to slip back at once into the habits and instincts of our more fortunate ancestors; we need a teacher, a guide, to open our dull senses and direct us till we can read the secrets ourselves. But when we have cast off the artificialities of city life and have given ourselves humbly into the care of Mother Nature, then will she reward her child with her infinite treasures of knowledge, health, beauty, and virtue.

CARINA B. C. EAGLESFIELD.

INDIANAPOLIS.

Digitized by Google

A GREAT MUNICIPAL ENTERPRISE—THE BROOKLINE PUBLIC BATHS

IN NO way can we come into closer touch with nature than when in the embrace of pure water. It is unnecessary to speak of the many benefits which follow a free and wise use of the bath. Yet, although so universally recognized, they do not seem to have appealed effectually to us in this age. The Greeks and Romans appreciated their value more highly. It is hard to realize what great provisions were made by the Roman emperors for public bathing. The establishment of great bathing-places was a bid for popularity. The Emperor Caracalla built baths in which nearly two thousand persons could be accommodated at one time. The benches for the bathers in some of the Roman baths were as long as a New York block. In our day, however, the few public swimming-baths in the United States are open for but a few months in summer, and are rather makeshifts than institutions.

The Brookline bath is entirely different from those just referred to. It is such a beautiful place, has been so admirably ordered, and has accomplished so much for health, pleasure, and training in the art of swimming, that a description of it ought to interest all who desire the physical improvement of the race. Such an account may also be the means of making the Brookline institution known to the public and the officials of other municipalities, so that it may serve as a model for similar establishments elsewhere. To this end it is thought advisable to quote very freely from the printed regulations, inasmuch as its great success is undoubtedly largely due to the wisdom, careful consideration, and forethought which is evident in every line.

Brookline is a beautiful residence suburb of Boston, having its own municipal government. It would be difficult to find a place which is better ordered, or where there is greater uniformity of excellence. A tumble-down house, an unkempt, disorderly-looking yard, or even an unattractive-looking spot, is rare within its limits. It may well be assumed that in a town of such character no new scheme could be adopted until the authorities had thoroughly examined the proposed enterprise and had found it to be in conformity with

the established standard, and it was in this careful spirit that the project of a municipal bath-house, to be kept open for public use every day in the year except Sundays, and to be equipped with all the latest improvements, including a large natatorium, was examined and passed upon. How well the authorities of Brookline have succeeded in their undertaking is evident to all who enter the beautiful building which has crowned their work.

So far as the writer could learn, no municipal enterprise of this character, providing all-the-year-round swimming facilities, had ever before been attempted in this country. A very few cities—notably Yonkers and Buffalo—had municipal baths open the year round, but these were cleanliness baths. They contained no perennial swimming facilities, and, without these, very many who would bathe if such facilities were furnished would not be attracted. Bathing was in these places a duty rather than a source of enjoyment and revivification.

Swimming is an accomplishment which should be acquired by everyone. The consciousness that one possesses the ability to swim imparts confidence and calmness in the presence of impending danger upon the water. Besides this, swimming is a form of exercise which greatly promotes health and strength. For these reasons every public bathing establishment should provide for instruction in this important art.

At the Brookline town meeting of the 24th of October, 1895, the report of the Committee on Improved Bathing Facilities was adopted, and in January, 1897, the completed building was opened for public use. The population of Brookline was then about seventeen thousand. The structure which was erected was large and substantial, of handsome exterior, and with the best interior finish. Its size was more than sufficient to accommodate all local demands.

The site chosen was in the centre of the town population, adjoining the public playground and the high-school building. In construction and furnishing, the sum of \$43,000 was expended, the land being already owned by the town.

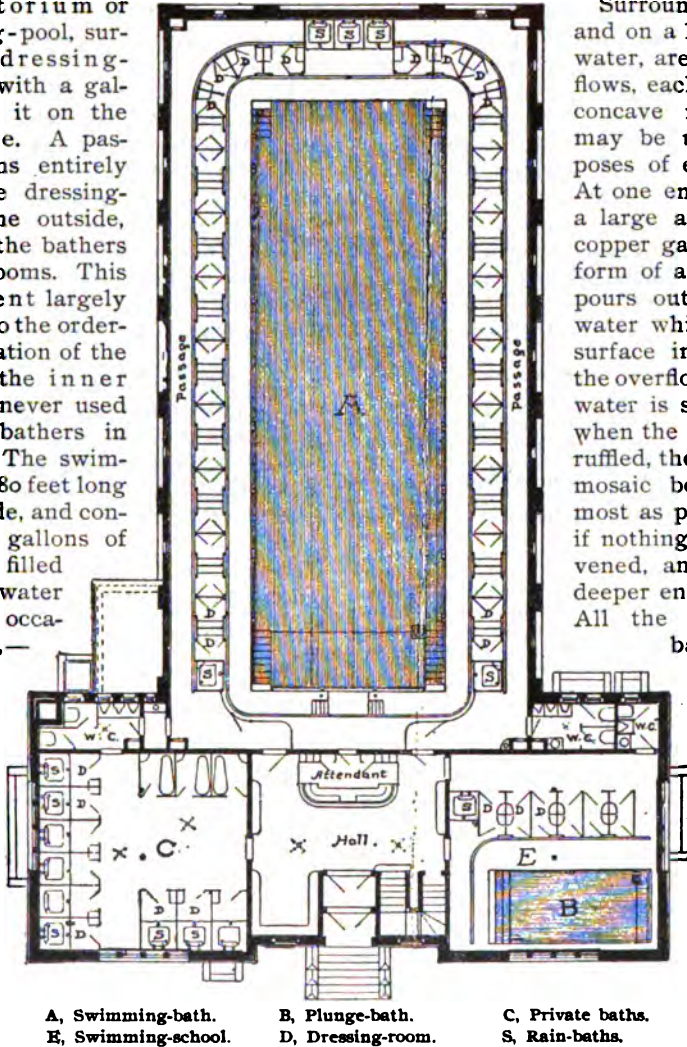
The bath house is of brick, faced with stone, and is 124 feet long and 82 feet in width. Within, one enters a main hall by a door and vestibule in the centre of the front. On each side of this hall are rain or shower baths, private baths, and a plunge bath. In front is the manager's desk, and beyond that is the natatorium or swimming-pool, surrounded by dressing-rooms, and with a gallery around it on the floor above. A passageway runs entirely around the dressing-rooms on the outside, from which the bathers enter their rooms. This arrangement largely contributes to the orderly administration of the place, for the inner platform is never used except by bathers in costume. The swimming-pool is 80 feet long by 26 feet wide, and contains 70,000 gallons of water. It is filled with fresh water as often as occasion requires,—four times a week or oftener in summer. The sides of the pool are of the best white glazed brick, and the bottom is of white adamantine mosaic with a small flower or figure. The steps

State, and with the names of the great men of the world who were also great swimmers,—Julius Cæsar, Charlemagne, Benjamin Franklin, and others. The swimmer who floats upon his back in the translucent water of this pool may read upon the walls appropriate extracts from great writers.

Surrounding the bath, and on a level with the water, are marble overflows, each with a deep concave recess, which may be used for purposes of expectoration. At one end of the pool a large and handsome copper gargoye, in the form of a sea monster, pours out a stream of water which carries all surface impurities into the overflow basins. The water is so clear that, when the surface is unruffled, the details of the mosaic bottom are almost as plainly seen as if nothing but air intervened, and this at the deeper end of the pool. All the floors of the bathing enclosure are of granolithic material; ventilation is secured by large windows above; and everything throughout the establishment is in perfect taste.

The record of baths for the last year

was over 45,000. During the summer of 1898 it averaged about 1,500 per week. The secret of the preservation of cleanliness with so large a number of bathers is revealed in the wise regulations, which are strictly enforced, and, we may add, are willingly observed. Each applicant for bathing receives a key to a dressing-room, towels, and a bathing-dress, and,



A, Swimming-bath.
E, Swimming-school.

B, Plunge-bath.
D, Dressing-room.

C, Private baths.
S, Rain-baths.

GROUND PLAN OF BATH-HOUSE

after disrobing, hies him to the rain-bath, whence he emerges cleansed and ready for the enjoyment of the large pool.

In the atmosphere of high refinement this public bath is surpassed by no private bathing-establishment elsewhere, a condition entirely due to the regulations and their strict observance.* No boisterous conduct is permitted, but natural enjoyment is encouraged, and the place is replete with it. A long chute or trough of close-grained, hard wood, about twenty-five feet long, slants from the second story of the swimming-hall at an angle of about 30°, and is constantly lubricated by a thin stream of water which trickles over it. Only three prescribed positions, which are delineated on engraved diagrams, are allowed on the chute, and no accident has ever occurred from its use. The bather takes his position at the top of the chute;

* RULES AND REGULATIONS.

1. All persons must wear bathing-suits or trunks of cotton, mohair, Danish cloth, or other material without nap, and of colors (preferably blue, gray, black, or white) such as will not run.

2. No person who is ill, or in the least indisposed, should enter the swimming-tank.

3. Every bather, before entering the swimming or instruction tanks, is required to take a warm shower-bath with soap, and to wash his feet. All soap should be washed off the body before leaving the cleanliness bath. The time limit for use of the rain-bath is three minutes for men and boys, and five minutes for women and girls.

4. The maximum time in the swimming-tank must not exceed thirty minutes, and there must be no unnecessary lingering in or about the dressing-rooms.

5. Quiet and gentlemanly deportment will be expected of all patrons of the establishment. Yelling, running, pushing into the water, and other boisterous or dangerous practices, will not be tolerated.

6. Bathers unable to swim should enter only at the shallow end of the tank.

7. Spitting into the water, or any other defilement of the water or floor, will be cause for immediate expulsion; cuspidores are conveniently located around the tank at the water level and in the dressing-rooms. The use of tobacco in any form is forbidden in any part of the building, and dogs are not allowed entrance.

8. Diving or jumping from the gallery is absolutely forbidden, and great care should be exercised by beginners when diving from the springboard, under which the water is six feet deep.

9. Any injury to the establishment, such as scratching or breaking the windows or mirrors, or scribbling on the walls of the dressing-rooms, will be charged to the person responsible for it.

10. Valuables may be deposited with the superintendent or his representative; but the town will take no responsibility for articles lost or stolen in the building. The management, while using every precaution, will not be responsible for injury to any person from the use or abuse of the facilities offered.

11. The inner passageway around the tank is to be used only by bathers.

12. The superintendent and his assistants are required to enforce the above rules, and to do everything else in their power for the comfort and welfare of patrons. All complaints and recommendations should be over the maker's signature, addressed to the committee, and deposited in the box provided for the purpose.

There are also some valuable suggestions in the leaflet from which the above rules are condensed.

there is a twenty-five-foot dash, and an exciting plunge into the water. This not only furnishes pastime, but trains the nerves for sudden accidental falls into water.

The daily appointments for various classes of bathers are fully set forth in the regulations.* The usual charges range from five to fifteen cents,† but precisely the same service is given for the money in each case.

There are also provisions for those who cannot afford to pay even the minimum fee. At stated hours anyone may have a rain or shower bath free, and this is a privilege which is largely availed of. There is a wise discrimination in the charges which enables those who desire to bathe at a time when there are comparatively few present, to do so. A matron is in attendance during the hours for women and girls.

There are also hours provided for private baths (rain-baths and tub-baths) for either sex, for swimming instruction in classes of four, and for special individual instruction. Non-resident bathers are charged the uniform fee of twenty-five cents.

Even were this most attractive municipal creation an expensive one, its results would justify a considerable expense, but,

* HOURS FOR USE OF NATATORIUM AND PRIVATE BATHS.

Summer Arrangement, from July 1 to September 15.

Monday.

9.30 A.M. to 1 P.M. For women and girls, 15 cents.

2 to 6 P.M. Men and boys, 5 cents.

6.30 to 10 P.M. Women, and girls over 16 years, 10 cents.

Tuesday.

9 A.M. to 1 P.M. Men and boys, 5 cents.

2 to 5 P.M. Women and girls, 5 cents.

5 to 10 P.M. Men, and boys over 16 years, 10 cents.

Wednesday.

9.30 A.M. to 1 P.M. Women and girls, 15 cents.

2 to 6 P.M. Men and boys, 5 cents.

6 to 10 P.M. Men, and boys over 16, 10 cents.

Thursday.

9.30 A.M. to 1 P.M. Women and girls, 5 cents.

2 to 6 P.M. Men and boys, 15 cents.

6 to 10 P.M. Brookline Swimming Club, 50 cents, except to members of the Club.

Friday.

9.30 A.M. to 1 P.M. Women and girls, 10 cents.

2 to 6 P.M. Men and boys, 5 cents.

6 to 10 P.M. Men, and boys over 16, 15 cents.

Saturday.

9 A.M. to 12.30 P.M. Men and boys, 5 cents.

1 to 5 P.M. Women and girls, 5 cents.

5 to 10 P.M. Men, and boys over 16, 10 cents.

† The bathing fee includes the charge for suits, soap, and towels.

like many other simple and good things, it bids fair to become self-supporting. It has been so for the past summer months, and it is hoped and believed that it may ultimately become so for the entire year. In such event it will be not only a direct

establishments. All the good points which were found in these were incorporated in the plan adopted for the Brookline Public Baths, and after their erection Dr. Chase visited many of the principal municipal bathing-places in Europe; but he found



THE NATATORIUM
(Showing about two thirds of the swimming-hall.)

benefit to the inhabitants of the town in increased health and enjoyment, but may prove a profitable investment.

An indication of the excellent lines on which this institution has been planned is found in the fact that it is patronized by all classes. The rich send their young sons and daughters to be educated in swimming; the Brookline Swimming Club has a weekly rendezvous there; and all, young and old, rich and poor, use it without social prejudice and with an intelligent recognition of its advantages.

Mr. J. P. Fletcher, the swimming-instructor, served in the same capacity in the British army for many years. The Prussian method is the one adopted by him.

The construction and successful working of the baths are largely due to the efforts of Dr. Walter Channing, Chairman of the Public Baths Committee, and Dr. A. Lincoln Chase, of Brookline, who visited many of the best public and private baths in the United States, and obtained, by correspondence, the plans, descriptions, and reports of the best European

none, of the same size, that were superior to those in Brookline. He found, however, that the cities of England were far in advance of the rest of the world in respect to public bathing facilities. Every town of any importance in that country has one or more public baths which have a swimming-pool and are open the year round.

In our own country interest in this subject is beginning to awaken and is becoming more and more widespread. It may well be claimed that no better model for imitation has been devised than the Brookline Public Baths, and it is to be hoped that many American towns, small and large, will follow the example outlined in these pages. Why should not every city have its public baths in each ward, especially if, as is likely, they could be made paying investments? Without doubt, the motto which the Brookline authorities have chosen for their institution is true: "The health of the people is the beginning of happiness."

WILLIAM B. CROSBY.

NEW YORK.

VICTORIAN THOUGHT AND THINKERS*

III.—CONFLICTING TENDENCIES

DURING the last three decades Victorian thought has been a medley of contradictions, a chaotic assortment of incongruous elements. It has been in a state of confusion and transition. Reconstruction has gone on, but attended by friction and misgivings,—so hard is it for thinkers to change their point of view. There has been a reluctant abandonment of antiquated notions and a grudging recognition of the claims of new theories. One intellectual fashion after another has come and gone, but Evolution seems to have the staying quality that makes it one of the permanent factors of philosophy.

Of late years eclecticism has been the order of the day. Thinkers have sought to find a meeting-ground between hostile sects. They have endeavored to effect the harmony of rival systems by making concessions to both sides. One attempt after another has been made to reconcile Genesis and Geology, Christianity and Evolution, Theism and Monism, Darwinism and Hegelianism, Free-will and Determinism, etc., by such scholarly writers as Drummond, Fairbairn, Ritchie, Caillard, and others. Praiseworthy as their attempts may be, they can hardly be looked upon as anything more than temporary makeshifts, owing to the rapid growth of knowledge and the necessity of frequent revision. The need of going slow is a lesson that has been forced upon theologians and philosophers alike. Even the later Positivists, belying their name, have been more or less unsettled in their views. Glaring inconsistencies and strange contrasts remain. It is the function of philosophy to sift out what is valuable in the mass of old and new opinions. The process of readjustment is made easier by the more judicial and catholic spirit of the present time. There is still conflict, but the period of bitter controversy has passed, to make way for an era characterized by wise tolerance and increasing liberality as well as by a more rigid scrutiny of facts and phenomena.

The old ways of thinking still flourished in the 'sixties, as Mill bore witness in his exposition of "The Positive Philosophy of

Auguste Comte."* The scientific leaven was at work, yet it encountered much opposition. Impressed by the unscientific character of some of the utterances of George Henry Lewes and Herbert Spencer, he observes regretfully: "We must admit that the metaphysical mode of thought still rules the higher philosophy, even in the department of inorganic nature, and far more in all that relates to man as a moral, intellectual, and social being."

About this time the cry was heard in Germany, "Back to Kant!" In England it was "Back to Hegel!" and its echoes resounded in the United States. The reign of the speculative or *a priori* method was not over, notwithstanding all that the Positivists had done. The leader of the Hegelian movement in Britain was James Hutchison Stirling, whose masterly work, "The Secret of Hegel," appeared in 1865. Others followed, whose writings and translations did something to effect a revival of interest in German Idealism. The more influential and learned of the Neo-Hegelians in Britain are T. H. Green, A. C. Fraser, John Caird, Edward Caird, F. H. Bradley, William Knight, Bernard Bosanquet, William Wallace, Andrew Seth, J. S. Mackenzie, and D. G. Ritchie. Nor have students and admirers of Hegel been wanting in the New World. Some of the prominent representatives of Hegelianism in America are W. T. Harris, J. S. Kedney, G. S. Morris, G. H. Howison, J. M. Sterrett, James Seth, Josiah Royce, W. M. Bryant, W. D. Hyde, and John Watson. Various phases of Hegel's system have been reproduced in their teachings. There is evidence in abundance of the vitality of his thought. Though he is regarded by many as "a back number," there are elements of enduring value in his writings which make him a force in present-day speculation.

Meanwhile the battle has gone on between the Empiricists and the Intuitionists. Says Weber, in his "History of Philosophy," p. 594: "One phase of the history of metaphysics, the *a-prioristic*, intuitive, poetic period, is gone,—gone never to return." This statement is probably as true of the state of philosophy in England as in France. It has been a

* Continued from SELF CULTURE for March, 1899, Vol. IX, No. 1, p. 24.

* Westminster Review, April, 1865.

losing fight for Intuitionism. Positivism, reënforced by Darwinism, has given it the death-blow. But it dies hard. There still exist some thinkers of the old school, to whom the metaphysical shibboleths of the past are dear, but their days are numbered. Martineau remains as the only typical representative of the intuitional philosophers. In 1869, when the Metaphysical Society was founded, they were numerous in Great Britain. Foremost against the champions of the development theory of morals for many years was Professor Henry Calderwood (1830-1897).

As a result of much controversy among psychologists and moralists, there has been a shifting of ground on both sides. Recent Victorian thinkers — Sully, Sidgwick, Hodgson, Muirhead, and others — have shown a disposition to adopt features of both systems, the Utilitarian and the Intuitional, — so hard is it in a transition period for philosophers to be consistent

and true to their convictions, so hard is it for them to break away entirely from their old moorings. But the spell of Evolution is upon them. If Evolution be true, then the doctrine of innate ideas must be modified; some kind of empirical philosophy follows as a matter of course. The younger men of contemporary thinkers are more susceptible to the new spirit of the age. They find it easier to accept the latest conclusions of science and philosophy concerning the lowly origin of man.

Evolution is the organizing and informing principle of the new psychology and ethics. Alexander Bain, Herbert Spencer, W. B. Carpenter, Francis Galton, Henry Maudsley, G. J. Romanes, Croom Robertson, G. F. Stout, James Sully, James Ward, and others have made substantial contributions to the new mental



ALEXANDER BAIN, L.L.D.

science. The study of mind is now approached on the side of physiology, and a scientific method of investigation is followed. The sphere of psychological inquiry has been widened. Introspection is supplemented by experimental research. Psychology is still in a very backward stage, but its content has been greatly enlarged and enriched by the study of childhood, by the investigation of climatic and racial influences on primitive and civilized man, and by the consideration of problems of character and abnormal conditions. Metaphysical speculation is ruled out of the psychological laboratory of to-day. The old text-books of mental philosophy separated the mind into numerous compartments labelled as such and such faculties, much after the manner of the old-time maps of phrenology.

According to the newer view it is the man that thinks and wills. Perceiving, remembering, imagining, feeling, etc., are characteristics of mental activity. The unity of man's nature is emphasized. The functions of the intellect cannot be isolated. The diverse phenomena of the intellectual life all proceed from the self,—the whole self, not from a segment of the self. Conscience is the man at work on moral questions.

The successors of the Utilitarians—Darwin, Spencer, Leslie Stephen, W. K. Clifford, and other evolutionary Hedonists—have discussed with exceptional ability various aspects of ethical problems. They make much of the biological point of view, and have tried to formulate a "scientific basis of morals." While they admit that



THOMAS H. HUXLEY

"the moral sense is intuitive," it has become so through long ages of growth. As Mill puts it: "Though these moral intuitions are the results of accumulated experiences of utility, gradually organized and inherited, they have come to be quite independent of conscious experience."

Commenting on this passage, Herbert Spencer reaches the conclusion that Evolution enables him "to reconcile opposed moral theories." Conscience, or the "ethical instinct," is simply the individual dealing with matters of right and wrong. To the question, "What is right?" the Intuitionist answers, "What is reasonable,"—that is, what is in accordance with moral laws discovered and impressed by the reason. The Utilitarian answers, "What is useful"; and the Hedonist, "What is satisfactory." In the one case the source of "the sense of duty" is an abstract standard; in the other, it is personal profit or pleasure. Self-realization, the development of personality, is desirable, and yet it is frequently not a safe working principle of morals. At times

private interests must give way to those of the family, of the tribe, or the nation. This is variously called unselfishness, renunciation, and altruism. The oft-quoted phrase of Bentham, "the greatest good of the greatest number," is open to criticism. The good of the whole is a better maxim. In general it is true that the individual promotes his own welfare when he promotes the public welfare. The new ethical motive is the thought that one should do right, be honest, industrious, and self-sacrificing, for in so doing he is contributing something, be it ever so little, to the well-being of the community where he lives. In a larger sense, too, he is helping the progress of the world—yes, of the universe. Harmony with the world-order is his duty and his salvation.

To Professor Huxley belongs the credit of exposing some of the fallacies of Darwinism when applied to the world of morals. In consonance with Christian principles he discriminates sharply between conditions that prevail in civilized society and among savages and brutes.

Among human beings the struggle for life and subsistence has become increasingly an intermittent struggle; the individual recognizes more and more the rights of others. In his brilliant Romanes lecture on "Evolution and Ethics" (1894), Huxley remarks: "Whatever differences

of opinion may exist among experts, there is a general consensus that the ape and tiger methods of the struggle for existence are not reconcilable with sound ethical principles." There are ideals to be satisfied that make for the permanent good of the individual and the race. The bad citizen, being more aggressive and unscrupulous than the good one, occasionally outstrips him in the race for success. However, in the long run, the process of selection tends to wipe out the criminal and immoral. In the more advanced stage of the development of mankind, the considerate, law-abiding man stands a better show for survival. In a word, a different type of character has been gradually evolved, one more in keeping with an improved environment. As Huxley puts it: "Social progress means a checking of the cosmic process at every step, and the substitution for it of another, which may be called the ethical process; the end of which is not the survival of those who may happen to be the fittest in respect of the whole conditions which obtain, but of those who are ethically the best." This statement needs some qualification. The ethical process and the cosmic process are identical—their enmity has been exaggerated. The ruthlessness of Nature, like the extreme selfishness of man, is a mistake, and it means the loss of good material. "Are God and Nature then at strife?" asks Tennyson. While the law of Nature is sometimes kind and sometimes cruel, in the main it is beneficent.

The new logic of Mill, Bain, and Jevons is empirical, in that it lays stress on induction. Mill would challenge Emerson's transcendental dictum: "The soul is the perceiver and revealer of truth. We know truth when we see it." No, it is reached by a slow, laborious process on the part of the individual and the race. Mill applied the scientific method as an instrument for determining what is truth in the moral and metaphysical world. The thought of our time is critical rather than syllogistic. Pick out the facts that fit the case and draw the conclusion that they warrant,—this is the rule for right reasoning. The facts are gained by experience, observation, and experiment. Their value is ascertained by the same tests that physicists use in the realm of science. The usefulness of formal logic has been questioned, though the importance of deductive reasoning is indisputable. The

rules of Aristotle and other logicians are, indeed, helpful; they render a service to clear thinking. They put the student on his guard against hasty and ill-founded generalizations; they also induce greater precision of expression. But the machinery of the old syllogistic logic was too elaborate—it needed simplifying. It was often impractical. The great need of the present is the gathering of material on which to base judgment—hence the value of the inductive process. While the practice of detecting fallacies in long lists of propositions may sharpen the intellect, one finds in actual life that there are some absent factors required to constitute proof. Probability at best is all that can be claimed after the most thorough investigation of many problems, owing to the almost infinite complexity of details to be considered. The careful employment of the laws of thought, however, will avail to correct certain common errors of reasoning: (1) The fault of inferring the universal from the particular; (2) the *petitio principii*, or begging the question,—that is, so stating the case that the terms are more or less a repetition of each other; (3) the failure to see the true relation of cause and effect, the habit of attributing a phenomenon to circumstances which only partly account for the result or may be entirely irrelevant. By the reform of logic the Victorian Empiricists have performed a much-needed service. Jevons, following Boole, labored "toward the liberation of logic from the ban of metaphysics and its establishment as an exact science" by means of a mechanical application called the Logical Abecedarium.

The Victorian era must be looked upon as preëminently the age of science. The fruits and manifestations of the scientific spirit are manifest on every hand. The gulf between the past and the present is well illustrated by the Bridgewater Treatises, published in the 'thirties and 'forties. Great is the contrast between these books and the scientific and philosophical writings of our time. A comparison of the articles on science contributed to the eighth and ninth editions of the "Encyclopedia Britannica" shows how enormous have been the advances in knowledge and in methods of research during the last half century.

The scientific temper has been cultivated and developed as never before, and yet it has not saved the present genera-

tion from certain excrescences of thought and action that characterized the people of past ages. The last two decades have witnessed what may be called an unscientific outbreak of Occultism. In spite of the counteracting agency of physical science, Spiritualism has put forth extraordinary pretensions. Notwithstanding the plain teachings of astronomy and chemistry, there are still those who believe in astrology and alchemy. The years that bring the scientific mind have also brought such eccentricities as Theosophy and Christian Science. Notwithstanding the practical trend of the age, the genus mystic is not yet extinct. But the new mysticism is different from the old; it has a tincture of the modern spirit and names itself "psychical science." The "night side of nature" has been scientifically investigated. Interest has been aroused in the study of such phenomena as apparitions, haunted houses, clairvoyance, mind-reading, telepathy, etc., with the view of discovering the underlying laws of these mysteries and wonders. The new psychology occupies itself with unconscious cerebration, the subliminal self, and the alleged susceptibility of the soul to strange

impressions variously interpreted as reminiscences of a former life or communications from the spirit-world.

There have ever been enthusiasts and humbugs who prey on human weakness and credulity, and such are still to be found whose capital consists of things which the ordinary practical mind feels like classifying as rubbish. It is not surprising that sorcery and the black art still flourish among savage tribes of Indians and Africans, when so many persons living in civilized lands are subject to delusions exploded centuries ago. Like a piece of belated mediævalism, superstition lingers in some quarters of the globe supposed to be enlightened. Science and philosophy have much yet to do to dissipate the darkness of error that envelops myriads of the ignorant and erratic. To take less stock in the unreal is a motto that countless numbers of educated Englishmen and Americans have yet to learn. Though the progress of exact knowledge is making havoc with the vagaries of loose thinking, the investigating spirit is far too rare in our own day,—the spirit that can say, "I have loved the truth and sought it diligently."

EUGENE PARSONS.

CHICAGO.

MAY DAY

IT MAY not be generally known that the first day of May is a festival in honor of an American "saint," canonized by that strictly American method, popular acclamation. The colonial troops under George Washington, having deprived themselves of the patronage of St. George by their rebellion, cast about for a saint of their own. Their choice fell on Tamina or Tamanend, a sagamore of the Delaware Indians, who, tradition says, had whipped the devil. Naturally the soldiers concluded that the conqueror of the devil could also vanquish St. George and the dragon.

According to tradition the war waged between St. Tamina and the devil lasted for many moons, and the conflict was so fierce that whole forests were trampled by them into prairies. St. Tamina finally came off victorious, and the devil retired in confusion to Manhattan Island, where he received a hearty welcome. From that time forth St. Tamina was the hero

of his people, and his many good qualities were quoted as examples for emulation.

The colonial troops inscribed the name of St. Tamina upon their banners, and held celebrations in his honor on the first day of May. These celebrations were a combination of the Indian war dance and the old English May-Day frolics. The May-pole was crowned with a liberty cap, and was hung with wampum and bucks' tails, and bore a tomahawk, instead of the garlands of flowers used to decorate the English May-pole. The observance was kept up by the army until the war of 1812, when General Dearborn put a stop to it because of the debauchery it fostered among the troops.

The army was not alone in doing honor to the "saint." His virtues were sung by poets, and his life was dramatized and appeared on the stage in many places. Societies bearing his name were formed, which largely took the place of the modern club.

"There's a barrel of porter in Tammany Hall,
And the Buck-tails are swigging it all the night
long.
In the time of my childhood 'twas pleasant to call
For a seat and cigar 'mid the jovial throng"—

—wrote Halleck. And Eddis wrote soon after the Revolution:

"Besides our regular assemblies every mark of attention is paid to the patron saint of each parent dominion; and St. George, St. Andrew, St. Patrick, and St. David are celebrated with every partial mark of national attachment. General invitations are given, and the appearance is always numerous and splendid. The Americans on this part of the continent have likewise a saint, whose history, like those of the above remarkable characters, is lost in sable uncertainty. The first of May is, however, set apart to the memory of St. Tamina, on which occasion the natives wear a piece of buck's tail in their hat or in some conspicuous situation. During the course of the evening, and generally in the midst of a dance, the company are interrupted by the sudden intrusion of a number of persons habited like Indians, who rush violently into the rooms, singing the war-song, giving the whoop, and dancing in the style of those people, after which ceremony a collection is made and they retire, well satisfied with their reception and entertainment."

The wearing of bucks' tails was perhaps an imitation of the English "wearing of the May"; and the largess demanded may have been in memory of the custom in some parts of England, when the boys cried, "Ha'penny, a penny, or a good wet back," on meeting any pedestrian without his "May." Unless the unlucky wight speedily responded to the demand, he was drenched with water from the "dipping-horns" by the boys. These "dipping-horns" were bullocks' horns attached to a long stick and carried full of water dipped up from the ditch. Not much time was allowed the victim for producing the "ha'penny, penny," as the boys would much rather give him "a good wet back." Before the "dipping" could be done, the consent of the mayor was necessary, and the bolder spirits among the boys appeared before him, asking "Please, sir, may we dip?" According to time-honored custom the mayor replied, "Certainly—anyone without the 'May'; but don't dip anyone else or you'll get into trouble."

The "May" was a sprig of green gathered in the early morning and worn all day. In some places a branch of the narrow-leaved elm was gathered, in others the bloom of the hawthorn was the "May." Hawthorn was also used to

decorate the houses on May Day; and the expedition into the grove after it was called "going a-Maying," and the carrying of it home was "bringing in the May," while the hawthorn bloom came to be called "May."

Even Henry VIII and Queen Elizabeth went "a-Maying" and held May games. The erecting of a May-pole was a matter of course, and it sometimes stood until the following May Day. Young men and maidens danced around the May-pole with flowers and songs. The most attractive maiden was chosen "Queen of the May," homage being paid her as long as the day lasted. This choosing of a May queen may have been a relic of the pagan custom of Rome when the goddess Flora was especially worshipped.

The observance of May Day was general in England until the Puritans of the Commonwealth put a stop to the festivities and uprooted the May-poles. The custom was revived after the Restoration, but was not so universal, and has nearly if not entirely died out.

The rugged Puritans of New England did battle with the May-pole also. To them it was an emblem of satanic rule, and all who danced about it were consigned to eternal flames without mercy. In such an inhospitable atmosphere it could not flourish long, and soon became a thing of the past.

The custom of giving "May baskets," however, continued down to a generation ago, and for aught we know may still be observed in some States. A basket, tastefully arranged with flowers, was left by the love-sick swain at the door of his lady-love; children tied baskets and bouquets on the door-knob of the house wherein dwelt their playmates; and friends remembered each other by gifts and flowers on May Day morning.

Perhaps May Day has been more universally observed in America as "moving-day" than in any other manner. The following comical account of it is given by Irving in his "Knickerbocker":

"It having been solemnly resolved that the seat of empire should be removed from the green shores of Pavonia to the pleasant island of Mana-hata, everybody was anxious to embark under the standard of Oloffe the Dreamer, and to be among the first sharers of the promised land. A day was appointed for the grand migration, and on that day little Communipaw was in a buzz and a bustle like a hive in

swarming-time. Houses were turned inside out and stripped of the venerable furniture which had come from Holland; all the community, great and small, black and white, man, woman, and child, was in commotion, forming lines from the houses to the water-side, like lines of ants from an ant-hill; everybody was laden with some article of household furniture; while the busy housewives plied backwards and forwards along the lines, helping everything forward by the nimbleness of their tongues.

By degrees a fleet of boats and canoes were piled up with all kinds of household articles; ponderous tables, chests of drawers resplendent with brass ornaments; quaint corner cupboards; beds and bedsteads; with any quantity of pots, kettles, frying-pans, and Dutch

ovens. In each boat embarked a whole family, from the robustious burgher down to the cats, dogs, and little negroes. In this way they set off across the mouth of the Hudson, under the guidance of Oloffe the Dreamer, who hoisted his standard on the leading boat.

This memorable migration took place on the first of May, and has long been cited in tradition as the *grand moving*. The anniversary of it was piously observed among the 'sons of the pilgrims of Communipaw,' by turning their houses topsy-turvy and carrying all the furniture through the streets in emblem of the swarming of the parent hive; and this is the real origin of the universal agitation and 'moving' by which this most restless of cities is turned out of doors on every May Day."

EMMA SEEVERS JONES.

KENT, OHIO

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL AS AN AMERICAN LITERARY CRITIC

IN THE development of a national literature, creation necessarily precedes criticism. That there was no American criticism worthy of the name in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries is due to the fact that our creative literature was not yet sufficiently strong to give birth to it. In the middle of the present century, however, there was an imperative demand for a criticism that should act as a conservative and restraining force in the field of letters,—a criticism that should be comprehensive without being tedious, whose treatment should be articulate and clear, and pervaded by a critical insight at once catholic and accurate. With the demand came a supply. Longfellow, whom Richardson calls the incipient critical spirit in the United States, produced a few meritorious prose essays. Poe, with his thunderbolts, began the annihilation of whole armies of literary pygmies. A large class of reviewers sprang up, and literary criticism became a prominent feature of American journalism. Among the first and most active in this new movement was James Russell Lowell, who has long been regarded as the prince of American critics.

In this study of Mr. Lowell we shall seek for those elements of his genius and those qualities of his learning which especially fitted him for the work of a critic who should represent American culture in its broadest and deepest sense. We shall look for those characteristics which have given his critical works lasting value and caused them to be placed in every

library, while many literary reviewers contemporary with him are now —

"Tossed carelessly up on the waste-paper shelves,
Forgotten by all but their half-dozen selves."

In order to determine Mr. Lowell's title to the high position which has been accorded him among American men of letters, it is necessary to view him in the light of his relation to his time and to other literary men; for, as he himself says, "all criticism is comparative."

Macaulay declares that "it may be laid down as an almost universal rule that good poets are bad critics," but there are so many notable exceptions to this rule that it can hardly be regarded as "almost universal." Dryden, Coleridge, and Pope, while they are known principally as poets, have done critical work of no little value. Goethe and Matthew Arnold furnish notable examples of the felicitous union of the poetic and critical faculties. In America Macaulay's rule will not apply to E. C. Stedman or James Russell Lowell. On the contrary, I believe poetic insight is a very important qualification of a good critic. Mr. Lowell's works naturally fall into three classes: first, poetry based upon romantic or religious sentiment; second, political satires; and, third, essays and criticisms. A careful study of the latter cannot fail to reveal the fact that, as a critic, his insight was aided, strengthened, and given beauty and effectiveness of expression by the other two great faculties of his genius, the poetic and the satiric. Such penetrative, sympathetic, and exhaustive studies as he has

given us in the essays on Chaucer and Dante, for instance, could come only from one who knew something of the poet's heart from actual experience; and the effective use that may be made of pure satire as a critical weapon is, perhaps, nowhere better illustrated than in his criticism of Professor Masson, in the article on Milton, or in his unique sketch of Thoreau.

The greater part of Mr. Lowell's critical work has been published in five volumes, viz.: "A Fable for Critics," "Conversations on Some of the Old Poets," "Among My Books," Series 1 and 2, and "My Study Windows."

The "Fable," which Mr. Lowell calls a "slight *jeu d'esprit*," is a satire in verse on contemporary *literati*—"A Glance at a Few of our Literary Progenies [Mrs. Malaprop's word] from the Tub of Diogenes." Written very hurriedly, and with no thought of publication (as the author says, "purely for my own amusement"), it contains many commonplace rhymes and careless jingles. Its criticisms are, however, on the whole, characterized by candor, fairness, and accuracy. In almost every instance time has verified the wisdom of Lowell's judgments upon the "tuneful herd" of American authors passed under review. In dealing with his contemporaries he has shown his ability to satirize without, like Poe, being open to the charge of malevolence. His acute insight, together with his sensitive appreciation of true merit in literature, is finely illustrated by his glowing tribute to the rare strength of Hawthorne's genius, whom, he declares, it "is worth a descent from Olympus to meet." The fact that this was written at a time when the name of Hawthorne was almost unknown to the reading public, several years before the publication of the "Scarlet Letter," "The House of the Seven Gables," "The Blithedale Romance," and the "Marble Faun," adds all the more credit to Mr. Lowell as a literary judge. The respective places which Poe, Emerson, Holmes, Cooper, and many others occupy in the field of American literature to-day correspond very favorably with the positions which Lowell assigned them in the "Fable for Critics" nearly fifty years ago. In his riper years, however, he saw that he had done injustice in some cases, and, as early as 1855, in a letter to a friend, he acknowledged that he had underestimated Bryant as a poet, and

expressed a hope of rectifying the matter in the near future.

The criticism contained in the "Conversations on the Old Poets," Lowell's first critical work in prose, while not so searching and penetrative as that of his later writings, shows his appreciation of the best elements in literature, and at the same time furnishes evidence of his extended acquaintance with early English authors little known in America at that time. Yet, what Richardson calls "the sentimentality of the time" seems to have given the "Conversations" a slight tinge of sentiment, and there is in them a kind of archaic spirit that seems like a reflection from Landor's "Conversations" or some of Lamb's quaint essays. In this Lowell has, I think, laid himself open to his own criticism on certain modern poets, who, he says, "seem to have plagiarized from the cheesemongers, who inoculate their new cheeses with a bit of mould, to give them the flavor of old ones."

But a fair estimate of Mr. Lowell as a critic cannot be made from the ardent generalizations of his early works, for they do not represent the maturity of his mind. They simply show how firmly and resolutely he placed his foot on the first round of the ladder, and give no evidence of the height to which he was to climb. His successive works show a marked progress, both in method of treatment and modes of thought. In his later essays we find him at his best. In them the breadth of his intellect, the versatility of his genius, and the strength of his personality are most apparent, and it is largely upon these later works—"My Study Windows" and the two volumes of "Among My Books"—that we must base our judgments of him as an American literary critic.

In the first place let us note the bearing of Mr. Lowell's scholarship upon his critical work. No other American writer has possessed such a comprehensive knowledge of the various literatures of the world, ancient, mediæval, and modern. Longfellow undoubtedly had a more extended acquaintance with foreign literature than any American of his time with the exception of Lowell. He was, however, properly speaking, an expository writer; his ability lay more in his power to describe than to make clear discriminations or draw fine critical distinctions. His reputation as a poet completely overshadows his comparatively meagre critical

attainments. Poe's scholarship was inferior to Lowell's in point of exactness. Richard Grant White excelled as a student and critic of Shakespeare. E. P. Whipple, Charles Dudley Warner, E. C. Stedman, W. D. Howells, Brander Matthews, and a score of others, have wielded the critical lance from some special vantage-ground; yet none has been fortified by such an impregnable bulwark of erudition or has held in reserve such a force of culture and scholarship as Mr. Lowell.

His culture was so broad and cosmopolitan for the time in which he wrote that many have regarded him as un-American. "Taken as a whole," says Professor Dowden, "the works of Lowell do not mirror the life, the thoughts, and the passions of the nation." He regards them as the productions of a writer "who admires the institutions and has faith in the ideas of America, but who cannot throw off his allegiance to the old country and its authorities." It is generally conceded to-day, however, that, in point of culture, New England never produced a truer son. George W. Curtis calls him an "intense New Englander," and says there is "no finer figure of the higher Puritan type." In a letter to Mr. Joel Benton (Jan. 19, 1876), Lowell very tersely said, "If I am not an American, who ever was?" As a representative of refinement and learning, as well as in the breadth and catholicity of his mind and the acuteness of his insight, he holds a position in America similar to that of Sainte-Beuve in France and Matthew Arnold in England. Emerson was undoubtedly the best representative of American thought; Lowell, of American scholarship and critical insight; and, aided by such men as Whipple, Ripley, and Stedman, he has given our critical literature that cosmopolitan spirit so zealously advocated by Mr. Arnold.

Incapable of preferring a contemplation of the surface to a knowledge of the internal springs, he declared that "the study of literature, that it may be fruitful, . . . must be a study of ideas, not of words, of periods rather than of men." Like Virgil, he believed that "happy is he who can trace all things to their causes," — "*Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas*," — and his own scholarship served him as an invaluable means to the realization of this end. It was a never-failing fountain from which he might draw, not facts alone, but that abundance of illustration and met-

aphor so characteristic of all his writings. Matthew Arnold thought a critic should know one great language and literature besides his own — as different as possible from his own; but Lowell went far beyond this requirement and mastered several foreign literatures through the channels of their respective languages. He knew Plato and Aristotle, Homer, Virgil, and Dante. He could discuss the old provincial poets with the freshness and fervor of a personal "write-up" in the morning paper. Goethe and Cervantes were his constant companions, and he seemed as familiar with Rousseau and the Sentimentalists as with Bryant and Emerson. Mr. Charles Eliot Norton, who was associated with him as editor of the "North American Review," went so far as to say of him that "the abundance of his resources as a critic in the highest sense have never been surpassed; at least in English literature." The result is that his page is a field ripe with the fruit of his own learning and illuminated by such side-lights as were furnished by the various phases of his genius.

Some over-zealous critics have called him the "most Shakespearean man since Shakespeare," but, unlike the great dramatist, whose genius is marked by its "grand impersonality," Lowell has placed upon every page of his writings his own indelible and inimitable stamp. True, Shakespeare has endowed his characters with intense personal qualities. Macbeth's ambition and Hamlet's shrewdness are to us attributes that mark the personality of a real Macbeth and a real Hamlet, and not the characters in a book, yet the personality of Shakespeare himself is nowhere revealed. He has given us no clue to his own soul. How different with Lowell! To say nothing of his poetical works, his critical essays seem like a life-size portrait of a man whose *solamen vite* was pure literature — a man with a penetrating, discriminating eye rendered more expressive by a vivid and sympathetic imagination.

In all his critical works he has revealed himself as preëminently an optimist. His was "a nature sloping to the southern side," and such a man is never mocking or carping in his criticisms. "As you will find it more wholesome in life, and more salutary to your own character," said he, "to study the virtues than the defects of your friends, so in literature it seems to me wiser to look for an author's strong

points than his weak ones, and to consider that every man, as the French say, is liable to have the defects of his qualities." We cannot but note the contrast between this optimistic view of the critical function and that taken by Longfellow, who says, "The strength of criticism lies only in the weakness of the thing criticised."

To quote Lowell again: "A true scholar should be able to value Wordsworth for his depth of sympathy with nature, without, therefore, losing all power to enjoy the sparkling shallowness of Pope; he should be able to feel the beauty of Herbert's puritanism, the marked picturesqueness of his style, and yet not refuse to be delighted with the sensuous paganism of Herrick."

We might multiply examples to illustrate the gentle optimism and broad sympathy of Lowell's personality. Yet on the other hand there is much in his Essays to suggest a strong masculine temperament. His judgments are bold and independent, and he does not hesitate to apply the scourge of his satire with great vigor when he deems it necessary to the exposure of literary shams. Ever on the alert, his Argus-eyed vigilance could detect both faults and virtues at a glance.

Let us take, for example, his essay on Carlyle. Though it bears marks of hasty preparation, and is, on the whole, inferior to some of his other essays, it furnishes many good illustrations of the masculine as well as the more effeminate features of his nature. It also suggests the neutralizing influence of his sympathetic optimism upon any iconoclastic tendencies he may have had, and the equilibrium his faculties seemed at all times to maintain. He boldly declares that "since 'Sartor Resartus' Mr. Carlyle has done little but repeat himself"; he points out his defects as a critic and historian, and traces in the peculiarities of thought, sentiment, and style, indications of character, and finds a decided pessimistic tendency. He affirms that Carlyle "has come at last to believe in brute force as the only reality"; he resorts to the most "withering sarcasm" when he says, "Saul, seeking his father's asses, found himself turned into a king; but Mr. Carlyle, on looking for a king, seems to find the other sort of animals."

If it would seem, from selected passages of this kind, that Mr. Lowell's own mind

had taken a cynical turn, all such thoughts vanish when, in the spirit of charity that everywhere pervades his criticism, he assures us "we do not mean to blame him for it." If his adverse criticism is independent and his satire bold, his commendation is equally bold and independent, and throughout is an evident desire to render just judgments. Note, for example, the following with reference to Mr. Carlyle: "With all deductions he remains the profoundest critic and most dramatic imagination of modern times"; "No other writer compares with him for vividness"; and, "With the gift of song Carlyle would have been the greatest of epic poets since Homer."

A gentleman once, being asked what most impressed him in regard to Matthew Arnold, said, "He was the most genuine human being I ever knew." That same "genuine human" element, that strong personality, is everywhere prominent in Lowell's writings. It not only augments their moral and æsthetic value, but it gives them a certain vividness, and throws about them a charm that one feels when in the presence of great and imaginative minds. It is impossible to read such essays as those on Dryden, Shakespeare, Carlyle, and Dante, without forming a mental image of the learned, polished, and generous professor and editor.

The question naturally suggests itself as to what were Lowell's critical methods. When he began writing, there were no "schools" of American critics, no established methods or rules of criticism. Nor, so far as I am able to learn, did he ever attempt to formulate an ironclad code of critical rules. He never introduced his books with a prefatory declaration of principles, as so many others have done; and, if, in his early criticisms, he tried to follow any specific rules, it is safe to say that, like Dryden, he "followed them at a distance," and in his more mature writings abandoned them almost wholly. He acknowledged that a man may be measured as an artist according to standards, but says "there is something in his genius that is incalculable."

The principles upon which his critical methods may be said to have been based are broad and flexible; they are general rather than specific. He believed that "the object of criticism is not to criticise but to understand," or, as Matthew Arnold puts it, "to learn and propagate the

best that is known and thought in the world." His aim was to study men and ideas for the purpose of finding, not what they might have been, but what they really were and what made them so.

In many of his essays, the one on Chaucer, for instance, his method is primarily one of comparative analysis. The prevailing idea is to dissect, to analyze, to compare; while in his discussion of Dante he has made the comparative method less prominent, and has sought to put himself so in sympathy with the great Florentine, to enter so completely into his spirit, as to be able to interpret the allegory of his "mystic unfathomable song," and determine the motives that actuated his literary and moral life.

The first method is that of the laboratory and dissecting-room. You see the critic, as it were, stretch his subject on the table before you; you listen while he reads a lecture on the development of the particular species which he is to dissect, and the probable effect of environment upon it; you watch him as he proceeds with the dissection, now studying and comparing carefully prepared sections under the microscope, noting both virtues and defects, now applying his satiric scalpel with remarkable skill and aptness, now making vivid drawings and graphic illustrations which he holds up to your view. The strength of this method lies in the breadth of the critic's knowledge and judgment, the acuteness of his insight, and the correctness and skill of his analysis.

The second method is that which he had by virtue of his creative genius. Its value is conditioned upon sympathy, and imagination—sympathy for the author to be interpreted, and imagination which enables one to put himself in another's place and record his thoughts and feelings with the pen of a creative writer. This is the highest form of criticism and is closely allied to creation itself. The chief requisite of the creative writer is imagination; of the critic, sympathy: and each reaches his highest point of excellence when both of these elements enter into his work. The failure to recognize genius whenever and wherever it is met results from a lack of appreciation of its work. The sympathies of the critic have not been touched. The case of Robert Browning serves as an especially good illustration of the value of the sympathetic element in criticism.

For a long time he was unappreciated. The complexity of his style, his numerous elisions and omissions of words, and the foreignness of his subjects, brought upon him the severest criticism; and it was not till sympathy, aided by imagination, had opened the way for cold reason and analytical processes that critics were able to discover his genius.

The first of these two methods—that of comparative analysis—is largely objective in its nature; while the second—or that of sympathetic interpretation—is subjective. In most of his critical work Mr. Lowell has employed a union of the two. For examples of his combined use of subjective and objective criticism, note his essays on Spenser, Wordsworth, and Keats.

It is the duty of criticism to look for the true, and moreover the criticism itself should be true. Lowell has been accused of sometimes rendering the truth obscure by the "dazzling brilliancy of his coruscations of wit." Yet in these cases the truth is substantially stated, and his wit, when properly comprehended, becomes a searchlight to reveal the truth rather than a sudden flash to render obscure by its own brilliancy. His criticism is founded on moral principles. "Moral supremacy," said he, "is the only one that leaves monuments and not ruins behind it." He believed that "great truths are portions of the soul of man; great souls are portions of eternity." All there was in him did obeisance to a high moral sense. He could tolerate nothing that savored of literary charlatanism or pretence, but he never blamed men for not giving us what they themselves did not possess. He never used his critical lance for the gratification of his own personal ends, as Poe has so often done. His aims and purposes, bold and independent judgment, generous optimism, all bear a true ethical stamp.

The originality of few literary men is allowed to go unchallenged, and Mr. Lowell has been no exception to the rule. Critics who do not seem to consider "how largely the art of writing consists in knowing what to leave in the inkstand" have spent much time and energy trying to prove that he was a plagiarist. But when we stop to think that Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton, and Longfellow have been charged with the same offence, we are inclined to believe that the fault-finding of critics often means very little, and that Pope's complaint that "ten censure wrong

for one who writes amiss" has in it much of truth. It would hardly seem probable, to say the least, that the author of a work so strikingly original as the "Biglow Papers" should be entirely wanting in originality in his prose works.

In judging other literary men Mr. Lowell took the view entertained by the most broad-minded and sensible men, namely, that "the thought or feeling a thousand times repeated becomes his at last who utters it best"; that "originality consists in the power of digesting and assimilating thoughts so that they become part of our life and substance." In his essay on Chaucer, after a somewhat extended discussion of originality, he says: "The question at last comes to this—whether an author have original force to assimilate all he has acquired, or that be so overmastering as to assimilate him." When judged according to these same principles it is difficult to see wherein Mr. Lowell was not original. True, his mind was not philosophical like Emerson's, and he may have lacked the brilliancy and spontaneity of thought so characteristic of E. P. Whipple, yet in his last three volumes of essays he has given us the cream of all his culture and learning, and the best fruits of his studious life, in a manner decidedly his own. His judgments are no more "borrowed" than the fruit of the tree or vine is borrowed from the soil from which it grows.

A discussion of Mr. Lowell as a critic would be incomplete without a reference to his style, for therein, it seems to me, lies the secret of much that makes his books so enjoyable. In a man who was at once a poet, politician, and prose essayist, scholar, wit, satirist, critic, editor, and college professor, we naturally look for great versatility of style; and indeed in all the range of American literature there has been no pen more versatile than his. As a rule his illustrations, drawn from every imaginable source in life and literature, are pointed and applicable. His diction is elastic and copious; his polysyllables, though numerous, are seldom burdensome. Generally speaking, his style is that of a poet. His poetic imagination, his love of beauty in nature, his bold, masculine temperament, softened and refined by the influence of a gentle soul, all combine to light up his page with glowing imagery and render it attractive and readable. For example, note the follow-

ing, from the essay on Shakespeare, relative to the invention of printing:

"A new world was thus opened to intellectual adventure at the very time when the keel of Columbus had turned the first daring furrow of discovery in that unmeasured ocean which still girt the known earth with a beckoning horizon of hope and conjecture, which was still fed by rivers that flowed down out of primeval silences, and which still washed the shores of Dreamland."

From time to time Wit and Humor show their smiling countenances and allure the reader along pleasant pathways. With Lowell these faculties were a means rather than an end. He used them, not for the sake of the mirth which they produced, but to give color, brilliancy, and effectiveness to his thought.

Notwithstanding, however, all that may be said in praise of Lowell's style in its relation to his work and standing as a literary critic, we must admit that his versatility of expression and of imagery occasionally degenerates into profuseness and extravagance. If space would permit, we might cite instances where, after piling figure upon figure and adding illustration to illustration, his idea has become so lost in a labyrinth of imagination that he has found it necessary to explain himself in a postscript clause of plain English. Everything he saw or heard or thought reminded him of something else in nature or literature, and his imagination lacked that subservience to will which was one of Sainte-Beuve's salient characteristics, and which is very noticeable in Mr. Stedman.

As is apt to be the case with every writer whose ideal in literature is the highest excellence, Lowell was his own severest critic. No one knew his faults better than he. In the "Fable for Critics" he applied his satirical scourge to none with greater vigor than to himself. Later in life he said: "Impatience of mind is my bane,—I am prone to extemporize"; and again, "My great fault is impatience of revision." This fault is more apparent in his early publications, but is noticeable even in his last volume. He saw things, as it were, by lightning flashes, and wrote as he saw. Had he devoted more time to correcting and revising his manuscripts, we should not find in his works so many violations of the fundamental rules of grammar and rhetoric. He would not have told us, for instance, that "John Keats,

the second of four children, like Chaucer and Spenser, was a Londoner," in which it is necessary to have a knowledge of the facts in order to determine whether Keats resembled Chaucer and Spenser in that he was "a Londoner" or "the second of four children."

A literary critic of broad appreciations runs the risk of making many mistakes, and it would be folly to assert that Lowell was an exception to the rule. Had he devoted his whole time and energy to literary criticism, perhaps he would have been able to form more accurate and careful judgments, but they would have been more bookish and pedantic and hence less natural and less readable.

We are indebted to Mr. Lowell to-day

for teaching us that the function of criticism is to taste, to appreciate, to compare. He has taught us that literature is one of the vitalizing forces of society, and that its various aspects and relative proportions should be studied, not under the concentrated rays of a single focus, but by the side-lights of history, science, art, and philosophy. His work is largely of a kind that cannot be bound in books or measured by the critic's yardstick. As a man of letters and a representative of culture he has cast an enduring influence upon the intellect and conscience of America. Few, if any, have done more than he to place our literature on a firm and independent basis.

CLAYTON IRVING COLLINS.

CORUNNA, MICH.

THE FIFTY-FIFTH CONGRESS

THE FIFTY-FIFTH CONGRESS was unique in that it declared war and ratified peace within a year. It was remarkable, however, in many other respects, and it is worthy of more than passing notice. The Congress was elected concurrently with President McKinley, and, as usual in such cases, except in the disputed election of 1876, was in political accord with him.

The Republicans in 1897 had a large majority, but the Senate was so close politically that the balance of power was held by men who did not affiliate with either of the two leading parties; yet, as the Republican Senators outnumbered the Democratic, the former obtained control of the committees. Important partisan legislation was passed with difficulty.

Considering that Protection had been indorsed by the people, the President convoked Congress in extra session March 15, for the purpose of passing a new tariff bill to replace the Wilson-Gorman act. Mr. Reed was reëlected Speaker without open Republican opposition, though there were members who were not entirely pleased with the choice. The Speaker appointed a Committee on Ways and Means and one or two others, but did not appoint the rest of the regular standing committees, a matter which effectually blocked general legislation. Mr. Nelson Dingley, chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, immediately began the preparation of a high-

tariff measure, which the House passed with little debate by a nearly strict party vote. The Senate, as usual, made many changes in the bill, which destroyed much of its symmetry. In the House nearly every tariff bill has been arranged with some scientific skill, so that the rates should be properly proportioned. In the Senate private interests have demanded changes which have usually marred the bill and have sometimes made it almost ridiculous. The Dingley bill had the disadvantage of being before a Senate in which no party had a majority, and there was more or less changing to suit the views of those who would finally vote for it. After frequent amendments the bill became a law July 24, 1897, being the only important act of the session. The Cuban question was discussed in the House and Senate, and the latter passed strong resolutions in favor of the struggling patriots. The House would have passed a similar resolution which acknowledged the independence of Cuba, but Republican leaders were of the opinion that it was premature, and no vote was taken.

The regular session met in December, and accomplished more important legislation than any other single Congress in our history. The President's message expressed sympathy for Cuba and the hope that the good offices of the United States might yet produce an honorable peace. This did not satisfy radical men in either

party who did not believe that Spain would accept our offices or grant genuine reforms. In the early weeks of the session this question was the all-absorbing topic. The radical men declared that the Republic of Cuba was justly entitled to recognition and that war with Spain was inevitable. The reports of Consul-General Lee from Havana were not encouraging. General Weyler's policy of reconcentration was producing death and misery beyond all precedent. When Weyler was recalled, matters improved somewhat, but it was too late to avert the terrible suffering his policy had wrought.

The administration was determined to prevent recognition of Cuban independence because there was no government worthy of recognition, and hoped to preserve peace and bring about reforms. The President held that he alone had the power to recognize a nation officially, and it was hinted that if a resolution of recognition were passed it would be ignored. In pursuance of his policy of maintaining peace with Spain, the "Maine" was sent on a friendly visit to Havana, and in return the Spanish government ordered the "Vizcaya" to New York. The visit of the "Maine" was not received with enthusiasm by the Spanish officials, but the usual formal courtesies were exchanged.

Such was the situation when the news of the disaster to the "Maine" reached this country on the morning of February 16, 1898. The opinion was almost unanimous that the vessel had been destroyed by treachery and that war was inevitable; but Congress waited patiently for the result of the investigation. When the report was made there was no longer any hope of averting war. In the meantime Congress took an unusual step. It was well known that we were not prepared for a war. We had not ships enough, no transports, and only supplies and ammunition sufficient for the regular army and navy. If war was to come we must be forearmed. In this dilemma the President sent a message to Congress asking for \$50,000,000 to be expended in his discretion for the public good. The response was immediate. The bill was reported to the House and was made the occasion of some brief but remarkable speeches in which Northern and Southern men, ex-Union and ex-Confederate officers, vied with each other in patriotic fervor. The grave of sectionalism was dug, and if the old feuds were not

completely buried, they were nearly so. Not a trace of the old sectional spirit appeared in the debate. It was a sight for gods and men to see General "Joe" Wheeler, ablest of the surviving Confederate officers, calling for sectional peace, a united country, and the old flag. The bill was passed, without a single dissenting vote, amid the wildest enthusiasm. The contrast between the methods of the House and Senate was well shown when the latter took up the bill next morning and passed it without a word of debate or a dissenting vote. So far as the gallery visitors could see, it might have been a private pension bill that was passed. This fifty millions was spent in getting ready for war, though the administration was hopeful to the last that peace might be maintained.

When the Naval Board of Inquiry reported that the "Maine" had been blown up from the outside, the President sent a special message to Congress stating that the report had been referred to Spain with the hope that she would take such steps as became a friendly nation under the circumstances. This did not suit Congress at all. The members had been restrained with difficulty before the report was made public. The De Lome incident had made everyone suspicious of Spanish diplomacy, and war was demanded. On April 11 the President sent in his war message, which brought matters to a climax.

There was substantial agreement on all sides that Spain must leave the West Indies, but the future of her possessions was a mixed question. Most of the Senators favored the immediate recognition of the then so-called Republic of Cuba, but to this the administration would not listen. There was no evidence that the Republic was entitled to recognition, that it represented the people of Cuba, or exercised control over any considerable part of the population. To recognize what was little more than a self-constituted junta in an island where we were about to wage war would prove embarrassing. The House stood by the President, and the Senate finally gave way. A self-denying resolution was passed which stated that the United States proposed to turn over Cuba to the Cubans as soon as order was restored and the people were ready for self-government. This pledge in advance of the purity of our motives did us no good and eventually proved embarrassing.

The resolutions inviting Spain to leave the West Indies, and giving the President the power to compel compliance, were not exactly a declaration of war, but they meant war. Spain so interpreted them and took the initiative. Our minister was not even permitted to present the resolutions, but instead received his passports. This was interpreted as an act of war, and on April 22 the blockade of Cuba began. A few days later Congress formally declared that war began on the day that General Woodford was driven from Spain.

Though the war lasted but four months and was virtually over in three, because our victories were so swift and decisive, it is difficult for us even now to remember that a year ago few prophesied so short a conflict. Most all of those whose opinions were entitled to respect believed that the war would last more than a year, and expected most of the fighting on land to take place in the winter. Congress prepared for two years of war on a liberal scale. The volunteer army was to be raised by calls on the States according to population, and all line officers were to be appointed by the governors of the States, while general and staff officers were to be appointed by the President. In addition to these State troops, the enlistment was authorized of volunteer cavalry (later known as "Rough Riders"), volunteer engineers, and ten regiments of volunteer "immunes," or picked men who were not liable to tropical diseases. The only permanent addition made to the regular army was of artillerists for coast defences. The regular army was to be temporarily-recruited up to 61,000 men. The navy was enlarged by the purchase or hire of vessels, and the regular establishment was greatly increased by provisions for volunteers.

The estimates of the Departments for war purposes were liberal and were passed with little debate. To little of the war legislation was there any factious opposition. To raise revenue the tax on beer was doubled, and stamp taxes were levied on many articles. In addition the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to sell three per cent bonds at par to the public, giving preference to bidders for the smaller sums. Only \$200,000,000 was offered, and this was subscribed for many times over; but no subscription as high as \$5,000 was accepted, while nearly half of the bonds were for the amount of \$500 or less.

While war matters were so pressing it was not to have been expected that general legislation would receive much attention, yet a national bankruptcy act was passed—a compromise measure between the views of those who favored a voluntary bankruptcy only and those who desired to provide for involuntary bankruptcy as well. The champion of the House measure was ex-Judge Torrey, and of the Senate measure ex-Governor Knut Nelson, of Minnesota. This act takes the place of a former imperfect measure which was repealed by Congress some twenty years ago. The Hawaiian Islands were annexed by joint resolution, and a commission sent to draft a scheme of government.

Congress adjourned, having made ample preparation for a long war, but already it was seen that the end was near at hand. When the final session opened in December there was natural joy over the achievements of our arms and diplomacy, but it was not unalloyed. The country rang with tales of army scandals which were being investigated by a commission. There was a belief current that unexampled horrors were suffered by the soldiers, and that unnecessary suffering took place is unquestioned. Unfortunately the people had forgotten that war is a serious matter, that raw soldiers object to discipline, and that it is with difficulty that young men, let loose from the restraints of society, are made to exercise proper self-control. The War Department was mildly censured by the commission, and a new Board of Inquiry was ordered to investigate General Miles's charges that the beef supply was unfit for food and in some instances was treated with chemicals, or, as it was termed, "embalmed." The Board has not reported at this writing, but it is undeniable that, for whatever reason, much of the beef, either fresh or canned, was inedible, and the general sentiment is that General Miles has made out his case. There was a purpose on the part of many Congressmen to demand an independent investigation of the whole subject; but this was abandoned, at least temporarily.

Congress was confronted with a number of grave propositions. The treaty of peace was signed in Paris in December. Should it be ratified by the Senate, and, if so, should the House vote the \$20,000,000 to carry it into effect? If the treaty were duly ratified, a new army bill would become necessary, as all volunteers, as well

as some 30,000 regulars, would by law be discharged. The situation was such that the 30,000 remaining would be totally insufficient. A large garrison was necessary in Cuba to maintain order, while a larger one would be needed in the Philippines, where the people showed a disposition to resist our authority. A new naval bill was needed, for the former peace footing would not suffice while we were so busy with our new acquisitions. It was evident also that it would no longer be possible to prevent the amalgamation of the line and staff officers of the navy. The day of the old frigate and ship of the line was gone, the modern warship had developed into a mighty machine or combination of machines, and the engineer had become as important as the deck officer. The war had also made the construction of an Isthmian canal almost a necessity, and the administration desired to see it undertaken. Finally, provision must be made for taking the census in 1900.

In December of last year army scandals were not the only cause of discontent. When the war began, there was no idea on the part of anyone that we should soon have the Philippines on our hands. Even after Dewey's victory off Manila there were many who felt that we had no use for the islands. When our Peace Commissioners set out for Paris their instructions did not contemplate the retention of the whole archipelago. We are not yet in full possession of all the reasons which led the commissioners and the administration to make the final demand. In general it can be said that it appeared even to so conservative a man as Commissioner George Gray, a Democratic Senator, that, whatever else might be done, Spain must not be allowed to resume control. In consequence this government demanded the whole archipelago, and it was grudgingly yielded. This aroused considerable opposition in Congress, not only on the part of Democrats, but also by Republicans. Senators Hoar, of Massachusetts, Hale, of Maine, and Mason, of Illinois, took strong positions against ratifying the treaty, on the ground that the Philippines would become a useless burden. The Senate debated over a month as to ratification. The principal opposition came from Democrats and the three Senators named. Senator Hoar's chief plea was that we should not undertake to govern the Filipinos without their consent. The friends of the treaty were

embarrassed by the fact that the President had no policy to announce in regard to the Philippines, for the very good reason that he did not possess sufficient information on the subject. A commission of able men was sent to study the situation and is now at work. As the time for a vote drew near it was seen that it would be a very close contest. Judging by the openly expressed sentiments of Senators, more than a third were opposed to ratification and could defeat the treaty. All the power of the administration was brought to bear, and some very interesting stories were afloat in the Capitol for some days preceding the vote. Several Senators were willing to vote for the treaty who were on record as against it, and they did not like to appear as stultifying themselves. Fortunately for the treaty, Aguinaldo, in Luzon, got tired of waiting and made an attack on Manila on the 4th of February, being repulsed with great slaughter and considerable loss to the American troops. This turned the scale. It gave wavering Senators a good reason to support the treaty, and it was ratified with two votes to spare. The appropriation was later made with little opposition.

The House struggled long with the so-called Hull army bill, which placed the regular establishment at 100,000 men. The chief Republican opponent of the war measures was Henry U. Johnson, of Indiana, who made bitter speeches attacking the President and his policy. In the Senate, opposition to such an increase of the standing army was so pronounced that there was no possibility of passing the Hull bill, and for a time it seemed as if there would be no legislation. In this emergency President McKinley privately notified the leading Senators that an extra session of the Fifty-sixth Congress would be called in case no bill was passed. As the next Senate would be very strongly Republican this warning had its effect. Senator Gorman, of Maryland, who was just closing his career in that body, brought about a compromise by which the regular army was to be recruited to 65,000 until July 1, 1901, during which time 35,000 additional volunteers might be enlisted. In this shape the bill became a law.

There was less trouble about the naval bill, but the number of men was cut down so that many vessels have perforce been put out of commission. The navy person-

nel bill was passed, and one act which evoked no criticism made Rear-Admiral Dewey a full admiral for life. The unfortunate dispute between the friends of Rear-Admirals Schley and Sampson, over their respective claims to the honor of destroying Cervera's fleet off Santiago, resulted in depriving a large number of gallant naval officers of their deserved promotion. By special act, Oscar Deignan, one of Hobson's heroes, was made a cadet at Annapolis. It should be noted that the navy personnel bill abolished the actual grade of commodore, making all commodores rear-admirals. By promotion Schley now ranks Sampson, who was a captain at the outbreak of the war.

The Nicaragua Canal bill had a curious fate. The Morgan bill passed the Senate with few dissenting votes, and the House passed a bill of its own, differing from the Senate measure, with little opposition. The Senate would not take the House bill, but tacked its own measure to an appropriation bill. Then came a deadlock. Both Houses were overwhelmingly in favor of some measure, but neither would yield, and the bill fell; however, \$1,000,000 was appropriated for further investigation and surveys. The Panama Canal Company is anxious to sell out, but where eminent engineers contradict each other, it is difficult for laymen to understand whether the scheme is feasible or not.

The appropriation bills for the two years aggregated about \$1,600,000,000, the greatest since the Civil War; but not all of this money will be spent at once. The armored ships of the navy that were voted will probably not be built until further legislation, as a provision for their construction requires the armor plate first to be contracted for at a price not to exceed \$300 per ton. Manufacturers say they cannot furnish the best plate at that price, and there may be no bids for the new battle-ships and armored cruisers.

During the war the President commissioned General Joseph Wheeler, of Alabama, a major-general, and E. E. Robbins, of Pennsylvania, a major-quartermaster. Two other members were commissioned colonels by governors of their States. Mr. Bailey, of Texas, raised the question whether these men were entitled to sit in Congress while holding commissions. The Judiciary Committee decided against them, but so popular was General Wheeler that when the Committee attempted to

report, the question of consideration was raised, and the House, by a large majority, principally of Republicans, decided not to vote on the question, so that all the members retained their seats. In the closing hours General Wheeler tried to make a speech, but Speaker Reed refused to recognize him,—a slight which many of General Wheeler's friends resented.

The Census Act was passed without the civil service provisions desired by many people in and out of Congress.

On the whole, it can be said that the Fifty-fifth Congress did its work more quickly and with less friction than any Congress in recent years. There was little room for the display of partisanship, the chief measures being passed by large majorities, and in few cases were party lines closely drawn. This was due partly to the unusual circumstances and partly to the tact of the President. There are some persons who look upon Mr. McKinley as a poor politician and a weak tool in the hands of certain "bosses." Nothing could be further from the truth. Mr. McKinley is an adroit politician and a man of nerve. He has quite as much firmness in his own way as President Cleveland, but the methods of the two are totally different. Mr. McKinley has the adroitness and plastic touch of Jefferson and much of the political generalship of Jackson. He is strong, for instance, where Benjamin Harrison was weakest. He is affable in demeanor and anxious to please, but where he cannot do the latter he leaves no sting. Eight years ago it used to be said in Washington that a man felt better when Mr. Blaine refused a favor than he did when President Harrison granted one.

At the outset Mr. McKinley took the decisive step, which was greatly criticised, that all federal appointments must be indorsed by Republican Senators in the State affected, and that members of the House should name the postmasters. To this rule he has rigidly adhered, with excellent results so far as party discipline is concerned. There are those who do not believe in party discipline and have some very exalted notions as to how party politics should be conducted. All experience has shown that government by parties is essential in this country, and no party can be maintained without organization any more than can a railroad corporation. There is a wide divergence of opinion as to how far this discipline should extend,

or how organization can be best maintained; but so far it has been done successfully only on the lines laid down by President McKinley. At any rate, however one may view the question, the fact remains that the Republican party organization has been well maintained by the President. In the elections of 1898 the Republicans had larger total pluralities than in 1896, and the next House will be Republican, though by a reduced majority. This is an unusual event in the middle of a presidential term, which Republicans account for by the success of the war and the return of prosperity. It should not be forgotten, however, that after the Mexican war, which was as successful as the Spanish war, though not so brief, and when the country was fairly prosperous, the Democratic party, which was directly responsible for the war, was defeated in the national election of 1848. This should be remembered in making predictions for next year, as history has a very pertinacious way of repeating itself. This is not, however, intended as a prophecy, nor even an insinuation.

And now a few words as to the personnel of this Congress, more fully discussed in a former paper.* At the outset Senator Sherman resigned his seat in the Senate to become Secretary of State, the duties of which office were discharged with great ability by Judge Day, of Canton. Mr. Sherman soon retired to private life, after a career hardly equalled for its usefulness. I wish once more to advise students of American history who desire an intimate knowledge of our politics in the last forty years to read Mr. Sherman's "Forty Years in the House, Senate, and Cabinet,"†—one of the ablest books on the period ever written.

The venerable figure was Senator Morrill, of Vermont, who had been almost half a century in Congress and more than thirty years in the Senate. In spite of his years he was the Senator most constant in attendance, his speeches were listened to with attention, and he commanded the respect of everyone. His death was deeply mourned, as he was loved not only for himself, but as the last representative of the old-school statesmen who were in public life before the Civil War.

Senator Harris, of Tennessee, who died in July, 1897, had been in public life almost constantly for full fifty years, being elected to Congress in 1848. He went with Tennessee into the Confederacy, but had long been a Senator at the time of his death.

The elections for the next Senate have brought about many changes. From California, Delaware, and Utah there will be but one Senator each for the next two years, as the legislatures adjourned without making a choice, and the Pennsylvania legislature is now deadlocked, with no immediate prospect of an election. Senator Gray, of Delaware, who was elected in 1885 to succeed the late Thomas F. Bayard, is a man of great ability, who will be missed on both sides of the Chamber. In an unseemly scramble for the seat, Republican factions prevented a choice, and there will be a vacancy in the seat formerly occupied by four Bayards, two Saulsburies, John M. Clayton, George Read, and a long line of able statesmen. Regardless of political considerations it is a matter of regret that Mr. Gray should be deprived of a seat, especially as he has no successor.

Senator Quay, who is one of the most picturesque men in the Chamber and one of the shrewdest politicians in the country, is having a struggle for reelection without flattering chances of success. Senator Gorman also failed of a reelection, and it is doubtful if this is a complete Republican gain. In the Senate, where more legislation is decided on in cloak and committee rooms than in debate on the floor of the Chamber, Senator Gorman was a power. He was the great medium of compromise between the two parties, and Republicans should not forget his services in so framing the Tariff Bill of 1894 that its worst features from a Protection standpoint were eliminated.

Others who fell in the political struggle were Faulkner, of West Virginia, a man of parts; Turpie, of Indiana, not well known to the public, but one of the forceful men in the Senate; Murphy, of New York, and Smith, of New Jersey, neither of whom in a single term made a strong impression on the Chamber; White, of California, who will have no successor, and Cannon, of Utah, who is in the same category; Allen, of Nebraska, the champion long-distance speaker of Congress; Roach, of North Dakota, who has done

*See SELF CULTURE for March, 1898, Vol. VI, No. 6, p. 502.

†Generally known as "John Sherman's Recollections," 2 vols. 8vo. Akron, O.: The Werner Company.

little but vote during his term; Mills, of Texas, who has recently struck oil; Wilson, of Washington; and Mitchell, of Wisconsin. Some of these are men of high rank, and some are scarcely known to the general public.

Of the new men elected to succeed these, Chauncey M. Depew, of New York, alone is known throughout the country. Most of the new men are young and men of State reputations only. Mr. McComas, who succeeds Mr. Gorman, has had more Congressional experience than any of them.

In the House, next to Speaker Reed, the chief figure was Mr. Dingley, who died last winter. Few men in Congress have been so industrious as he. Entirely without imagination and devoid of humor, he was a hard-working, painstaking legislator, who mastered every subject that came before him. His place at the head of the Ways and Means Committee was taken by Mr. Payne, of New York, another veteran legislator. Cannon, of Illinois, Bingham and Harmer, of Pennsylvania, and Ketcham, of New York, have served for a generation in the House. While the Republicans suffered a net loss of twenty-two seats in the elections of 1898, they still have a safe majority, and nearly all of their prominent members were re-elected. They lost twelve members in New York, seven in Pennsylvania, and four in Illinois, with scattering districts elsewhere; but gains were made west of the Missouri, where former Populist districts were captured by Republicans, the picturesque "Jerry" Simpson failing of a reelection.

There are those who waste valuable time sighing over the degeneracy of the Republic, who think Washington a nest of

thieves, and Congress a pack of selfish, corrupt politicians. These pessimists do not know much of life in Washington or of the methods by which legislation is accomplished. Bad men get into Congress as into every other walk of life, but that the majority are corrupt is ridiculous. On the whole, Congress does represent the people. The men are brainy, patriotic, and honest. All men are swayed more or less at times by partisan considerations, and if the millennium ever comes, I do not suppose anyone expects it to begin in politics. It has been my good fortune to be in Washington very frequently for the last twenty-five years. In that time there has been a vast improvement in the personnel of Congress and in the methods of accomplishing legislation. There is less narrow sectional spirit, more broad patriotism, and better statesmanship all around, while the moral standard is vastly improved. It is easy to speak of the good times that are gone and the noble men who are dead, but I imagine that twenty-five years hence the Fifty-fifth Congress will be spoken of — as it should — as a remarkable body of patriotic men, and probably some old fool will compare the then existing Congress with the Fifty-fifth to the former's discredit, and the chances are he will be very wrong in his judgment, just as men are now. The man who is losing faith in his country and mankind will find a useful field of labor in the Philippines, where there is plenty of raw material upon which to expend his political philosophy. In the meantime the country is getting along excellently, with a great debt of gratitude owing to the Congress which has so recently passed into history.

JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

PHILADELPHIA.

THE ECCLESIASTICAL CRISIS IN ENGLAND

IN MY remarks on the ecclesiastical crisis in England I ventured to assert that the history and the law of the Church of England were Protestant. This assertion seems to be traversed by Ritualists, who maintain that the Church of England at the Reformation refused communion with the Protestant churches of the Continent and retained her Catholic character. Was it possible for one church to be more thoroughly in communion

with another than was the Church of England with the Protestant churches of the Continent during the reign of Edward VI? Divines were brought over from Germany to assist in the English Reformation. Bucer and Peter Martyr were installed in English professorships of theology. Calvin was consulted. On the other hand, the Catholic bishops Gardiner and Bonner were thrown into prison. Iconoclastic commissions went out to strip the churches

of images and of other things peculiar to Catholic worship and Catholicism. The Episcopal form of church government was retained as a part of the ancient polity of the realm, and because it was congenial to monarchy; just as it was retained in Sweden, where the Reformation, though Lutheran, was monarchical; while in countries where the Reformation was aristocratic or popular, as in Germany and Scotland, non-Episcopal forms of church government were introduced. But the claim of the Episcopate to Divine authority in virtue of Apostolic Succession was practically denied in England by compelling the bishops to take out patents for their offices from the Crown.

If the reformed Church of England was Catholic, why did the Catholics burn Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley? Why did all but one of the Catholic bishops refuse conformity and suffer ejection on the accession of the Protestant Elizabeth? Why were Catholics in Elizabeth's reign sent to Tyburn? Why was the celebration of the mass, which is the soul of the Catholic system, made a capital offence?

In the conversion of the Anglican service from Catholic to Protestant some Catholic forms or phrases may have escaped, or have been purposely allowed to remain out of consideration for popular habit. But these cannot be set as evidence of the character of the Church against the Thirty-nine Articles, which were an original manifesto, and the Protestantism of which cannot without effrontery be denied.

The theology of the Church of England down to the later years of the reign of James I, when Laud and other Arminian and high-church bishops came upon the scene, was unquestionably Calvinistic. It was embodied in the Lambeth Articles, which, though they never became church law, expressed the sentiments of the Episcopate. The Church of England was represented by a delegation of dignitaries in the Calvinistic Synod of Dort. Hallam says that the delegates were not appointed in Convocation. No, but they were appointed by the king, who as head of the Church acted of his own authority in regard to her foreign relations, as he did in his political capacity with regard to the foreign relations of the state. Reference to Clarendon will show that down to the time of Laud the communion-table stood generally in the centre of the church, a

plain refutation of the notion that it was an altar, and of the eucharistic doctrine on which Catholicism and Ritualism are based.

Laud presented himself to the men of that time, not as a reactionary, but as an innovator. As Strafford was deemed to be attacking the fundamental principles of the free constitution, Laud was deemed to be attacking the fundamental principles of the Protestant and Calvinistic church. This was the broad ground on which he was impeached for treason.

Clerical orders conferred by foreign Protestant churches were accepted in the Church of England as valid, and as qualifying not only for ministration but for preferment, previous to the passing of the Act of Uniformity in the reign of Charles II. The object of that Act, as of the other persecuting Acts of Charles II, was political rather than religious. I am not aware that in any Act of Parliament or of Convocation, communion with the Protestant churches of the Continent is repudiated, or their standing as branches of the universal Church denied.

Members of the non-Episcopal churches of the Continent are eligible to the British Crown, which carries with it the headship of the Church. William III was a Calvinist, and never changed his faith. George I was a Lutheran. Lutherans are now in the line of succession, whereas Catholics are excluded, and George IV, then Prince Regent, would have forfeited the crown by his marriage with a Catholic had not the marriage been invalid as a violation of the Royal Marriage Act.

Parliament, by whose authority the Church of England was established and is regulated, guarantees by the Act of Union the establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland.

Those who are old enough to remember the first appearance of Ritualism in its original form of Newmanism can bear witness to the general astonishment and horror with which it was received, and which showed as plainly as possible that it was novel and intrusive. Oxford, herself the birthplace and centre of the Ritualistic movement, had rejected Peel as her representative in the Parliament for having carried Catholic Emancipation.

Nor is it to be forgotten that Newman and his circle, men superior to any now in the Ritualistic field, pronounced by their secession, long deferred and reluc-

tant as it was, that the position of Catholics in the Church of England was untenable. Before taking the step they had exhausted every resource of ingenious and even of casuistical interpretation to reconcile their convictions with the articles, formularies, and laws of the Anglican Church.

Not very pleasant proofs of the exotic and intrusive character of Ritualism in the Anglican Church are the shifts to which it has been put in the attempt to reconcile itself with Protestant articles and the secrecy of its operations. Its use of auricular confession, its use of monastic vows, its adoration and reservation of the sacrament, its prayers and masses for the dead, its adoration of the Virgin, its invocation of saints, its extreme Romanist practices generally, have been more or less stealthily introduced, and when denounced have been shielded by what to opponents at least seemed equivocation. It works largely through secret brotherhoods and associations. The main intention has no doubt been honest, but the habit is not characteristic of men who feel their position sound. This weak side of Ritualism has been unsparingly exposed by Mr. Walsh, whose work, however, would have been more philosophic and not less telling had he given credit for the causes which have set this strange back-stream of mediæval tendency running against the scientific and critical current of the age. Almost every strong current in history has had its back-stream.

The original Oxford movement, variously called Tractarianism, Newmanism, and Puseyism, was theological. Ritualism is not theological, but æsthetic and emotional, owing its existence in fact largely to the failure of theological conviction. As a preacher in New York says, "There is more music than confidence; there are more flowers than there is unquestioning assurance." This, as was said before, is the difference between the two movements. You may be pretty sure that the movement, unlike the theological conviction, will gradually subside and pass away.

Ritualists prosecuted Gorham, Colenso, and Voysey, and attempted to prosecute Jowett, for heresy. Now they claim unlimited liberty within the State Church and appeal to the spirit of toleration. They have a perfect right to their own

form of worship, but what they want is to introduce it into churches which are the property of the nation, and to propagate it at the national expense.

I spoke of the difficulties of disestablishment. When you consider the magnitude of the institution, with all its cathedrals, churches, and rectories, and how closely it is bound up with the general life of the nation, those difficulties will be seen to be very great. In the end disestablishment must come, but for the present it is not unlikely that recourse may be had to the infusion of a lay element into Convocation, and concession to the vestries of control over the parish services. This the Ritualists could not resist without openly avowing that they aimed at priestly domination.

A Ritualist's view of the state of the Universal Church and his own relation to it, if he were called upon to define them, would apparently be strange. The Church of Rome, to which he has expressly appealed, treats him as a heretic, his Orders as a nullity, and his Mass as a delusion. Either she is right or she must herself be heretical,—at any rate schismatic. The Greek Church, having been more than once approached, refuses communion with the Church of England, while the Church of England denounces the Greek Church as heretical whenever she repeats the Athanasian Creed. The Ritualist regards all non-Episcopal Protestants as out of the Church pale and their sacraments as nullities, because they lack Apostolic Succession. It would seem, therefore, that from the Ritualist point of view the orthodox Church and the pale of salvation must be confined to a party in the Church of England which has existed for little more than half a century, which is still but a small minority in the Church, and is now in a state of open insurrection against church law and the bishops. Is there not some probability of another case like that of the Church of the Nonjurors, which at last ended under one hat?

After all, there are now many for whom such questions as these have little interest except in so far as they may affect society and national institutions. Questions far more fundamental and vital in the religious field are before us.

GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO.

THE WORLD AND ITS DOINGS : EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Campaign in the Philippines

The campaign in the Philippines, after much promiscuous but valorous fighting, draws manifestly to its close. The war against the Filipinos, it may frankly be said, we have never favored, as we have never favored expansion, still less the repression on the islands of legitimate native ambitions which sought self-government and freedom from the political and priestly tyrannies of the Spanish yoke. It is true, we went to Manila not to fight the Tagals, but their oppressors, and to cripple a Power which had become a reproach to civilization, and in its contiguity to the United States was both a nuisance and a menace at our doors. What we went for we accomplished, and that with impressive effect,—Spain being our enemy, and not the island insurgents who had risen against its still mediæval and conscienceless power. Unluckily, when the Spanish fleet was destroyed, Dewey and his gallant sailors were permitted to remain, and we drifted into the responsibilities of occupancy, with all the troubles and loss of life and treasure that, have come in its train. Had we from the first, as has been said before in these pages, apprised the natives of our intentions regarding them, and of the traditions of the nation that was understood to have come to the Philippines to dethrone Spanish domination and not to supplant it, the situation would doubtless have been saved from its later embarrassments and complications. Not taking this safe line, and the resident Spaniards being still our enemies, while the Tagals had not been made our friends, what was to have been expected duly happened. Aguinaldo's fears and ambitions were alike played upon, and a conflict was precipitated from which it was then too late—and, considering the foreign interests that looked to the United States for protection, impossible—for us to shrink. That the struggle has ended, or promises to end, disastrously for the Filipino chieftain and in confusion to his rash followers, is no more than we expected; though the

task has been a trying one, and must have been a severe strain upon both branches of our arms and their efficient and gallant leaders.

With the insurgent capital in our possession, and the Filipino army in a demoralized rout, the problem advances a stage, and the question becomes an immediate as well as a pressing one,—what to do with the islands and their people. By a sort of fatuity the islands are ours—ours by conquest, and now by ratified cession, for the last act of war with Spain has just been given effect to by the Queen-Regent, though we have still to face the vexing issues and onerous burdens of expansion. For a time, even though the last scene of all has yet to take place,—the capture or surrender of Aguinaldo and the submission of the Tagals and Visayas to the authority of the United States,—we must, no doubt, hold the country under military rule; but after that, what must we do with it? Happily, just at this juncture, the President's Philippine Commission comes upon the scene and issues a proclamation which helps us, if not to a decision on the imperialist question, to at least a clearer comprehension of the later mind and purposes of the Washington Administration.

The proclamation, it is true, sets forth that this country accepts sovereignty over the islands and will maintain its supremacy—so far, we interpret this, as the President and the Commission have authority for that; but it hastens to assure the Filipinos that the benevolent designs of the United States have been misinterpreted and that in consequence "the friendly American forces have, without cause or provocation, been attacked. Why these hostilities?" it proceeds to ask. "What do the best Filipinos desire? Can it be more than the United States is ready to give?" These are significant words—tardily though they come—and of momentous and assuring weight, if reasonably and trustingly considered by the Filipinos. The proclamation goes on to state that "there can be no real conflict

between American sovereignty and the rights and liberties of the Filipinos, for America is ready . . . to spread peace and happiness among the people; to guarantee them rightful freedom and to protect their just privileges and immunities; to accustom them to free self-government in ever-increasing measure; and to encourage those democratic aspirations, sentiments, and ideals which are the promise and potency of fruitful national development."

From these extracts it will be gathered that the document addressed to the people of the Philippines is a conciliatory and kindly one, and to this extent it merits general approval. In other sections of the proclamation wisdom is shown by the Commissioners by a politic consideration for the sensitiveness as well as for the future well-being of the people, whose resentment it is well calculated to disarm, and also to wean them to a contented acceptance of their new rulers. But with that the document stops, and nothing is said or hinted at of independence or even of remote evacuation, when that step shall become politic and safe. This, it may be, is wisely deferred to the future, since the first duty must obviously be to stamp out insurgency and disaffection and quell all opposition to American occupation. The hopelessness of continuing the struggle must now be apparent to the least reasonable Filipino, with 30,000 fearless American soldiery in the country, splendidly reinforced by our warships and their indefatigable crews. But the heart of rebellion is, we know, obdurate, and hope may seem to lie for the insurgents in a prolonged resistance by guerilla warfare in the mountain fastnesses or in the brush, while sickness during the approaching rainy season may be relied upon to retard, if not paralyze, American activities in the further prosecution of the war.

In view of these possibilities and of the serious objections to the continued occupation of the islands, might not the Commissioners—if within their instructions—have gone a step further and hinted at the favorable conditions under which, by our plighted word, we are holding Cuba, and thrown out even a gleam of hope for independence? To grant this was not so long ago unquestionably in President McKinley's mind when at the Boston Home Market Club banquet he affirmed, with reference to the Philippines question, that "no imperial designs lurk in

the American mind," and that such "are alien to American sentiment, thought, and purpose." Besides avowedly disclaiming imperialism, the President added these significant words, which surely then meant self-government for the Filipinos, unless the words—a hardly possible eventuality—were addressed to the ear only to be afterwards cruelly broken to the hope. Continuing, the President remarked:

"That the inhabitants of the Philippines will have a kindlier government under our guidance, and that they will be aided in every possible way to be a self-respecting and self-governing people, is as true as that the American people love liberty and have an abiding faith in their own government and in their own institutions. . . . The children and children's children of the people of the islands shall for ages hence bless the American republic because it emancipated and redeemed their fatherland and set them in the pathway of the world's best civilization."

Are these words, may we ask, consistent with the policy of permanent sovereignty, or in harmony with prevailing American opinion or with our past traditions?

The immediate concern, however, is to bring to a close the fighting in the Philippines and, if possible, to trap Aguinaldo and end his ill-starred reign. Defeat is manifestly making a Nero of him, if we may trust the reports that he is murdering his generals and all who counsel submission, and applying the torch to towns and villages which he deserts in his flight rather than that they should fall, with any loot they may contain, into our hands. The abandonment of Malolos must dishearten his followers and diminish his prestige, and though he may chuckle at escaping to the mountains, his power is broken and his authority is far spent. Already considerable bodies of the insurgents are surrendering, especially of those who have learned not to fear the American name, or have had experience of our humane war methods. The inhabitants of the northern provinces of Luzon are, moreover, said to be unfriendly to Aguinaldo and opposed to further bloodshed. The outlook therefore is hopeful for a speedy termination of the war.

★

*National
Rivalry in
Commerce*

With nations elsewhere decaying and passing into dissolution, it is gratifying to find, of late, abundant evidence of the lusty strength and marvellous commercial

and industrial development of this country, and this in spite of our war with Spain and her late colonial subjects and the preoccupation of the nation in the discussion of the policy or impolicy of expansion. Whatever may be thought of the rôle in which the nation has in the past year appeared before the world in taking up its share of "the white man's burden," the passions and excitements of the time have evidently not interfered with its trade operations or retarded the phenomenal growth of its commerce. This is admitted even in England, once our formidable, though friendly, commercial rival, into whose trade we are now seriously cutting. In one respect the admission has come in a very gratifying way to our people, since it has handsomely and with manifest truth expressed admiration for our proficiency in the science of naval mechanics and in the skill and highly effective training of our gunnery experts on board the nation's warships. But it is in the paths of peace, and especially in our active and successful competition with other nations for the world's trade, that one has most reason to be proud of the recent progress of the United States. The expansion of our commerce in foreign markets is significantly shown in recent statistics, which indicate not only the productive power of the country and the wide range of its products for export, but a remarkable advance in the volume of manufactured articles entering into competition with those of the Old World nations.

Some notable instances of American competition have come recently to light, which, if conditions do not in the near future greatly alter abroad, augur well for the coming foreign trade of this country. We refer especially to some important and, it is said, profitable orders which have been received by manufacturing firms in the United States: in one case, for an iron bridge to be erected over the Atbara River, a tributary of the Nile, for the Khedive's government; and in another, for a number of locomotive engines for the Midland Railway Company in England. Contracts for these requirements have been awarded to American concerns, partly, we understand, on the ground of cheaper price, and partly because of more expeditious construction and a speedier completion of the entrusted orders. The cases we instance, though they present a novel experience to our

manufacturers, will, we may be sure, not long be solitary ones. Already the issue of the orders has occasioned much talk in government and capitalist circles abroad, as well as in the ranks of labor in England, which are greatly exercised over the matter, and disturbed by the intrusion of competition from an altogether unexpected quarter. England has in the affair a rather startling warning, and her artisans will do well to heed the lesson if the "tight little island" from which our people have largely sprung is to maintain its prestige as a great industrial nation. The admonition may not be without its profit to England if it opens the eyes of British labor to a new quarter from which strenuous competition may henceforth be confidently expected, and incites it not only to renewed activities and broader and less insular views and methods of work, but to refrain from wasting its energies and resources in strikes and lockouts, and its time in listening to the noisy gasconading of labor agitators.

The instances we have cited of the competition abroad of this country, though unusual ones, are by no means uncommon in less important branches of manufacture. Much the same story may be told of the opening of European markets to American electric tramways, bicycles, organs, and other manufactured wares, not to speak of the phenomenally increasing volume of the country's export trade in cereals, fruits, oils, and minerals, which of recent years has been expanding "by leaps and bounds." The increase, according to government statistics, of the total export trade of this country, in the past ten years, exceeds fifty per cent; while the exports of Britain, great in volume as they have been and are, have within the same period remained stationary or have suffered diminution. Not less satisfactory to the nation are the returns of imports, which have increased but slightly in the past ten years, showing the self-containedness and great internal resources of the United States and its ability to provide for its own people's wants from within the vast and varied zones of the native production. Prosperity such as these facts attest are matters to be humbly and reverently thankful for, and are, with other numberless blessings vouchsafed to the country, incitements to a righteous patriotism, and to public respect for individual as well as for national integrity and honor.

The Army Rations Inquiry Our readers, doubtless, are as tired as we are of the "Canned Beef" investigation. The whole affair is as nauseating as it is scandalous, and the wonder is that there has been such protracted pother about it, since from the first, had there been no politics or personal animus in the matter, and no one to shield from the consequences of rascality, there could not have been a moment's doubt that the beef was utterly bad and unfit to be issued as a ration to the army. The very name given the potted pestilence was an impudent fraud, since the cans did not contain *roast* beef at all, but, apparently, an inedible mess from which whatever nutriment was ever in it was extracted by *boiling* (doubtless for the purpose of making the soups and "beef extracts" put up by the canning firms), and only the unpalatable fibrous refuse remained. Nor, had there been no one, as we have hinted, to shield, was there need of prolonging the investigation all over the country, since more than sufficient was known of the disgusting character of the beef from current complaints, from the sicknesses it occasioned when doled out in field or in camp or on board the transports, and from the fact that tons of the sickening stuff were rejected by the local commissary staff at Tampa and at Cuba, without waiting all these months to collect cumulative proof of its unfitness as food from all available and too-well-informed quarters. With the findings of the Board of Inquiry we have no wish to meddle, still less would we anticipate them, though we cannot doubt what the verdict must be. More than sufficient has been elicited to prove conclusively that the selling of the stuff, by whatever means the packers were suffered to dispose of it, imposed scandalously upon the government in palming off the so-called "roast" beef, and infamously wronged our soldiery who, according to Commissary-General Eagan, were anathema in refusing to eat it.

That other brands of the meat supplied to the troops were not immaculate, whether we believe or not that the refrigerated beef had been chemically treated to enable it to withstand the Cuban climate, we are not minded here to state. Sufficient, in all conscience, has transpired as to the unwholesome character of the canned roast beef; and if public opinion has any weight in the country, the matter

should be probed to the bottom and responsibility for the issuance of the vile compounds be laid upon the proper shoulders. The significant as well as the singular thing is, that the scandal should attach itself wholly to the army branch of the service, and that, so far as is known, the beef rations issued to the navy were without cause of complaint. In view of this fact, it should not surprise anyone were Commissary-General Eagan court-martialled, nor that some one above him in authority and responsibility were at the same time impeached. Whatever be the legal, there can be no doubt of the moral, guilt of both of these functionaries, and the gravity of the scandal disclosed calls loudly and instantly for punishment.

★

The Windsor Hotel Fire Of the fatalities that shorten human life there is perhaps none more appalling than death by fire. Since our last issue was prepared for press the country has been shocked by the tragic occurrence of the burning of the Windsor Hotel in New York and by the holocaust which ensued. The horror of the affair still lingers in the public mind, for the extent of the tragedy has, as we write, not been fully ascertained, owing to the number of guests and employees of the house still missing, and the difficulty of recovering the completely incinerated remains of the victims from the debris of the building. Besides the thirty or forty who are said to be yet unaccounted for, sixteen persons are known to have met their death and thirty-six were seriously injured. Though the fire broke out early in the afternoon, so rapid was the destruction of the building, and so preoccupied were all the attendants in watching a street parade at the moment, that the inmates had no opportunity to escape, heroic as were the attempts at rescue by the metropolitan firemen. The fire appears to have been caused by the careless throwing away of a lighted match by a guest standing near a gauze-curtained window. Once started, so incredibly swift was the devastation—the whole structure being in the highest degree inflammable—that within a few minutes the entire edifice became a roaring furnace and every escape was barred, save by leaping from the windows to almost certain destruction.

The absence of the means of protection from fire, in the case of an hotel of the

pretensions of The Windsor, has very properly been severely denounced. The hotel, in fact, appears to have been the veriest death-trap. It seems too easily to have conformed, after a fashion, to municipal regulation, though not in the plans for its erection and in the provisions for escape in the case of fire. The only excuse offered is that the house was erected about thirty years ago, before fire-proof buildings were practically thought of and when building laws and fire regulations in towns were less rigid than they are supposed to be now. Just why these civic rules and regulations to ensure the public safety are not insisted upon in the case of existing buildings licensed for hotel purposes, we are not in a position to say. That there is laxity in insisting upon this point, the calamity which has occurred demonstrates, and the warning may well be heeded by the public in the case of other hotels in New York and other cities known to be as defective in their provisions against fire as The Windsor. The lesson may also be heeded by the authorities of every other city in the country where there is indifference to the public security, whether in hotels, theatres, or churches, and criminal indifference to legislative and civic precautions for the safety of human life.

★

The Southern Lynchings Among an outraged and indignant people there would be some excuse for lynchings where crime went unpunished by law or where the ends of justice were defeated by a mock sentimentalism. We have not as yet come to that, however; for the hand of law is still heavy in the land, and the criminal and miscreant, as a rule, legally meet punishment for their misdeeds. As a people we profess to be shocked at Turkish atrocities in Armenia, but what can be more unspeakably shocking than the merciless white lawlessness of parts of the South that seeks fiendishly to precipitate a race war by baiting, scourging, and lynching the negro? To what acts of vengeance in brutal natures will not such treatment of the blacks lead, and what, presently, must be the condition of the South where law is so outrageously set at defiance and passions are fanned into flame by the resort to such barbarous modes of repression? Even on white youth, presumed educated to some degree of restraint, the effect of such unbridled license must be calamitous, while no

community can help lapsing into chaos that feeds itself on the lust of such passions.

Among the sections of the country that have lately been disgraced by scenes of brutal violence toward the negro, Arkansas and Georgia have been notorious. The fruit of this lawlessness may yet be bitterly felt by these States, since black subjection to an unrestrained dominant class cannot be expected to continue, and a terrible revenge may one day be taken for the cruelties visited upon the race. The problem of the black man in the South would seem still to lie in the future. Hopelessly inferior the negro has not shown himself to be, though there have been many disappointing lapses, due, however, principally to the social clamps that have been put upon legal emancipation. The negro, notoriously, has never had a fair chance. He is admitted to have made a tolerably good soldier in the war, but otherwise there have been few opportunities afforded him to elevate himself or his race. Reconstruction in the South set before him a bad example in the carpet-bagger, and politically as well as socially added to his bondage. Nor can our new imperialism, with its added millions of subject peoples, whom we are shooting down as the easiest way toward assimilation, open a more hopeful door for the race, if the result be not increasing degradation and serfdom. What other outcome can therefore be expected than angry resentment toward their superiors in station, with vengeful violence when justice is denied them and they are made to suffer wrong?

It may not be fair to take the Northern view alone of this matter, nor do we, for we admit the truth of many of the grave charges made by the people of the South against the negro. But what, nevertheless, was said of these lynchings by a judge in Georgia the other day, and is said at all times by numberless fair-minded and humane people throughout the South? At a Baptist convention in Savannah, less than a month ago, Judge Hillyer, ex-mayor of Atlanta, Ga., presented a report from a committee on crime and lynchings of so startling a character as to compel him and the church to take action by appeals to the bar, to the church, and to the legislature, to repress the frightful prevalence of homicide. The judge, it is fair to say, admitted that lynchings were in a

measure the result of distrust in the efficacy of the legal machinery, and he called upon the law to amend the machinery and stay the horror of these outrages, which are really murders. Judge Hillyer's fearless response to conscience and duty and the timeliness of his protest are to be commended. Surely there can be little fear that his appeal and other like protests will go unheeded; but if State action will not avail, there must then be Federal interposition, that all may know that law in the land is supreme, and not chaos and anarchy, and that justice, and not wrong, is the right of every man.

★

The Samoan Imbroglio Hardly unexpected can have been the difficulties which have beset the joint control in Samoa of the three Powers—England, Germany, and the United States. In addition to the remoteness of the islands, which makes control difficult by any continental nation, however scrupulous may be the desire to preserve neutrality, there have been many years of local trouble, arising out of the conflicting kingly claims of native rulers. Since the Berlin Conference of 1889, which restored King Malietoa and recognized the independence of the Samoan government, the dusky Polynesian monarch has died, and a rival has arisen, in Mataafa, to contest the succession with Malietoa's son. It is this that has occasioned the recent disturbances at Apia, in Upolu, the chief island of the Samoan group in the South Pacific. The native trouble, however, has been complicated by misunderstandings, and possibly rivalries, among the representatives at Apia of the guaranteeing Powers. The German consul-general has, it appears, not always seen eye to eye with the American chief-justice, while the British consul has also, apparently, been a factor in the wrangle, and as the latter has usually acted in concert with the American representative, German ire has been aroused and there has been a general and acrimonious falling out. Recently the trouble came to a head in a rather ugly and menacing manner, resulting in a conflict of authority. This, for the time being, was set right by the guns of the American and British vessels of war at Apia firing upon Mataafa's adherents, and compelling them to disregard German counsels and retire from the vicinity of the government reservation. This joint action on the part of Britain

and this country was naturally resented by Germany, and when news of the strained local situation reached the several interested governments an embarrassing diplomatic half-hour ensued. Fortunately, what at first threatened—a tearing-up of the tripartite agreement and a period of angry international dissension—was avoided by an amicable proposition from Germany, suggesting a joint commission to deal comprehensively with Samoan matters. Both England and the United States have concurred in this mode of settling differences, and the acute stage of the crisis has thus happily passed, with the prospect of an early and pacific settlement of the whole matter. The danger of further international embroilment is lessened by the plan, which it is said will in all probability be accepted, of giving to the joint commission unlimited authority to deal with the entire question, without the necessity of referring its decisions back to the several governments for approval.

★

Russia and the Peace Conference

During the present month the representatives of the nations will, at the invitation of the Tsar, meet in conference at The Hague in the interest of disarmament and to take steps to promote peace and the ends of peace. The call of Russia to the conference was, when first issued, a surprise to the world; in not a few quarters it is a surprise still, since, whatever may be the pacific desires of Emperor Nicholas II personally, not many credit Russia with devotion to peace principles, or deem her essentially autocratic government at any time under the sway of philanthropic and humanitarian motives. This may be a mistaken as well as an ungracious view of Russia's character and policy; but it is one for which history is largely responsible, and is to-day, moreover, in no little degree endorsed by her recent enormous territorial expansions; by her heavy war budgets for the maintenance of her colossal army and the projected extensions of her navy; and by what is inferred, if not actually known, of Muscovite designs in every country and region on the borders of her vast Empire, where her Russianizing diplomacy—we do not say intrigue—seems to be ceaselessly and ever actively at work.

Nor is Russia's most recent act of repression in Finland assuring to Finnish

sensibilities or an index to the world of the liberalizing tendencies of her absolute and autocratic government. But while we remember Poland, tremble for the fate of Finland, and recall the horrors of Siberian mines and prisons, where political offenders were wont to be hopelessly immured, we must not fail to recall the brighter and worthier side of the Muscovite character and the paternal attitude of its rulers, which seeks, and doubtlessly seeks honestly, to bring the myriads of the nation out of the long eclipse of semi-barbarism into the light and warmth of a better day. Serfage, we happily have to admit, is gone, and though there is still an immeasurable gulf between the bureaucracy and the mass of the nation, a freer and more ameliorating influence has of late been at work in the Empire, and, but for nihilistic conspiracies and the terrorism to the Crown of revolution and sedition, might have made greater and more beneficent progress. In spite of the need for reactionary and repressive measures—for education, political training, and self-government have not as yet had a chance to do their good work—reforms have made headway, many crying abuses have been checked, and official plundering has been largely suppressed. Much of the country, it is true, is still inhospitable, and in sections famine recurs with pitiless severity; but railway facilities are being rapidly pressed on, and this brings work, and with it relief from distress. There has, moreover, been of late a decided diminution of popular discontent, though the rigor of the military establishment is still great, as is that of the press censorship and the domiciliary visits of the secret police.

But whatever Russia may or may not be as a humane and civilizing Power, and whatever personal interest the Tsar may take in the reduction of national armaments, are matters in some degree aside from the question and its aspects with which the Conference will be called upon to deal. At the present juncture Russia, no doubt, has much to gain by general disarmament and war-budget retrenchments, since the drain on her exchequer must just now be heavy to enable her to open up the Empire by railways, with their ramifications into Manchuria and across the Afghan and Persian frontiers. Yet this has little bearing on the issues to be discussed, if the nations are agreed

as to the impolicy of continuing the burdens of war-preparedness and will honestly suppress their strivings, in the direction of army and navy equipment, to get ahead of one another. This, nevertheless, is just the problem, and unless it is conscientiously faced by the combined Powers at the Conference, and with the view to relax the present tensy in the military and naval systems of the nations, promote peaceful settlement of international differences, and relieve industry from the burdens imposed by the war-lords and despots of the sword, then there is little good to be expected from taking counsel together, and the Conference will be a failure.

★

*Russia and
England in
China*

The old order is rapidly changing in China, as a consequence of the intrusive policy of the Old World governments, led by Russia. Here, in the ancient "Middle Kingdom," there is no "truce of the Bear," but a continuous and persistent encroachment upon the once vast possessions of the dying Yellow nation. So free a hand has Russia taken in appropriating large slices of the Chinese Empire that she has seemed to hold the country in vassalage, and the governing Tsung-li-Yamen with it, and to look with a scowling face on all other nations that sought to share in the carving-up process and at the same time to extend their trade, railway, and banking facilities from Europe to Peking and the open treaty ports. Germany and England were not thus, however, to be bluffed off, and even the little Italian kingdom on the Mediterranean the other day entered for some part of the Mongolian spoils. In a military sense, China, we know, is helpless, and though England has hitherto sought to maintain the integrity of the empire it looks as if that could no longer be a matter of English diplomatic concern, and hence the scuffle goes on for ports, "open doors," concessions, and "spheres of influence," and where partition will end no man knoweth. The whole scramble is an undignified and unblushing one, only to be justified, we suppose, with the threats of shelling Chinese cities, on the plea that China is already moribund and falling to pieces, and that the country needs reinforcement and reinvigoration from without in the interests of humanity.

Recent cable despatches bring the intelligence that England and Russia have

come to an understanding over their respective designs in China, and the diplomatic tension which has existed for a year back is consequently relaxed. The chief cause of friction lies, we believe, in the fact that British subjects acquired railway concessions in the Empire, which in their ramifications threatened to extend into Russia's sphere of influence in Manchuria. To this Russia strongly objected and brought pressure upon the mandarins at Peking to have the concession cancelled. This, on the other hand, annoyed England, more perhaps for the reason that Russia has seemed to be always jealous of Britain and antagonizing her at Peking, though commercial motives and trade extensions, which are England's chief ambitions abroad, doubtless had something to do in creating the feeling of resentment. Rival nations generally, it may be said, distrust each other, though Russia, of course, is no commercial rival of England, however much she desires to rival her as a great military and diplomatically influential power. Vultures feasting upon a carcass, though there may be enough for all, are apt to contend for choice bits, and this would seem to be the case in the cutting-up and partition of China. The quarrel over the Niuchwang Railway is obviously but part of the dissension that goes on when national territory is coveted and being scrambled for. To the on-looker there would be more fun if the corpse of the ancient empire were less acquiescent and more lively.

★

The Parcelling-Out of Africa—Since the Fashoda affair and the abandonment of French assumptions on the Nile, an auspicious settlement of differences between France and England has been come to, delimiting the interests of both nations in north-central Africa. For the precise terms of the agreement we have at present to trust only cable despatches, but there appears to be little occasion to doubt either the sincerity of the motives which have led to the friendly adjustment or the far-reaching scope of the settlement. The details, we believe, are to be worked out by a Joint Commission, but the cue will be given it, particularly as to the amicable purpose to be served by the agreement; while it will no doubt rid the two countries of all occasion for future "pin-pricks," and allay the many irritating

questions arising out of the possession or occupancy of areas of the once Dark Continent held or fastened upon by either nation under protest by the other. In the proposed settlement it is understood that Britain's assertion of right for herself and Egypt over the entire Nile valley, over Darfur, Kordofan, and the Bahr-el-Ghazel district, from which Major Marchand's expedition had the other day to be withdrawn, is to be fully recognized; while France is to be permitted to extend her sphere of possession over the whole region of Wadai and Bagirmi, to the west of Darfur, and over large slices of territory north, east, and south of Lake Chad. Whatever value there may be in these large African gains to France—their enormous area almost constitutes an empire—by accepting them she is committed to let England alone in pursuing her policy of acquisition down the great waterways of the continent from Cairo, through British central and southern Africa, to the Cape.

The Anglo-French agreement, by conceding Britain's claims on the Nile, we presume, settles the long menacing question of England's occupancy of Egypt. In Egypt she will therefore, we take it, remain, for evacuation would be hardly less than a calamity at once to Egypt and to civilization. As a guarantee of future friendliness and the happy co-working of both nations in Africa, the agreement is understood to give to each trade privileges, with commercial freedom, in the territory of the other. To France the gains of the settlement must be particularly gratifying, since it yields to her undisputed sway over the entire area of north-central and western Africa, if we except Tripoli and Morocco, and right of way continuously from the Mediterranean, through the hinterlands of Algeria and Tunis, southward to the Guinea Coast, and, skirting the German Kamerun, still further south to French Congo and the Atlantic at Loango. Amicable arrangements of this sort, which recognize the just claims and aspirations of each country and aid the common work of civilization, must appeal to the better mind of both peoples and are commendable departures in the field of international diplomacy. If the jingo press of both countries could be suppressed, fear of war there would be little between the two nations.

**Empire-Build-
ing in South
Africa**

In these days, when European governments, despite the Tsar's call of the nations to peace, are all adding to their war-budgets, so that the land will soon look like a mighty barrack-yard, that most imperial of England's colonial statesmen, Hon. Cecil Rhodes, is steadily pursuing his plans of peaceful empire-building in South Africa and opening up, in the great interior veldts of the continent, vast and productive areas as attractive home-sites for the adventurous immigrating classes of the Anglo-Saxon race. Since the Jameson raid, Mr. Rhodes, it is well known, has officially been under a cloud in England, though his magnificent services to the Empire—in the carving out of colonies and constructing railways and telegraph lines in South and Central Africa, and in projecting his colossal scheme to connect Cape Colony with the equatorial lakes and the highway of the Nile—have made him the idol of the English. In seeking to further his projects, Mr. Rhodes has lately visited England, to enlist government and private aid in his undertakings, and has even sought to interest the ambitious and imaginative Kaiser as a partner in his commercial enterprises. But the South African statesman had a special motive in seeking audience with the German Emperor, beyond impressing his Majesty with the importance and magnificent possibilities of his great "Cape-to-Cairo" scheme. A portion of the projected road must, for convenience sake, run through a block of what is now German territory,—that which skirts Lake Tanganyika, discovered by Livingstone,—and will connect British Zambesia and Rhodesia with British Uganda, Lake Victoria Nyanza, and the sources of the Nile. Through this stretch of about 550 miles of German East Africa it was necessary to secure a right of way, for both telegraph lines and railway, and still more necessary to obtain capital for purposes of construction. This was the motive which prompted the rather audacious interview at Berlin, and from the latest accounts it appears to have been successful, since it is cabled that the German government has not only granted the right-of-way concessions, but has guaranteed the capital which German financiers are to provide to give effect to the project. Branch railways, tapping the trans-continental or interior backbone line, and running eastward to Zanzibar,

are understood to form part of the Rhodesian enterprise and will no doubt add greatly to the political as well as the commercial influence of Germany in Eastern and Western Africa. With these important interior links in the great trans-African railway chain under way, and the extension southward of the line from Omdurman proceeded with, the dream of empire will ere long be realized that has wooed Mr. Rhodes these many years back, and which, when completed, will enable that masterful mind practically to solve the whole problem of interior African colonization. When one thinks of such brilliant pioneering projects in the waste places of the earth, one marvels at what human achievement in Africa has accomplished, in the few brief years since Stanley set out to find Livingstone in the heart of the Dark Continent!

★

**Death of "The
Country Par-
son"**

Literature, no less than the Scottish Church, has lost a characteristic figure by the death at Bournemouth, England, on the 1st of March, of the author of "The Recreations of a Country Parson," popularly known by the initials "A. K. H. B." The literary work of Dr. A. K. H. Boyd, of St. Andrews, has made him widely known in both hemispheres and won for him a high reputation wherever the English language is spoken. It was in the early 'fifties that we first found those genial essays in "Fraser's Magazine" which were afterwards collected in the "Recreations" and in the "Graver Thoughts of a Country Parson." The essays touched on the most diverse subjects of human interest, and were written in a bright, gossipy though cultured vein which made them easy of comprehension to the mind of the average reader. As an author, Dr. Boyd's success lay in the human interest which pervades all his writings, and in that union of wit and wisdom which was their chief characteristic. His circle of literary friends extended far and wide, and contact with them, as well as with the varied ecclesiastical influences of his time, not only enriched his life, but widened his sympathies and furnished him with a great fund of genial reminiscence and anecdote. In his multifarious writings there is no little that is mere commonplace, but even in his lighter moods he manages to be entertaining and often felicitous, while his occasional egotism has at times a quaint

charm that one can hardly resist, and he is artless enough to admit, with half-humorous penitence, his own foibles and amiable weaknesses. Yet Dr. Boyd could be and often was serious, and not infrequently he was impressive and even inspiring.

The revered author, moreover, was most faithful in the performance of his ministerial duties, and though he was sturdily loyal to his own Scottish Church and her ecclesiastical system, he was very catholic in his regard for other creeds than his own, and especially looked with kindly eyes on his brethren of the Anglican communion. In this respect he did much not only to cultivate the common humanities, but to evoke the mutual sympathies which "lie deep under all ecclesiastical distinctions and differences." His delightful volumes of literary and ecclesiastical reminiscence, entitled "Twenty-five Years at St. Andrews," reveal the extent of his sympathies with other Christian Churches, as well as the scope and heartiness of his literary friendships. The catholicity of his mind and his excellent literary tastes are shown in the Hymnal which he was instrumental in compiling for the Church of Scotland, no less than in the many volumes of sermons, essays, and character studies which poured annually from his busy pen. So broad and tolerant were his views, and so fraternal his interest in the State Church of South Britain, that he is said to have all but bridged the historic gulf that formerly yawned between Presbytery and Prelacy. This was so much a characteristic of the man that all who know him and his writings express little wonder that many of his most intimate friends were deans and bishops, as well as fathers and brethren in his own loved Scottish Church. His kindly and gracious life, unhappily, ended tragically. Like Professor Tyndall, he died from accidental poisoning, having mistaken a carbolic lotion in his bedroom for a soothing sleeping-draught, while on a visit to the south of England for the benefit of his health.

★

Cuban Affairs After centuries of misrule under the Spaniard, we should not be impatient if Cuba proves herself slow to adapt herself to new conditions under either the civil or the military administration of the United States. Orderly government and the other blessings of civilization are things Cuba has to

become accustomed to, and her people must be given time to adjust themselves to changes which, in their ignorance, they may at first see no reason for, or are likely even to resent. This was certain to be the case in the matter of money expenditure, particularly where it is drawn from the customs levies on the island's imports, and where it is disbursed for sanitary improvements essential to the health of white settlers as well as of native Cubans. Cuba ought to remember that it is to this country that it owes its freedom from Spanish domination and consider the cost to the United States of her liberation. But this is perhaps too much to expect of her just yet, when her people are hardly willing to acknowledge new masters, however lenient and kindly may be their rule. With good government, kind treatment, and a generous regard for the sore needs of a people who in their impoverished and desolated little holdings have practically to begin the world anew, there will be more disposition to be grateful for favors received, to be content with provisional American administration, and possibly, in the long run, to desire its permanence. In the meanwhile, if this is not their disposition, and if the so-called Cuban Assembly is troublesome and exigent, and the native army clamors rather mercenarily for back pay, the Washington government, which controls the revenues of the island, must be tolerant and clement, and meet the demands upon it in as conciliatory a spirit as is consistent with good policy and sound reason. This, we have little doubt, will be the attitude of our authorities, though, we are sure, they will not be imposed upon or suffer themselves to be bullied by any partisans of the late ruling Power, still less by any idle, greedy, and mischievous body masquerading under obsolete forms of local government. The refusal of the latter to hand over the native muster rolls and take itself out of the way, with its attitude toward General Gomez and dictation in regard to the millions the United States are advancing to pay the disbanded insurgents and enable them to return peacefully to their homes, show a spirit of hostility which this country cannot and will not tolerate. It is this beggarly, scheming spirit and shiftless habit of mind and demeanor that has caused the Cuban character to be already disrated and its patriotism to be called in question.

CORRESPONDENCE—INQUIRIES ANSWERED

"INFERIOR AND SUPERIOR RACES"—A REPLY

To the Editor of SELF CULTURE. Sir:—

IN YOUR March issue, Mr. Hartwell M. Ayer, of Olar, S. C., in his article "Inferior and Superior Races," allows his pessimistic ideas such latitude that, with the publicity given, they must of their own weight serve to implant in some minds the feeling that possibly the North was wrong in its position concerning the abolition of slavery, and that the blood of the noble defenders of our country was shed through a horrible misapprehension; that all legislation tending to the elevation of the human race on lines of justice and equity, suitable to the exigency of the times, enacted by the most intelligent of our public men, endorsed and adopted by a majority of the voters of the United States, is misleading, detrimental to the interests of good government, and against the divine will; and that our eyes are now to be opened by a modern Moses who will lead us from the wilderness of progress and Christianity to the more pleasing fields of human avarice, unbridled human instincts, and the worship of a white man's God.

The individual, community, or country that cannot profit by experience is an object of genuine pity. Let us trace the progress of slavery from its first introduction,—not by the "puritanical New Englanders," as Mr. Ayer erroneously states, but by the landing of twenty slaves at Jamestown, by a Dutch man-of-war, in August, 1619, the trade gradually being extended to all of the English colonies. At the close of the Revolution slavery was legalized in all the thirteen States except New Hampshire and Massachusetts. One hundred and seventy years from its introduction the North was credited with 40,300 slaves, mostly house and body servants, while the South scored 657,000, a majority of whom were field hands.

The sentiment of the North was gradually turning against slavery, and its subsequent extinction was an acknowledged sequence. On the other hand, the peculiar fitness of the slave to the industries and climatic conditions of the South were such as to demonstrate to the Southern planter that this condition was a necessity to his success; and so deep was this conviction that any action or legislation tending to restrict the evil was looked upon as an infringement of State rights and personal liberty. Three months before the signing of the Declaration of Independence Congress prohibited the importation of slaves, and the opinion of the South

is shown by the expressions of the sons of Virginia in a protest against slavery.

George Mason said: "Slavery discourages arts and manufactures. The poor despise labor when performed by slaves. They prevent the immigration of whites who really enrich and strengthen a country."

Thomas Jefferson, the first Democratic President, said: "I tremble for my country when I reflect that God is just, and that his justice cannot sleep forever."

George Washington observed with regard to the evil of slavery: "I can only say that there is not a man living who wishes more sincerely than I do to see a plan adopted for the abolition of it."

In 1850 the North was free from slavery, but the South was rich (?) to the extent of 3,204,000 souls in bondage. The first organized opposition to slavery was in 1832, by the New England Antislavery Society, followed in 1833 by the American Antislavery Society. Political opposition took form in the Liberty party (1840-48), the Free Soil party (1848-54), and the later Republican party. During the Civil War the border States, Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, owing to their intelligence and consequent antislavery principles, did not secede, and Western Virginia was most loyal to the Union.

We cannot go back of history. The will of the people declared that all citizens of the United States should be free and equal. Mr. Ayer credits to New England the Fourteenth Amendment, which was accepted by South Carolina in June, 1868, when she was readmitted into the Union. Why was not his voice raised in protest then? He says:

"There is in the South a code of unwritten laws, the real law of the land, springing from the necessities of the people and the will of the dominant element, which provides one law for the white man and one for the black."

How truly he might make this statement. The "unwritten laws" of the Carolinas are known beyond the seas. The Filipino government, on the 27th of February, issued from Hong Kong a decree warning its people in the following strain:

"Manila has witnessed the most horrible outrages, the confiscation of the properties and savings of the people at the point of the bayonet, and the shooting of the defenceless, accompanied by odious acts of abomination, repugnant barbarism, and racial hatred worse than the doings in the Carolinas."

Thus does Mr. Ayer's home State add to the lustre and glory of the Union to the extent that a people who have experienced Spanish rule would prefer death to a change to a government under which they feel that the conditions noted are allowed to exist. Mr. Ayer says: "The people of the South have for thirty odd years been working out a problem as difficult as making a square peg fit a round hole." Let us see to what purpose the Carolinas have been working toward an intelligent end.

The United States census of 1890 shows higher percentages for illiteracy in the Carolinas and Louisiana than in any States of the Union. It also shows 2,500,000 illiterate whites in the South (known as Highlanders), among whom there are those who have no conception of the Lord's Prayer.

On the other hand, religious societies of the North, spurred by that divine love which would lead the blind, are ceaselessly working, being aided in their labors by the colored people with an earnestness born of the fact that through education must come their deliverance. By the efforts of the American Missionary Society alone, the close of 1898 saw in the South seventy-one educational institutions under its auspices, with 395 instructors and 11,662 pupils. To-day Chicago is planning a royal welcome to her colored soldiers, who as willingly as their white brothers answered the call of their country and performed their quota in making history and upholding their country's honor.

The North recognized the evils of slavery, and made amends by abolishing it and according to its colored citizens constitutional rights unhampered by an "unwritten code" of the "dominant element." The South sowed the wind and is now reaping the whirlwind. By the unchangeable laws of nature, scum will rise to the surface; but this fact does not mean that the pool which supplies the scum is of itself polluted. Woven in our social fabric, bounded only by the extremes of our possessions, is a

thread of sentiment—call it patriotism if you will—upon which the safety of the nation depends. Communities, and even States, have through their own perverted ideas caused hardships to fall upon their citizens, but the fabric itself, as a whole, is unchanged. To those upon whom this hardship falls, this idea may seem fallacious, that with each act of injustice in the South by the so-called "dominant element" help will come to them, and this help can only come by their condition being known. Last November the acts of the "dominant element" at Wilmington, N. C., were sufficient in themselves to blot from the face of the earth every participant. Bearing this in mind, Mr. Ayer forgets himself when he states that "the present administration is responsible for more trouble, present and to come, between the two races, than all other administrations at the capital since the war." He further says:

"Now I do believe that, though probably very unworthy tools, we of America are the instruments of a divine providence to teach the world liberty,—liberty of thought, liberty of action, liberty to worship God according to conscience, and liberty to rise nearer to the ideal of humanity which is but little lower than the angels."

This sentiment is of itself most noble, but in conjunction with the rest of his article it is blasphemy and worthy of the Inquisition of the twelfth century. God's justice is as empty air unless manifested through his image, Man. Mr. Ayer no more voices the sentiment of the South than the Chicago anarchists in 1886 voiced the condition of society. To-day the anarchists are of malodorous memory, and society is advancing, but, with the well-merited fate which they met, they are more fortunate than this writer, who, while not guilty of transgression in the eyes of the law, has promulgated a sentiment which, were it in effect, would annul every act which has placed us at the head of the nations of the earth, and would require a new God to meet his ideas.

E. C. KIMBELL.

CHICAGO, ILL.

THE PRICE QUESTION AND ITS CRITICS—A REJOINDER*

To the Editor of SELF CULTURE—Sir:

IN MY article on "Socialism in the Price Question," to which rejoinders have been made, it was impossible for me to go into any complete discussion of the quantity theory of money. Nor will it be possible now in the brief space allotted me, and I must be granted some honesty of purpose if I do not say all that only a volume could convey.

*The Editor of SELF CULTURE has received several rejoinders to the article on "Socialism in the Price Question," by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, Ph.D., of the University of Chicago, which appeared in the magazine for October last, and one reply to the professor's contribution to the February issue of the magazine on "Commissions on Tariffs and Money." The length of these rejoinders and their necessary controversial character,

The quantity theory, in brief, regards the level of prices as governed by the amount of the circulation—or, according to some writers, by the quantity of the standard metal, gold. I do not believe in it, because the theory does not explain the facts,—even though the high authority of Ricardo supports it. But I do not hold the belief, as was assigned to me by Mr. Bliss, that "the value of gold depends upon the

together with the lapse of time since the original papers appeared, make it impolitic to publish them in these pages. A better way, it has been thought, has been to submit the points in each to Professor Laughlin, who has courteously considered them, and here answers, in brief, their main contentions. The writers replied to are Mr. H. C. Bliss, of Chicago; Dr. S. E. Hampton, of Milton, Ky.; and Mr. M. H. Jones, of Broomfield, Iowa.

cost of its production." In very few words the truth seems to be this: Price is a relation between goods and gold (in this instance). Anything which changes either term of the price ratio will affect prices. Change either (1) the demand for, or (2) the supply of, gold, and either (3) increase or (4) diminish the cost of obtaining goods, and prices will be affected. All these four sets of factors are always at work, but sometimes working together and sometimes counteracting each other. It is quite possible that a great new supply of gold may be met by new demands, and yet that prices should fall because lowered cost has been allowed full sway. That is nearly the whole situation today. If I had space I could give facts to prove this. Moreover, the more gold produced, the greater the existing stock, and the less easy it is to affect the value of the whole. Hence I do say, as indicated by your courteous correspondent, Mr. Hampton, that "had the production of money kept pace with the production of commodities, there would have been as great a reduction in the price of the latter as we now see." Both gold and goods have been cheapened, but goods more than gold; hence prices of goods have fallen relatively to gold. Both Mr. Hampton and Mr. Bliss think that, after all, I admit the quantity theory because I allow that "the amount of money is a factor in establishing price." Of course it is a factor, but only one of several others. It is very narrow to say that a fraction can be changed in value only by changes in the numerator. It is equally one-sided to suppose that changes in the price ratio can be made only by alterations on the money side of the ratio. Everyone knows of cases which illustrate the fall in price of goods due to lessened cost. (Carroll D. Wright's forthcoming report of the National Bureau of Labor has striking figures on this point.) It is not in accordance with the facts (as Mr. Bliss claims) that "to increase the quantity of money must inevitably change its value," because other factors in the problem counteract the effect of changes in the quantity of money and even produce a fall in prices.

Mr. Bliss is mistaken in thinking I made an "assertion that the quantity of money has no effect upon its value." As already said, it is one of the forces affecting one side of the price ratio. This very penetrating writer, however, to prove that I advocated the quantity theory, quotes from a book of mine written over ten years ago. It was natural that he should have been influenced by it. The book represented fairly well the thinking of the day when it was written, and I, with many others, had supposed Ricardo's position tenable. After ten years of study, given especially to money, I have no regrets in saying that I have learned something, and that I ought to be honest enough to explain that the statement of ten years ago does not now express my position. But I did not change my belief on the ground

assigned to me by Mr. Bliss when speaking of Conrad and Lexis. I said in my article, and I repeat it, that direct comparisons between prices and the quantity of money give us no clue whatever—because there are other and powerful factors in the problem, which the quantity theorists omit. I was not writing on the quantity theory *per se* in the article mentioned, and I should not be asked why I have not given "the evidence" to prove it. I must ask my considerate readers to consult a forthcoming volume which will deal fully with this particular subject.

Mr. Bliss takes me to task for thinking that wages have risen of late years. Some of his strictures on the government figures are no doubt warranted; but I still believe there is ground for holding that wages have risen. There is substantial evidence both for Europe and the United States, if this were the place to bring it in. We are all aware of Mr. Bliss's excellent work on the statistics of wages, and his statements are too weighty to be passed lightly by; but I must repeat that they are not fundamental to the points in the article which he criticises.

When the same writer points out that gold has probably not changed relatively to rents, he is doubtless right. Although more gold is given for a day's labor than in 1850, it may be true that in cities that part of the laborer's expenses which now goes for rent has increased; but, on the other hand, most of his other consumption has been cheapened. The outcome is a resultant of both movements.

But when this critic carries his point so far as to say that all the results of improved methods of production have been lost to the laborer because it has gone to the landowner, I cannot follow him. His figures showing the great increase in the value of land prove only that *some* land has been thus greatly enhanced in value—that is, central business property in cities. As he shows, the rest of land has not thus materially risen in value. But the city property used for business is not the kind which keeps the laborer's food high, nor prevents him from improving his position. This argument, therefore, seems to be aside from any point connected with my article; and I have no permission to enter into a new discussion. Nor, if I attempted to show in one article the socialistic phases of the silver argument, should I be held responsible for giving answers to all the other questions pertaining to the bettering of social classes, or for providing my solution. One thing at a time.

Permit me to add that if Mr. Hampton thought I ever said "debts were a blessing," he is mistaken; if silver gets a stigma by being associated with socialism, it is not my fault, but the fault of those who try to regulate prices by national legislation on silver; if he says "supply and demand regulate prices" in general, he is in error, provided he confines supply and demand solely to the money side of the

price ratio; and if he says there were two metals in use in the United States in 1870, he is mistaken, since no silver dollars had been in circulation after about 1840.

As regards the eloquent article of Mr. Jones on commissions, I ought to say little. I never intended to have them decide "what people need." If he will be good enough to look over my paper again he will see that I explicitly stated that a general policy must always be

settled by the voters. Hence, the commissions would not be a substitute for Congress, but would be merely an extension of our administrative system. And I tried to convey my hope that the members of such commissions would not be the kind of politicians he so justly reprobates, but experts in a true sense, not experts in fanciful speculation.

J. LAURENCE LAUGHLIN.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, April 25.

As a member of the Home University League I desire to ask your opinion as to the benefits this country would derive from colonial expansion. I am on the affirmative side in a debate which is to deal with this matter, and should like to see it, even briefly, discussed in *SELF CULTURE*.

You do not say, in putting your request for information about United States expansion, whether you desire to treat the matter from the political or from the commercial point of view. From the political view-point the question is now being hotly discussed, especially with regard to the Philippines, the advantages of retaining which are said to be more than counterbalanced by the expense this country is being put to in acquiring it and subduing the natives. Even commercially considered, the question cannot be intelligently discussed without reference to the drawbacks of the position, while many view the matter as one of grave difficulty and a serious departure from United States traditions. Whatever advantages may accrue from the commercial extension of this country's relations with recent foreign possessions, now ours, it is only proper to set against those advantages the outlay in gaining the possessions, the cost we are put to, as in the Philippines, in pacifying the natives and reducing insurgency, and in maintaining law and order when our occupancy is acknowledged. All these things have to be taken into consideration before one can say what the country is to gain by colonial expansion, and what benefits will accrue, beyond those we might otherwise obtain, without committing the United States to the policy of Imperialism. With our new possessions, and in full and undisputed occupancy of them, trade no doubt will derive an impulse of a very perceptible character, while the attractions will be great for the influx of both labor and capital from this country, which will materially add to the national wealth. Such is the line on which your argument would obviously develop, though we may say it is not the side of the question for which we should wish to contend.

★

I should like to find a short, comprehensive article on our new island possessions, the Philippines, giving an account of their climate, crops, people, etc.

In *SELF CULTURE* for October, 1898, Vol. VIII, No. 2, pp. 176-185, you will find an article by Prof. Day Otis Kellogg which will probably give you all the information you need.

★

I am to take part in a debate on the question of the comparative cost of education for a boy and for a girl. I should like to learn the views of *SELF CULTURE* on the subject. May I ask for a few points in your May issue?

The claims upon the time of the editorial staff have necessitated a limitation of our former custom of publishing replies to questions in *SELF CULTURE* such as you forward to the magazine. We briefly say, however, that in arguing the matter, which is the more costly—to educate a boy or to educate a girl—one must be guided by the disposition it is designed to make of either the one or the other. We mean by that, how far the education is to go, in view of the vocation each is to follow in after-life. If the boy is intended for business life merely, less cost need be incurred on his education than if he is designed for a profession, to fit him for which he will have to take a university course and then two or three years' training in law, medicine, theology, or whatever may be the profession for which he is intended. Similarly, with regard to the young woman, the cost will vary according as the parent intends that she shall have simply what is termed an English education (that is, in the ordinary English branches), or whether he can afford to let her have a more elaborate education,—in modern and ancient languages, music, painting, and other accomplishments. These two aspects of the matter have first to be considered and settled before one can say which education is likely to be the more costly. Then, again, a good deal will depend on where you send the boy and the girl to school. If they are sent away from home, there are inexpensive and expensive schools; especially are there such in cities, for young ladies with fashionable connections. In the latter, the bills *paterfamilias* will have to meet will probably be out of all proportion to those he will have to pay for the plainer and homelier schooling of his boy. The question cannot be dogmatically settled without reference to the points noted. With these in view, there is room for much difference of opinion as

to the comparative cost. Your own opinion you can, no doubt, think out for yourself.

★

Will you kindly state, in your interesting "Inquiries Answered" department, the arguments in favor of the United States remaining in possession of or annexing the Philippines?

The expansion side of our relations with the Spanish colonies is not the one we have advocated in SELF CULTURE, as any reader may have seen. The country has, however, got into a situation with regard to Spain's former dependencies out of which there would seem no way now realizable save by remaining in occupation. The Philippines came into our possession almost by accident. In staying there after the destruction of Montojo's fleet at Cavité and the capture of Manila with the ousting of the Spanish, we seem committed to maintain our hold upon the islands and to protect life and property while deposing Spanish authority. In remaining at Manila we appear to have hurt native sensitiveness and interfered with Aguinaldo's ambitions. But we could hardly have done otherwise. Certainly, we could not have supplanted Spain's authority and left the island to the tender mercies of insurrectionary Filipino and Tagal rule. The question arises now, Is it possible, after all the strife and loss of life, practically to withdraw and leave the Philippines to the rule of insurgency? We think not. We could not do this with safety; nor could we do so with credit. To withdraw, moreover, would not be to leave the Filipinos to work out their own salvation and establish self-government. For that they are not yet fitted, and to abandon them would only be to invite other Powers to intervene. Definite and permanent annexation may not, on the other hand, be the dictate of the highest wisdom. It commits the nation to great expense, while being a radical

departure from our old traditions. If there were any reasonable prospect of law and order being maintained by an autonomous government in the islands, or any guarantee of that in sight, conditions might be altered. But at present no one can hope for this with confidence, and apparently the only thing to do is to maintain possession and fight on until we can reduce insurgency and win respect for our authority. After that, we can say what prospect—if any—there is for local self-government, with due and proper safeguards.

★

Will you kindly inform me through your columns if any of the astronomers have advanced the theory that the sun and solar system is part of and revolves around another centre (a constellation of stars).

I have heard of this theory and would like to know if any of the eminent astronomers entertain it, or is it believed by them that the sun is the only known main centre of the universe?

Some astronomers have supposed that the universe of stars was arranged on the same general plan as the solar system, and that all of the heavenly bodies, our sun included, revolved about a central body. The only astronomer of the present century to hold this view was Maedlar, who fixed upon the star Alcyone, in the Pleiades, as the central sun about which all others revolved. No other astronomer shared Maedlar's view, which, however, has been made widely known through popular books on astronomy. All of the stars, our sun included, have their "proper motions" which are taking them in various directions in space; but at the present time it is impossible for astronomers to say whether or not these movements are about a common centre.

SPECIAL NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS

1. The increasing pressure of correspondence upon the Editor and his staff has of late been such as to compel the management to restrict replies in this department, or by mail, mainly to those who are at present members of the Home University League.

2. A like reason calls for consideration on the part of League members in the demands they make upon the League secretary. It is hoped that they will remember (as has often been pointed out) that the League is *not* a correspondence school, and does not profess to teach, but only to suggest or direct studies, and to supply such information as the member requires in overcoming a difficulty or in explaining a matter not clearly comprehended.

3. It is specially to be noted that it is *not* the

function of the League to furnish outlines or material for orations, essays, or debates; to give the plots of novels or dramas; to solve mathematical problems, make translations, or do purely school or college work.

4. All interrogations must be accompanied by the name and address (not necessarily for publication) and number of the League membership certificate, *as well as by a two-cent stamp for reply.*

5. Questions asked by non-League members can be replied to only as a matter of courtesy, and where the interrogations do not involve difficult or tedious research. Answers through the medium of these pages is permitted only where the matter is of general rather than of individual interest.

WOMAN AND THE HOME

A WORD ON "THE NEW WOMAN"

THE impression seems to prevail almost universally that the "new woman," so called, is innately discordant to man's ideals; that in fact she forces herself upon him. People seem to regard her—as indeed she often short-sightedly regards herself—as rather of an imposition, as something antagonistic to man's requirements. But we seem not yet to have realized that just as there is a new woman evolving herself out of the old-fashioned woman, so is a new man taking the place of the old-fashioned man. Are we not doing man an injustice to suppose that he remains merely the same in his ideals and requirements, while woman progresses alone? Just as her former state of domestic bondage has become insufficient to our women, so it has become insufficient to our men. If woman has changed her relative position to us by increasing her mental ability, she is merely answering to man's requirements as of old,—only men now want more.

The study of the rise of woman from the slave to the companion is not only a study of her deepening intelligence, but also of man's increasing demands. We expect more of our women than ever before, and they feel it, and are trying to satisfy us,—their old ambition.

Few men would now value their women among their livestock: the idea is abhorrent; yet it was the place assigned to women some thirty centuries ago. Few men also would now have their women-folk even as their grandmothers were: it would seem a childish waste of intelligence. The time of easy contentedness and matrimonial pettiness is gone; childishness now seems incompetence, and mere domesticity a sordid thing.

It is not that men have become worse lovers, it is that their love demands more. We are no longer content with a doll that we can caress and forget. Our love is surely not the less strong that it is above sentimentality. Keenly responsive woman-hearts, that feel this without knowing it,—who foolishly think yourselves alien and something extraordinary,—your daughters will be the sweethearts of the next generation!

Our time is one of unparalleled growth. All things seem to be progressing, even the old human natures of men and women, supposedly moveless. They are moving, growing, deepening, lifting, progressing with man's works. Men's souls are following men's creations.

Yesterday no longer satisfies us; the men who tie up to yesterday, let the stream run past them, and they are left behind. Change is the medium of progress, and changelessness is stagnation. Surely there are few men whose mental sight is free from reverential impediment who cannot perceive the upward tilt of the path of the centuries. It is an inclined plane leading from old barbarisms to new nobilities. Let us trust the new; it has made us what we are, and it alone can make us what we may be.

In the great rise into the newer levels of civilization, would it not be wonderful if men and women should retain their old low satisfactions, and experience no progress in the midst of ever-moving nature? Would it not be strange if man, dissatisfied with, and ambitious about, all his other mental relations, would remain stagnantly content with his nearest and most important relation, that to woman? Would it not be wonderful if the greatest thing in our lives alone remained untouched with progress? Our desires have increased with our imaginations, and we demand more of our women as of all the rest of the world.

What was the old-fashioned woman? Simply a response to man. What is the new woman? Likewise a response to man; but it is a new man that asks.

The old-fashioned woman was intended to be mediocre and to accomplish mediocrity. She was intended constantly to pay to man the insidious compliment of the appeal of inferiority to protection. Sweetly incompetent and conscientiously domestic, she was utterly receptive, occupying toward the world the attitude of a meek child before a reverend and tyrannical teacher. Malleable to all precedents because early taught the virtuousness of abdication of the will, she dared nothing, and her meek pride was in the lack of an individuality.

It can readily be seen how dangerous was a position of such servility. If the tendency of the principles of the world had not been upward, any nature so slavishly willing to accept them would soon have fallen below the level of even the weakest standard of mental respectability. The elimination of self-respect from the human mind, and its replacement by a mere respect for the world, is a mistakeaching shocking to remember. Yet for centuries our women were taught the excellence of custom and the sinfulness of being themselves.

All of their characteristics were levelled to a characterless plane of customary respectability, — a respectability manufactured of instances, not principles. Left no freedom of judgment, the old-fashioned woman had few individual opinions and was forced to take refuge in the emotions, as was permitted by fashion. A thing for petting, she usually found her mental level in the nursery and the kitchen, to which her inferiority had relegated her and which fittingly engrossed her. Barring a few usual and unoriginal accomplishments, she was mentally unfitted to be a companion for man, except as a thing to be physically admired and gallantly complimented. An outlet for man's sentimentality, she could never understand his friendship.

Such a creature could not satisfy our new requirements. Void of all attractiveness save physical prettiness; void of all capacity save one for domesticity; void of all intellectuality save a cultivated instinct for maternity, — such a woman would only fatigue us.

But the new woman is something different; her great school has many offshoots (in the direction of dress-reform for instance, a very necessary branch); and, as in most bodies, the branches attract more attention than the centre from which they spring. The new feeling among women is more than a reformatory movement in any one direction. It is distinctly an awakening; it is the individualization of a sex.

Woman no more desires to be free from man than man desires to be free of woman. Man asked his servant to be his friend, and his servant is learning to be so — that is all. Man spoke in his heart with a strong intent: asking for woman's companionship, tired of sentimentality, and no longer satisfied with domesticity, he called for a friend.

The new woman is ambitious; she dares things; she is not unwomanly, she is higher-womanly. Or, if to lead a narrow, fearing, vain, sentimental, and fatuous life in the nursery, the kitchen, and the drawing-room is to be "womanly," then "womanliness" is a little state, and the new woman is not "womanly." Many men hug their old ideas and are happy in their conservative imaginations. But they should leave the newer generation to its new standards, nor try to foist upon it the requirements of the old. Broad in her tendencies, the new woman's mind is that of a pioneer, intense and rash with enthusiasms, seizing and exaggerating them into necessary principles. But in all great mental movements it is the tendency, the sum of directions, that is important, though the deviations attract the more attention. And the great change that is taking place in woman's attitude toward the world is almost entirely toward nobility and away from the morbid and the characterless. It is toward the higher womanhood, the womanhood of the mentally, physically, and morally new woman, the fresh, sweet, brave, true, love-companion;

and it is away from the vain, fatuous, and effeminate feminine.

No woman can ever be really masculine in nature, no matter how much she may try to imitate man. Her masculinity will be, as an effeminate man's femininity, merely a manner and an appearance. The imitations of the one sex by the other will never be successful, because the requirements of each are against it; — the differentiation of sex is one of nature's needs, and, however much we may progress, until we radically change it will remain so.

There is much profitless talk about the destiny of the new woman. Destinies are beyond us; they are progressions, and we cannot see fate's ultimate ends. But unless a man be pessimist enough to prefer the ancient, decry the modern, and deny the excellence of progress, he must surely be pleased that we progress. But few of us realize our opinions; we merely believe them; and many intense optimists inconsistently shrink from the new as from something more dangerous than promising. Surely the men who further progress are the civilizers; only savagery advocates barbarism.

So in the great march of civilization even man's sexual convictions are becoming civilized. Tired of leading woman along behind him, bored by the monotony of guardianship, we ask for companionship. We are tired of playing the parent and the schoolmaster, and it is time that woman was grown-up. It is rating woman very low to think of her only as an appeal to our sexual admiration. The word "beautiful" has done more to keep woman in mental abjection than all man's oppression. So long as woman appeals only, or even principally, to sentimental or sensuous admiration, she appeals only to a single and variable side of our natures. We have called women "the fair sex" so long that they have come to mean little more than that to us. Though beauty is delightful, it is neither deep, lasting, nor significant, and a merely beautiful woman is fast coming to be regarded as a luxury of little importance.

Women have too long appealed to our senses; they have debased themselves in our minds. And the woman who continues to do so hereafter will find that she has voluntarily placed herself below our standard. So long as woman is willing to attract attention to her clothes and physical excellences, man will naturally judge that that is her principal interest and desire. But man has more to give to woman than kisses or compliments. If she does not care to receive it — well. The kisses and the compliments are of little importance to him, and become less with repetition; but if that is all the woman seems to ask, man gives no more. Woman has injured herself in man's opinion by her exaggeration of appearances, even though done for man's admiration, and it is well that she is trying to reinstate herself.

• This change in woman is the most important event of our times, more wide-reaching than wars, and more intimate than the affairs of peace. It is the most momentous change of the age, because the closest. Woman is in many things our incentive, in most things our reward; it would be an immense benefit if she were in some things our companion. But so long as women are impedimenta, they impede even while they console. Like an army laden with luxuries, our march is the slower for the very reason of our comforts.

So long as man makes woman a mere nursery drudge and a superior housekeeper, he suppresses all that is high, free, and companionable in her,—all her characteristics, her originalities, and her possibilities. Though many women, in the eagerness for emancipation, neglect and despise the sordid cares of the nursery and the house, yet this is no more of an exaggeration, this is no further from the reasonable standard of dutifulness in such things, than the opposite extreme. The waste of women's minds and attention upon the infinitely selfish demands of unconscious children is an age-long tragedy, almost universal.

The abdication of all rights and freedoms is not beautiful, but inane. Until woman is sufficiently above the exaggeration of the instinct of maternity to enable her to reason about it, to cause her to wish to retain her self-possession, man will rightly regard her principally as a producer of children. So long as a woman's greatest subject of conversation consists of the details of housekeeping, man will conclude that her only interest is in such things. The necessary cares of the house belittle women's minds, and most women are content to become insignificant; but a few run to the opposite extreme and become merely neglectful. To be able to be moderate is to be strong. To seize on the reasonable, and to hold one's self steady therein, is one of the greatest of strengths.

And this is what the modern man asks of the modern woman. A man can hire both nurses and servants,—he need not marry them; and few men would insult a woman by marrying her merely for the sake of offspring or for a housekeeper,—or at least they would hardly admit such unworthy motives. But neither do men want women that imitate them even in their incapacity for domestic management. Either extreme will to the modern man be a disappointment.

The modern woman is reasonable. Her sweetness lies in her sympathetic wisdom, and her charm in her fresh, free, high womanhood. Young-souled and clear-minded, she will be cheerful in herself because she will be satisfied. Neither unnoticed and subservient, nor aloofly emancipated, but developed to her high possibilities, the coming woman will be more lovable, more admirable, and more companionable than she has ever yet been. Raised to her highest capacity, she will be more worthy of

man, and man will be more worthy of her. Do we not respect woman enough to dare to let them be themselves?

R. V. RISLEY.

NEW YORK.

★

THIS winter has seen in Chicago the conscientious and peculiar labors of the Countess Adeline Schimmelmänn among the poor. The lady came from Denmark late last fall, tying up her little pleasure yacht, in which she had crossed the Atlantic, at one of the city wharves. All winter her cabin has been warm and her table spread for all who cared to seat themselves at it. During the past five months she has fed thirty-six thousand men who would have gone hungry but for her hospitality. One by one she has sacrificed her jewels to supply the soup, bread, and tea with which she feeds her guests. Many of these jewels were gifts from the Emperor William and Empress Augusta; one was a gift from the Turkish government. Many charitable persons have collected money that her work of beneficence might be continued. The Countess is an eloquent and impassioned speaker, and she has given her utmost energies to her exhortations this winter. It is impossible to estimate the amount of good she may have done, and the crime she may have prevented. But it must have been great, particularly among that class whose offences are the result of want.

★

A new organization in New York city is called the German Housewives' Association, and it has for its purpose the housing and feeding of the newly arrived immigrant working-girl until a place is found for her. The association aims to stimulate ambition in the household domestic, and for this purpose prizes of money are awarded for set terms of service in any single household. If a girl has been two years in the service of one family, she is entitled to \$20, and \$5 per year additional is placed to the girl's credit for each twelvemonth that she remains in that family. No charge of any sort is made to the beneficiaries of this association. The girls are sheltered and fed free of expense to themselves upon their arrival in this country; applicants for work are served without fee; and the girls under the patronage of the society are entitled to free medical attendance. The references of all applicants for work are investigated, and strangers are put to a test before being placed with a family. Best of all, each girl is examined, that the board may determine what class of work she is best fitted for, and she is urged to stick to that particular thing; if a girl fails in one line, the board endeavors to find out in what directions her capabilities lie. How much better is this practical, direct, and simple method of procedure than constant railing and theorizing concerning the "domestic problem!"

★

ELLEN H. RICHARDS, a professor in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, points out, in

a recent article, one important fact in connection with the servant question. She says that a change in the living quarters of the maid is most urgently demanded. The present plan in most small houses, she says, is based on the old idea of "help,"—one who shares the family life. With the modern conditions of separate interests, something is needed which shall correspond with the "servants' hall" as it is known in England and other European countries. There should be a room so isolated that the maid can run a sewing-machine or receive a talkative friend without disturbing the family. "A place where a cup of tea may be served, where illustrated papers and magazines may find their way," is what Professor Richards desires. "How many of you," she asks, "will give up an effective porch, when designing your new home, in order that the maid may have a sitting-room?" One is fain to answer: "A great many would cheerfully do it if only they thought of it, but the truth of the matter is that America has never become used to service. At first it was confused by its ideals of democracy. The servants were supposed to enjoy liberty and equality, and therefore nothing was done for them. Now that these phrases have proved themselves to be more or less of the sounding brass and tinkling cymbal order, and very poor substitutes indeed for the comfort and the attitude of self-respect enjoyed by servants in other countries, it may be that mistresses will become aware of their responsibilities, and look after their servants as members of their households who deserve and are entitled to their care."

★

THE Philadelphia women are showing an active interest in the embellishment of their city and in the cultivation of the art sentiment. Last summer they managed a series of popular free concerts on one of the piers on the Delaware River, and these were so well attended as to warrant the permanent improvement of the property into a recreation pier and waterside park. They have also brought about the opening of twenty-five school yards as playgrounds during the summer vacation months, and have encouraged the planting of trees. The Brooklyn women have shown originality in their public-spiritedness. They have turned a large number of the vacant lots in the city into parks with the aid of some lawn seed and garden chairs. In nearly every case the owner of the property gave a ready consent to this use of the ground, where immediate building was not in contemplation, and not infrequently coöperated by donating plants or trees to assist in beautifying these resting-places.

★

EVEN the most ardent club woman must now and then falter in her belief that clubs are of any direct, palpable, distinct benefit to those who are in need of actual mental and spiritual help. It is therefore with gratification that one

notes invitations extended by the most popular literary club of a certain great Western city, to the women of a poor and congested neighborhood, and the cordial acceptance of that invitation by the women, who, a few years before, knew of little save the burdens of womanhood and the heavy round of poor women's tasks. These women have been reached through settlement work, formed into a club with a president of their own choosing, and led, little by little, into the discussion of subjects calculated to coax their minds beyond the daily drudgery. At first they understood slowly, but at length they came to have an appreciation even of abstract things, and to welcome, with especial cordiality, anyone who came to talk to them of poetry. They appeared to prefer such a subject to one more nearly bearing upon their own lives. It was really a great achievement when, in course of time, they were converted from heavy-featured, lackluster creatures into alert women who were not afraid to speak their own minds, who dressed with some appreciation of their individuality, and who had become aware of the fact that they, along with the rest of the world, were entitled to enjoyment.

★

HERE is a study of the "growing ideal of womanhood as depicted by our greatest novelists," as presented by Mrs. Celia Parker Woolley, the Unitarian minister, and given at the Chicago Women's Club rooms during the past winter:

THE COMMONPLACE TYPE

Richardson's *Pamela* and *Clarissa Harlowe*, Fielding's *Amelia*, the Vicar of Wakefield's wife and daughters, Fanny Burney's *Evelina*, etc.

THE ARTIFICIAL TYPE

Jane Austen's *Emma*, Mrs. Bennett and her daughters in "Pride and Prejudice," *Elinor* and *Marianne* in "Sense and Sensibility," Thackeray's *Amelia* in "Vanity Fair," the good but silly woman; *Becky Sharp*, the clever but unscrupulous; *Ethel Newcome*, *Laura Pendennis*, *Lady Castleton*, etc.

THE DOMESTIC TYPE

Walter Scott and Charles Dickens; woman's strength and weakness. *Jeanie* and *Effie Deans*, *Rowena* and *Rebecca*, *Amy Robsart*, *Agnes* and *Dora* in "David Copperfield," *Lizzie Hexam*, *Little Dorrit*, *Esther Summerson*, etc.

THE GROWING TYPE

Woman attaining a higher individuality of her own. Charlotte Brontë's *Jane Eyre*, *Shirley* and *Lucy Snowe*; Mrs. Browning's *Aurora Leigh*.

THE THINKING TYPE

The era of modern culture and its effects upon woman's work and character. George Eliot's heroines: *Dinah Morris*, *Romola*, *Maggie Tulliver*, *Dorothea Brooke*, *Gwendolen Harleth*, *Fedalma*, etc.

THE LIVING TYPE

Present-day authors and their heroines: Mrs. Humphry Ward's *Katherine Elsmere*, *Marcella*, and *Laura Fountain*; Hardy's *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*; George Meredith's *Diana of the Crossways*; Hall Caine's *Glory McQuayle*, etc.

ELIA W. PEATTIE.

CHICAGO.

ART AND MUSIC

THE TISSOT PAINTINGS AT CHICAGO

NEVER before in the history of the Art Institute of Chicago, except during the Verestchagin and Doré exhibitions, has a collection of pictures drawn such crowds of people as have the Tissot paintings illustrating the life of Christ. Many persons, who seldom or never set foot within the walls of an art gallery, have visited the Institute repeatedly to view these pictorial representations of a story familiar to them from childhood. Thousands have come and stood before these small canvases (so unlike Doré's immense pictures) and felt their power to move the spirit. The devotional mood is aroused as one gazes on the Gospel scenes and incidents depicted with such marvellous success by the artist. It is said that many of the visitors become so absorbed in their contemplation as to forget where they are. Mere sketches and drawings of Syrian places and modes of life would not have

this effect; it is due to the fact that the hill-sides of Galilee where the Son of Man passed the three years of His ministry are hallowed ground. It is said that "after gazing at them for a short time the visitors' faces seem to reflect the spirit of the pictures themselves; hearts are softened, eyes become dimmed with tears, and the lips begin unconsciously to mutter such prayers as are called forth by the Stations of the Cross in any Roman Catholic church." A rare triumph this for a painter to achieve!

The question at once arises, How did he do it? The comment of a well-known painter, Charles Francis Browne, is to the point:

"The strength of his art resides first in his absolute belief in what he portrays, and then the consummate knowledge of actual things that make it real. He is not striving to be picturesque, romantic, idealistic: he is simply and directly telling his story, which he believes in his heart to be true, in as straightforward and direct a manner as possible. And the result is that in all these



(From the painting by J. J. Tissot. By courtesy of "McClure's Magazine." Copyright, 1899, by The S. S. McClure Co.)

"JESUS WEPT." ST. JOHN XI. 35

drawings and paintings we overlook the artist and are engrossed by the story. This is a very rare thing in modern art, for most of it is a display more of technique than of idea. Religion has always inspired the highest art, and it is self-evident here that the religious faith and enthusiasm of Tissot have carried him through ten years of toil to the artistic victory now seen here in Chicago for the first time."

To Protestants these pictures, while remarkable in many ways, do not appeal so powerfully as they do to Romanists. Tissot's parents were Catholics, and his early training colored his ideals of Biblical characters and inclined him to deal with legendary incidents not referred to in the New Testament.

A number of prominent clergymen of Chicago have taken Tissot's version of the Gospel story as the text for pulpit discourses. The sermon by Dr. N. D. Hillis is a very appreciative estimate of Tissot's "biography in terms of art," as he calls the sumptuous work for which Tissot furnished the illustrations—"by way of preëminence, the greatest of lives of Christ for the people, appealing to the eye, not to the ear." "He has unveiled the Christ as a genial, radiant figure, the most lovable person in history."

The characterizations of other preachers are more critical. One complains of the sombre character of the collection as a whole:

"There is a tone of indescribable sadness about the whole array of scenes from the life of our Lord. There is scarcely one bright, happy face among all the hundreds portrayed. One gets an impression that everything about Christ's life was tinged with sadness, bitterness, dismay, and terror. Such sadness and gloom do not correspond with the life of Him who was the joy-giver. His whole ministry had to do with driving out sorrow."

The writer apparently forgets that the Messiah foretold by Isaiah was "a man of sorrows and acquainted with grief."

Another divine says:

"He is more an illustrator than a painter. His Christ is a pretty man, but not the Son of God. In execution he is strong, but in imaginative power and spiritual force weak. To realize this, put his early pictures of the 'Prodigal Son' beside Murillo's 'Prodigal Son,' or his 'Birth of our Lord' beside Correggio's 'La Nottè,' or his 'Transfiguration' beside Raphael's."

There is some truth in this view. For an example, the doll-like figure of Christ taken up into a high mountain by Satan is not in all respects admirable. The artist is too much of a realist. His desire to get at the truth is commendable, and his painstaking devotion to the task he imposed on himself is praiseworthy. He has lost something, it seems, in trying to avoid the errors of the old masters whose Last Suppers and Descents from the Cross are fanciful works, with no special care shown as to accuracy of details. Fra Angelico and Rubens put something into their paintings that Tissot has not. Whatever it is, spiritual elevation or



(From the painting by J. J. Tissot. By Courtesy of "McClure's Magazine,"
Copyright, 1899, by The S. B. McClure Co.)

HEROD

grandeur of conception, it is absent from these too lifelike reproductions in miniature. The failure is not altogether due to the size of Tissot's pictures—many of them about a foot square. Raphael could accomplish great things in small space, like his "Vision of Ezekiel." There are many bits of painting by Delacroix and Meissonier which are masterly. The failure is in part the result of the methods of the artist, who tried to break away from conventional conceptions. His realism is too much like that of Verestchagin. One is a little displeased to be so abruptly disillusioned. It is hard for one who has never been to Jerusalem to think of Mt. Calvary as an eminence about twenty-two feet high.

Commenting on this point, in self-justification the artist says:

"The Christian world has for a long time past had its imagination misled by the fancies of painters; and there

is a whole stock of images that must be driven out of its mind before it can be familiarized with notions that are a little nearer the truth. All the schools have, more or less consciously, had a hand in leading the public mind astray on this point. While some, like the schools of the Renaissance, have been occupied only with the *mise en scène*, and others, like the mystic schools, with sentiment alone, they have with one accord abandoned the ground of historical and topographical accuracy. Is it not time, in this age for which the approximate is no longer sufficient, to restore to reality—I do not say to realism—its usurped rights?

Undoubtedly James Tissot has some of the qualifications requisite to produce a graphic chronicle in color of the life of our Lord on earth. He has technical proficiency and industry. Sickness and bereavement so changed the man of the world, living the life of a successful painter amid luxurious surroundings, that he became serious and sympathetic, susceptible to religious impressions. He was then too old, however, to enter into the spirit of the work with the devotional fervor and intuition of a profoundly religious man from his youth up. However much he might study the sacred records and ponder on the deeds of the Divine One in flesh, he could not divest himself entirely of his worldly nature.

Becoming a pilgrim to Palestine at the age of fifty, Tissot journeyed through the Holy Land, sketching, photographing, and painting the scenes described by the Four Evangelists. He made only a short stay, then returned to France to perpetuate his reminiscences and visions on enduring canvas. Again and again he visited Palestine, never remaining more than a few months. Part of the work was done on the spot, noting down the exact proportions of the hills and valleys, and observing the characteristics of the people; the rest was done at his home, where he lived a life of solitude for years, consecrating his talents to this noble purpose and difficult endeavor. He became steeped in Orientalism, and learned the minutest details of people who must have resembled those of Christ's time. He took infinite pains to secure accuracy of detail in costume by living among the turbaned Arabs of the desert, who dress as did the inhabitants of Judæa two thousand years ago. Thus he got his idea of the appearance of the Virgin, of Mary Magdalene, of the Apostles, and of the white-robed figure of the Master.

The letter of Scripture was not always closely followed. The canons of art allow the use of suggestions, as well as of actual occurrences. Says the painter:

"I do not pretend to affirm that the events which I here recall happened just in this way; far from it. I have only desired to give a personal interpretation, based upon serious study, and intended to dispel as much as possible an inaccurate and vague view from people's minds."

To present the Saviour as He was seen by His contemporaries was Tissot's object; to retell the main incidents of His career with freshness and faithfulness to the surroundings; to reproduce the setting of that life whose beauty and majesty never elsewhere did men behold.

Of the paintings, thirty-two relate to the birth and childhood of Christ; about one hundred and fifty picture Him in His public ministry, preaching, teaching, healing, praying, in company with the Disciples and others; more than a hundred pictures are devoted to the dramatic and tragic circumstances of Holy Week and the Passion; more than thirty depict the events pertaining to His burial and resurrection and His final appearances before His ascension.

The life of Jesus in art is a fascinating theme. Christian art dates back almost to the beginning of our era. The Middle Ages produced numberless works illustrating New Testament history, and Christ was the central figure in the art of the Renaissance. Nearly all of the great painters of Italy and Spain and northern Europe turned aside from secular subjects from time to time, and painted Madonnas and Christs without end. In the following centuries other artists were attracted to the same field. The message of the Gospel, as expressed pictorially, has been vividly impressed on the men of our own century by Millais, Holman Hunt, Dobson, Rossetti, Hoffmann, Munkacsy, and a host of others. The possibilities of the subject were by no means exhausted. Tissot saw his opportunity and wisely improved it, producing the most systematic and complete illustrated biography of our Lord. While his exquisite versions of Scriptural incidents scarcely invite comparison with the masterpieces which adorn some old churches and cathedrals of Europe, his artistic creations form an impressive collection.

E. P.

THE PICTORIAL ART

THE earliest records of the pictorial art are met with in Egypt, but long before the Egyptian civilization there were fragments serving as hints that primitive man everywhere showed a taste for decoration and an instinct toward imitation. He certainly carved in outline men, animals, and natural objects on bone and stone. Traces of this rude work remain to us on the pottery, weapons, and stone implements of the cave-dwellers. Two

things are true of the beginnings of art as far as we can trace it: First, art is a reflex of the age producing it; and second, man in history has been progressive, and art has clearly marked the successive epochs.

Pictorial language was the earliest method of expressing ideas and recording history,—a method substantially the same as the later hieroglyphic writing of the Egyptians; the difference is merely one of development. It would

be interesting to follow out these lines of suggestive thought, but ours is rather a present-day discussion of the practical phases of our subject.

1. *Pictorial art is an imitation of nature.* This is both true and untrue. Nature is ever the type of art, and conformity to the facts of nature is a necessary requisite of art. The pictorial must resemble the natural. But there is danger of carrying this imitation too far, and so doing merely mechanical work. The advice of Hamlet to the players, "Hold the mirror up to nature," is good in a certain sense and to a limited degree. But Shakespeare himself never held the mirror up to nature. His characters are human and true to life. They are not copied, but created. The drama is one of the imitative arts, but the master of the drama was no imitator. He took Hamlet, Macbeth, Richard, Lear, Romeo,—mere skeletons upon which some facts of story hung,—and upon them builded his own thoughts and into them infused his own spirit. Stifle the imagination of Shakespeare, and you sweep his great characters back into dull commonplaces. In ordinary life we are not apt to find a Jean Valjean, John Halifax, Albert Savarus, Romola, or Portia.

The argument in favor of imitation has glorified every example of remarkable imitation, as, for instance, Holbein painting a fly on a portrait so exactly as to deceive the owner, who tried to brush it away; painting landscapes in studios that have been mistaken for windows looking out on nature; portraits mistaken for the originals; Parrhasius deceiving the birds with his painted grapes; Apelles deceiving Parrhasius with his painted curtains. These have been used as a triumphant plea for "truth to nature." If imitation is the object of art, why do we prefer the sightless eyes and white surface of the marble to the flesh-colored and jewel-eyed statues of saints in the churches? Why not accept photography in place of etching and painting. The camera, with its wonderful exactness and its gradual approach to color-pictures, ought then to supersede the artist.

The painter as a mere imitator is a failure. The best portrait-painter, even, is by no means a literalist. He does more and better; for he puts on his canvas what the ordinary person does not see and feel,—puts on it what *he* sees and feels. Art rises above imitation as soul above body. Imitation deals with outer surfaces, but art fills it with emotion. Realism is good if it bear the touch of idealism. Realism is apt to be dull; this is its tendency and danger. Even the novels of Zola and Tolstoi are not free from dullness, though there is fine work in them.

2. *The pictorial art is an interpretation of nature.* The bare facts of ordinary existence possess often but little interest for us. We tire of them and are anxious to be rid of them, and so we take up the charming story, or go to see the dramatic play, or turn to the ideal picture, or listen to the entrancing music.

Art is an interpreter of nature, and not a transcriber; a suggester, and not a realizer. It does not attempt to rival nature, but sympathetically to combine and depict its charms and make it more attractive. A sympathetic thinker goes alone to nature, looks at a beautiful landscape and thinks about it until every faculty is aglow with intense emotion. If he be a poet, he coins his burning thoughts into noble verse; if a painter, he makes his canvas a "thing of beauty and a joy forever." So the artist helps others to see and feel as he has seen and felt, and the poem or picture becomes a mental image to thousands. This is the power of great masters. Mere facts never made a work of art. Earth, air, sky, things, and people are facts; group them, and you will not of necessity have a masterpiece. Facts are the different blocks of a mosaic, but they are useless until the hand of genius touches and combines them into a work of beauty.

The greatest thing a human soul ever does in this world is to see something, and then tell what it sees in a plain and positive way. Such were the old prophets, such are poets, musicians, painters. The starting-point of genius is its original discovery, and the second step is its interpretation to the world. Art in all its technical difficulties is but the expression of thought and feeling. The picture, then, is the artist's way of speaking out his deepest feelings and his intensest thoughts. Such a picture will please and inspire, and this is art's indispensable requisite. Genuine art generates new feelings into the current of human life. Here is art's mission, for it has to do with the moral sensibilities.

3. *True pictorial art is thoroughly individual.* This is preëminently the age of individualism. Everything must bear the individual stamp if it would pass current and command the best. It is the artist's personal thought and feeling that we most admire in a picture. The true artist is he who has an individual view-point, and then pours his individuality into his work with all his power. Genius is but a way of looking at things. It sees the real and the ideal, and blends them; and this is its individual impress, its coat of arms. The facts of nature, to possess a serious interest for us upon the canvas, require to be heated with true poetic fire, transfused alike by the brain and heart of the artist. Great art is the product of great labor and great suffering. Something must go from the very life of the artist into his work. Art must *feel* before it can *speak*. Emotion goes straight to expression. Nature, to be vivified on the canvas, must be seen through the prism of an emotion. Life's best things come from the palpitating heart.

Let ten real landscape painters paint the same scene, and you will have ten beautiful but different landscapes. There was the "Barbizon School" in the forests of Fontainebleau; it consisted of Millet, Corot, Rousseau, Diaz,

Dupré, and Daubigny, and yet how unlike their work. Studying their masterpieces we are often led to ask, Is it possible that these are the same woods, the same cattle, and the same peasants that they were all painting? Yes, the very same, but it is a truism that we only know what we ourselves see. These great artists saw the same things, but from an individual view-point. Albert Dürer said: "Art lies hidden in nature; those who can, have only to tear it forth." Millet said: "Nature is rich enough to supply us all." Whistler writes: "Nature, indeed, contains the elements, in color and form, of all pictures, as the keyboard contains the notes of all music. But the artist is born to pick and choose and group with science these elements, that the result may be beautiful, as the musician gathers his notes and forms chords until he brings forth from chaos glorious harmony."

Individuality in art, as in everything else, is its power and glory. Art, to Phidias, was a matter of form, but how matchless that form!—to Titian a matter of color, but how exquisite that color!—to Corot a matter of feeling, but how deep that tide of feeling!—and yet each artist was a genius. To Michelangelo a woman's face was nothing if not thoughtful, to Raphael nothing if not beautiful, to Correggio nothing if not animated with life,—and yet each was a genius. Homer conceived existence heroically, Dante ecclesiastically, Milton religiously; Byron saw its misanthropic side, Scott its romantic, and Balzac its intensely realistic sides,—and yet each in himself was a genius.

He is the real artist who teaches us how to extend the area of our expression in daily life; who teaches us how to put a new color on

things, how to give our lives new and attractive forms, how to put grace into speech and action. Actions are pictures, and Life is the true Pictorial Art!

A late publication* contains many passages in line with the foregoing remarks and we append a few:

"Art is not concerned with conveying a *thought*. That is rather the province of ordinary language. As far as a drama, a picture, or a poem merely convey intelligence of new thoughts or ideas, they are not art. To be artistic they must excite emotion. People sometimes ask, What is the meaning of such and such a work? Meaning be hanged! There is certainly no harm in its having a definite meaning or moral interwoven with its structure: in some cases that may be quite necessary; but the real question is, What contagion of *feeling* does it communicate from the breast of the author to that of his audience?"

"Art has nothing to do with copy-book morality. But from another point of view it may be said that morality is itself an art. It is the art of life, and so the greatest of arts. To convey emotions of that class which inspire life and give it its finest utterance is obviously art work of the best sort."

"In the composition of a picture, though the picture may mainly rely for its effect on the representation of nature, yet this physiological side inevitably comes in, namely, in the massing of light and shade, in the decorative arrangement of the main outline, and in the general color scheme. What effects of massed color in Titian, or of chiaroscuro in Rembrandt, what charm of mere line in the intellectual Leonardo or in Leighton! How magical are some of the Japanese landscapes! A mountain outline, a suggestion of mist below, a promontory running into a lake, a few bold, quaint dashes in the foreground. What is the subject? One hardly knows, yet there is an effect as of music. The fancy is fired, and each time one looks there is a new beauty."

F. C. H.

*"Angel Wings," by Edward Carpenter. New York and London: The Macmillan Co.

THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ART

AMONG the enterprising things done by a number of Chicago women's clubs is the awarding of prizes at the annual exhibition made by the Western artists. These prizes range from \$100 to \$200, and the clubs frequently purchase the pictures their committees have distinguished in this manner. This seems to the club members an honest and generous fashion of encouraging the artists of their section, but a talented young painter presented another point of view the other day:

"I'm not sure but it is having a bad effect upon young artists. Anyone can see that some of them are much influenced by the knowledge of the existence of these awards. They choose canvases too large for their subjects, imagining that they meet a demand; they select subjects which they think likely to please the

women; and they work with one eye on the gallery. At every annual exhibit you can see signs and tokens of this. I believe that artists work with less self-consciousness when they are without the stimulus of awards. A true artist needs nothing of the sort, though a true artist, if he or she be poor enough, may be turned from disinterested devotion to art by the offer of money. Then there is a class that makes a direct bid for such favors—men and women who take a purely commercial view of art, and who do work with a smart quality to it which makes it impossible for a committee to refuse to hang their work. I myself am best pleased to work where there is no thought of any such thing as a prize. I wish to follow my mood uninfluenced by any consideration save that of doing the best work that in me lies."

E. W. P

THE LITERARY WORLD

**Trevelyan's
"American
Revolution" ***

A history of the American Revolution from the pen of an eminent English man of letters, and written from the point of view of a British sympathizer, is certainly a novelty. The work comes naturally, however, from the biographer of Charles James Fox, the English statesman and orator whose opposition to George the Third's policy of dragging the colonies was ever fierce and bitter. It comes naturally, moreover, from the nephew of the great Whig historian, Lord Macaulay, whose liberalism the writer shares, as he inherits, in no little degree, his literary characteristics and mental gifts. Fitly, too, the work comes from a British publishing house at an era of friendly relationship between the two countries, when each is seeking to forget the bitterness of early coercion and separation which long rankled in the breasts of both mother and child. But why we have the book at all is no secret, since the matter is explained in the author's preface, which tells us that the story of Fox's career, with the early years of which Sir George Trevelyan had already dealt, was, between the years 1774 and 1782, so inextricably interwoven with the story of the American Revolution that he was perforce driven to write a political history of the period rather than continue a political biography. "What was done and spoken at Westminster," affirms the author, "cannot be rightly explained, nor the conduct of British public men fairly judged, without a clear and reasonably detailed account of that which occurred contemporaneously beyond the Atlantic." Hence, in following the incidents in Fox's later life, when the young scapegrace had pulled himself together after his early vicious and prodigal youth, the historian was driven to take up the great theme that then filled the parliamentary orator's mind and consumed his activities, and deal with the event in view of its transcending importance to the Crown as well as to British statesmen and the British people.

Nor is the subject one upon which an Englishman may to-day not write, and with genuine sympathy for the revolutionary side and an honest conviction that the king and his truculent ministers were wrong in their harsh attitude towards the colonies. This may be said without glorifying rebellion or deeming all the virtues on the side of the American actors in the drama of the time that brought about the great schism of the race. There are few even of English writers who reject the idea that sep-

aration was one day sure to come, though they doubtless regret, as we do, that it came about as it did. Time, we know, brought a change of view to not a few British politicians before the arbitrament of arms was resorted to on this side. Concession, moreover, had been wrung from the king and his ministers, and there is little reason to doubt that after a while there would have been many modifications of the imposts against which the colonists protested and a cancelling of the more serious grievances. But precipitation meantime did its work, and hostile minds were inflamed by angry appeals to prejudice; while the attitude of many royalists in the colonies was often so overbearing that independence and the spirit of liberty which the New World fostered took increasing exception to the continued sovereignty of the motherland.

How determinedly Fox opposed the king and "the king's friends" in their oppression of the North American colonies the political history of the time has of course long since told us. But we need Sir George Trevelyan's special insight into Fox's career, as well as his indefatigable research, to enable us to realize how vigorous and persistent was his resistance to the policy of the king and his government, and with what trenchant force he denounced the irritating schemes of colonial taxation. Like Chatham, Fox was a staunch supporter of the colonial cause and a vehement opponent of Lord North's government, whose arbitrary measures he eloquently denounced in Parliament. But such was the obstinacy of the king that Fox's scathing denunciations only made him more bitter and provoked the stubbornness that led finally and inevitably to estrangement. Nor under George the Third's system of personal government could any ameliorating influence be looked for from his ministers. By the more independent of them, so long as they were suffered to hold place, the king was repeatedly warned that a coercive policy towards the colonies would end disastrously. Where conciliation had been attempted, the king intrigued to defeat it, and, as our author relates, shamefully thwarted every effort to placate the colonies, and treated such attempts on the part of his ministers as "inexpiable disloyalty to the Crown." Pacification was thus out of the question, and England's administration of the colonies, in consequence, fell to the nadir of tyranny, of impolicy, and, so far as the government rather than the English people were concerned, of dishonor.

On the other hand, despite what was averred in the colonies, that up to 1774 there was no

* * * "The American Revolution." Part I, 1766-1776. By the Rt. Hon. Sir George Otto Trevelyan, Bart. London & New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1899.

thought of independence, the blame of the rupture does not lie wholly on the English side. There were agitators in New England and the Virginias who fomented the quarrel, and traders whose selfishness saw personal advantage in separation. Nor has American oratory nothing to charge itself with in widening the breach, as we see in the extravagant rhetoric of leaders like Samuel Adams and Patrick Henry. Hard as Sir George Trevelyan is on the obdurate king and English statesmen such as Lord North, Grenville, and Townshend, he has little else but smooth words for the influential men in the colonies, who, instead of instilling resentment, might, by urging patience and reasonable submission, have averted the rupture by violence. When the author indulges in censure of the colonists it is of a mild type, in sharp contrast to the severe strictures he passes on the corrupt English ministers and the venal parliamentary majority which harassed and distressed the colonies. This is what he has to say of the moral effect of the revolution upon America:

"The Revolutionary War, like all civil wars, changed many things and troubled many waters. It must be accounted a misfortune that American society and the American character were not allowed to develop themselves in a natural and unbroken growth from the point which they had reached at the close of the first century and a half of their history."

And, again, looking to the effect of the same disturbing influence on the South, the author observes:

"The mutual hatred felt and the barbarities inflicted and suffered by partisans of either side in Georgia and the Carolinas between 1776 and 1782 left behind them in those regions habits of lawlessness and violence, evil traces of which lasted into our lifetime. As for the Northern States, it was a pity that the wholesome and happy conditions of existence prevailing there before the struggle for independence were ever disturbed, for no change was likely to improve them."

The passages recall similar indications of evil consequences flowing from revolution and dismemberment which Prof. Goldwin Smith thoughtfully traces in his "Political History of the United States," in dealing with the era of Independence. Says the distinguished Professor:

"The colonists by their emancipation won commercial as well as fiscal freedom, and the still more precious freedom of development, political, social, and spiritual. They were fairly launched on the course of their own destiny, which diverged widely from that of a monarchical and aristocratic realm of the Old World. But their liberty was baptized in civil blood, it was cradled in confiscation and massacre, its natal hour was the hour of exile for thousands of worthy citizens whose conservatism, though its ascendancy was not desirable, might, as all true liberals will allow, have usefully leavened the republican mass. A fallacious ideal of political character was set up. Patriotism was identified with rebellion, and the young republic received a revolutionary bias, of the opposite of which it stood in need. The sequel of the Boston Tea Party was the firing on Fort Sumter."

But we cannot linger further over Sir George Trevelyan's instructive volume, attractive and entertaining though it may be. The work will

be read throughout with interest. American readers, especially, will look with curiosity for the later instalment, to see how the author will treat the subsequent events in the struggle for independence; for the present narrative traces the history only down to Howe's withdrawal of the British troops from Boston in June, 1776. It, however, chronicles the appointment of Washington to the chief command of the colonial levies, and gives, in an earlier chapter, an admirable pen picture of the commander-in-chief. Other interesting character studies of the actors of the time will be found throughout the work, the best and most sympathetic of which perhaps are those on Franklin on the one side and Lord Dartmouth on the other. Among other sketches, besides that of Fox, which the historical student will appreciate in the interesting volume, are those of Burke, Chatham, Lord North, and the king.

G. M. A.

★

The Browning Letters

The announcement of the publication of the letters of Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett* did not fail to arouse some apprehension of another *exposé* of matters chiefly private and personal, like that of the Hawthorne letters. But this apprehension proves to have been quite unfounded. The two sumptuous volumes contain all the letters that passed between Mr. Browning and his wife, with the exception of one destroyed by mutual consent. Their perusal, however, divulges nothing that should have been withheld. Even the details incident to the necessity of keeping secret their engagement, and for a few days also their marriage, are interesting by reason of the dignity of character they reveal, as well as the consideration for others that prompted such a course. In his marriage Mr. Browning realized the "divinest confirmation" of his own powers; the union brought to both "a fullness of sympathy, a sharing of life with one another," that not only made it an ideal relation, but one that animated much of the best work of each. From this point of view—the revelation of two great and interesting personalities and their influence upon each other—the correspondence is valuable and its publication can certainly occasion no regret.

At the time their acquaintance began Miss Barrett's genius was already acknowledged, while Browning's work was but little known. In his first letter, before the two had met, Browning wrote: "So into me has it gone, and part of me has it become, this great living poetry of yours," and Miss Barrett's answer established from the first a frank understanding between them. "If you will tell me of such faults," she wrote, "as rise to the surface and strike you as important in my poems, you

* * The Letters of Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett Barrett, 1845-46. 2 vols. crown 8vo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

will confer a lasting obligation on me, and one which I shall value so much that I covet it at a distance." Thus from the very beginning poetry, which was the "serious thing" to each, brought them nearer together. Each had the highest appreciation of the other's gifts and work. Early in their correspondence Browning says: "I repeat to myself that your poetry must be, cannot but be, infinitely more to me than mine to you." The letters clearly show that in saying, after his wife's death, "she was the greater poet," Mr. Browning did not express the feeling of bereaved sentiment, but that his honest opinion was such from the first. Miss Barrett also, in answering the first letter, wrote: "Sympathy is dear—very dear to me: but the sympathy of a poet, and of such a poet, is the quintessence of sympathy to me."

To the student the chief value of the letters will be their evidence at first hand on the history and development of various poems. Of special interest, as throwing light upon a much criticised point, is the remark regarding "The Flight of the Duchess." "As I conceived the poem, it consisted entirely of the Gipsy's description of the life the lady was to lead with her future Gipsy lover—a real life, not an unreal one like that with the Duke. And as I meant to write it, all their wild adventures would have come out and the insignificance of the former vegetation would have been deducible only—as the main subject has become now; of course it comes to the same thing, for one would never show half by half like a cut orange." This shows Mr. Browning's thought, but without this confession it has been difficult to see why so little was said of what the title implied as the theme.

The influence of Mr. Browning's own doubt and self-criticism regarding one of his most perfect poems—"Saul"—is interesting, and all the more so because of his singular indifference to the opinions of critics. "Not being listened to by one human creature" would, he hopes, "in no wise affect him," and that a "gruff word or two" should be dreaded is "quite inexplicable"; yet it is evident that he considered the first nine divisions of "Saul," published in 1845, a failure. Miss Barrett alludes to a remark of his concerning "sixty lines wasted," and also his scruples concerning the lyrics sung by David. The passage is worth quoting:

"But your 'Saul' is unobjectionable as far as I can see, my dear friend. He was tormented by an evil spirit—but how, we are not told . . . and the consolation is not obliged to be definite . . . is it? A singer was sent for as a singer—and all that you are called upon to be true to are the general characteristics of David the chosen, standing between his sheep and his dawning hereafter, between innocence and holiness . . . and surely you have been happy in the tone and spirit of these lyrics, broken as you have left them. . . . The whole concep-

tion of the poem I like. . . . How could you doubt about this poem?"

To one familiar with the "Sonnets from the Portuguese" these letters are of special interest. The collection, it will be remembered, was given by Mrs. Browning to her husband at Pisa shortly after their marriage. The letters show the thoughts, the first emotions, that, transmuted into poetic form, inspired some of the finest sonnets in our language. Miss Barrett was teased by the notion that it would be better for Mr. Browning to give her up, an idea that he could not understand in the unselfish way she meant it. In writing of it she says in a letter of July 30, 1846: "For I have none in the world who will hold me to make me live in it, except only you. I have come back for you alone, at your voice." Involuntarily this suggests the lines in the twenty-seventh sonnet.

"My own, my own,
Who camest to me when the world was gone.
And I who looked for only God, found thee!
I find thee; I am safe and strong and glad."

Again, in a long letter of February 24, in which she tells Mr. Browning how he realizes the ideal she had always loved, and speaks of the meaning of it all to her, the thought of the beautiful forty-third sonnet was taking form in her mind. Similar instances can easily be multiplied.

It may be consoling to those who have not always found Browning's meaning clear to know that even Miss Barrett once asked, "Do tell me what you mean precisely by your 'Bells and Pomegranates' title?" And again, in referring to it, she wrote, "I persist in thinking you ought not to be too disdainful to explain your meaning in the 'Pomegranates.' Consider that Mr. Kenyon and I may fairly represent the average intelligence of your readers, and that he was altogether in the clouds as to your meaning . . . while I missed the distinctive significance as completely as he did." This evidently shows why Mr. Browning did explain his title at the end of his first series. Miss Barrett remonstrated against his "tendency, which is almost a habit, of making lines difficult for the reader to read; . . . the uncertainty of the rhythm throws the reader's mind off the rail and interrupts his progress." She also urged the use of titles and names for his poems. "You perplex your readers often by casting yourself on their intelligence in these things. . . . Often I have observed how some of the most beautiful of your lyrics have suffered just from your disdain of the usual tactics of writers in this one respect."

The volumes afford many pleasant glimpses of personal characteristics and tastes,—Mrs. Browning's delight in "little books," flowers, and dainty things; Mr. Browning's thorough wholesomeness and freedom from pedantry. It is a temptation to quote too much, but with one bit on this last point the fascinating volumes must be laid aside. In planning for their journey to

Italy Mrs. Browning wished to take books and a writing-desk with her. To this Mr. Browning objected on the ground of extra luggage, and added, in words that it would be well for all travellers to heed: "I think the fewer books we take the better; they take up room, and the wise way always seemed to me to read in rooms at home and to open one's eyes and see abroad." L. A. R.

★

Marion Crawford's *Immortal Rome*—THE point of view from which this book is written is that of the novelist. It is neither a history nor an archaeological treatise. It is the romance of Rome, a picture of the social life of the people; it deals with passion and emotion; it shows us the strong virtues and colossal vices, the deeds grand and horrible of a race that has tended to giantism throughout its history. Mr. Crawford himself says that unless one can pass a lifetime in Rome it is better to feel much than to know little. And this is what he has done; he has felt so much and so keenly that no one can fail to share his enthusiasm.

It is a hard thing for an Anglo-Saxon to assimilate the spirit of mediæval Rome. But if any modern romanticist has been gifted in that way it is unquestionably Mr. Crawford. As a child he absorbed the impressions and grew in the atmosphere of the Eternal City. Later, through long years and with untiring devotion, he studied her annals, learned her life, and saw her humanity, and all this through the eyes of the student and critic of human nature. That he has succeeded in reproducing a part at least of the spirit of Rome cannot be denied, and that he shows wonderful familiarity with her history and her traditions is also true. His object is to show us the life of Rome through the medium of legends and popular tales that are woven in brilliant and startling colors, with a slight warp of truth and a full woof of fancy. The city itself, with its streets, buildings, and monuments, the art of centuries, is used merely as a setting for the great continuity of human life that has died out and reappeared, struggled, conquered, and weakened, but has always been born afresh "on the ruins of the old," from the time when Rome was founded by the shepherds of Alba Longa to the Rome of United Italy and Leo Thirteenth. This idea of the continuity of life is the central thread running through the book. The hidden possibility of rising like a phoenix from her ashes, the strong principle of life overcoming the want of unity and the fierce struggles of centuries, is the quality that has made Rome immortal.

The first two chapters give an historic sketch of the city from its foundation to the Middle Ages. They form a rapid survey, without

dates, and presuppose a full knowledge of Roman history. It is a swift, picturesque presentation of facts, and is skilfully done. In these few pages we follow the growth of the city. The beginning was when the wandering shepherds of Alba Longa dug their first trench on the Palatine and elected their shepherd-king. On through the legendary times of the kings, of the Horatii and the Curatii, of Horatius who kept the bridge, and of strong Brutus who delivered the people from the Tarquins, there follows next the long Commonwealth, when history had displaced legend, and Rome had grown lusty in strength and reached out to subdue the world. Then revolutions and civil war, bloodshed and violence, and out of these law and order established by Julius Cæsar, and the Empire founded by Augustus. All this is told graphically, with rapid movement and rich flow of language, interspersed with reflections and deductions. By far the most striking pages in these introductory chapters are those which portray the character and career of Julius Cæsar. It is a powerful sketch, and accords Cæsar the highest place in the history of humanity, as being the only man without whom the world of to-day could not have existed.

In chapter three we have a glimpse of the city of Augustus. It is the picture drawn for us by Horace, the poet who most profoundly appeals to the novelist of the nineteenth century through the tie of humanity. Then follows a rapid survey of the Empire, and finally with the Middle Ages begins the chief interest and purpose of the book.

In the study of the mediæval city Mr. Crawford follows the plan of taking, in separate and disconnected chapters, the fourteen "regions" into which Rome has been divided since the time of Augustus. These regions, forming as they did one of the strongest elements of power in the existence of the city, made possible the struggles, the tragedies, the thousand bloody scenes of mediæval Rome. Whether in the rivalry of peace, or the conflict of war, the *Rioni*—each having a distinct existence and a local pride—were continually pitted against one another in jealousy or opposition, much as were the larger communities of the Italian republics.

Through these *Rioni* Mr. Crawford strolls wherever he wills, much as Horace strolled before him through the city of Augustus, and as he strolls he tells us whatever the spirit and his mood move him to relate,—a good deal of unsystematic history, the description here and there of a palace, tomb, or church, impressions by the way of modern life, dissertations on painting not very illuminating, social reflections often keen, and legends, tale on tale, ecclesiastic and military, bloody deeds and idle superstitions.

From out of this throng of disconnected scenes we cull passages, sometimes whole chapters, of deep interest, as in the picture of the Roman family and patriarchal home in the

**"Ave Roma Immortalis,"* by F. Marion Crawford. With Illustrations. Two volumes, crown 8vo. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1898.

chapter on the Colonna Region, which falls with a strange sound on Anglo-Saxon ears. It seems hard to believe that a mode of life which gave the head of the house the power of a tyrant over his family should have descended in a direct line of tradition from Romulus to the Barons of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. In this picture we can call up clearly the household life of a noble family, and we carry away a distinct impression that we are not likely to forget. The same cannot be said throughout, for at times the haphazard narrative grows turgid and confused, and we weary of the unordered succession.

Some attempt at classification has been made by the division of the book into regions, but the city itself, great with the majesty of ages, is not grasped in its entirety. Even the separate regions are not pictured as individual wholes. Some of the most important buildings are mentioned, and usually the chief tradition, influence, or event connected with the quarter is recounted in detail, but no relation is made between the parts. These traditions are frequently the well-known, oft-told tales familiar to each one of us, and one is sometimes led to question why Mr. Crawford should not have dived deeper into that mine of uncommon legends which is still left without a story-teller. In dealing with old material—old in the sense of being widely familiar—some added charm is often given by the beauty of the literary style or the originality of the author's point of view. In some cases, however, the gain is scarcely of sufficient value to warrant the retelling. Take the long description of the Carnival as an instance. The only note of any newness that is struck is where Mr. Crawford tells us that we never before have heard a whole city laugh.

The book will fascinate many at a first reading, for the writer is filled with that zeal and affection which Rome is wont to inspire in those who live in her midst. And everyone who admires Mr. Crawford's style will be interested in this finished product of his Oriental pen, for, although the treatment is inadequate, he has been so far impressed by the grandeur of his theme that he has adopted throughout a style highly wrought and elaborate, often very beautiful, as in the closing pages of the book, but as often confused and exaggerated. Yet to those who, as they read, can bring to their memory the recollection of scenes and places familiar to them, these stray studies of life among the records of a civilization which has disappeared, but which fitted into the setting that remains as a sword fits into its scabbard, will be of un-failing interest.

JOHN WARD.

PRINCETON, N.J.

★

Ward's The first edition of Dr. Ward's
"Dramatic Literature" great work on the history of
the English drama was published in two volumes in 1875. It speaks well for the recognition which it deserved and which it has won that its author has been encouraged

so elaborately to revise and enlarge it as to add a third volume, and that his publishers have been encouraged to reprint it. This second edition* covers precisely the same period as the first: Dr. Ward has occupied the quarter century which has intervened merely in going over the same ground and in amplifying his materials and his criticisms. Indeed, in this his second edition, his short but interesting Introduction (occupying but thirty pages) is altogether omitted—"to make room," says the Preface, "for a more ample treatment of various passages in the body of the work" (p. v). The present reviewer cannot but express his regret at the omission. Thirty pages are but a modicum in two thousand. Rather he would have preferred three hundred pages of a "theoretical introduction" which would have given in bird's-eye view the germ of dramatic literature—as once for all theoretically defined by Aristotle (see 1st ed., Vol. I, p. xv)—and how that germ took root, grew, and blossomed in England. To this day we debate on that definition—as recent commentaries on Aristotle's "Poetics" show; to this day we debate on the differences in the growth of that germ according as it is planted on Classic or on Romantic soil. However, no doubt Dr. Ward presupposes that the student of his great work will have already mastered theoretical writers on the stage—Donaldson, for example, on the ancient, and August Wilhelm Schlegel on the modern as compared with the ancient, theatre, to mention no others. Dr. Ward's work is a colossal text-book on the English drama from the earliest times to the eighteenth century.

As such text-book it is of paramount importance to the student of English literature. Of course every college library will put it on its shelves. And it is a model of a text-book. Even its style gives the impression of rigid accuracy, of plenitude of knowledge, of careful comment, of undeviating adherence to fact and extrusion of fancy. Two brief citations will suffice to exemplify Dr. Ward's style. Speaking of Peele's "The Old Wives' Tale" (1595), he says:

"For the rest, the fresh and sparkling induction of the piece, together with the irresistible flow of high spirits that pervades it as a whole and atones for the considerable admixture of romance dissolved in nonsense, ought to suffice to make it delightful to readers open to the charms of despicence in season." (I. 374.)

Speaking of James Shirley (1596-1666), he says:

"The merits of Shirley—partly perhaps in deference to the reckless satire of Dryden and some of his contemporaries—have been usually treated with a negligence bordering on contempt; but an attentive perusal of his writings is, I think, likely to modify the notion that his pretensions are antiquated and that his doom is decay. (III. 89.)

*A History of English Dramatic Literature to the Death of Queen Anne." By Adolphus William Ward. Litt.D., LL.D., Late Principal of Owens College, Manchester. New and revised edition, 3 vols. London and New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899.

That is not, perhaps, exactly the impressive and at the same time lively style of an S. T. Coleridge when discussing ancient dramatists; but Coleridge was addressing a London or a Bristol audience; * Dr. Ward is writing for students in their "pensive citadels."

This new edition enables Dr. Ward to supplement his remarks on modern expositors of Shakespeare by the following tribute to American scholarship:

"Meanwhile, on the other side of the Atlantic, both the æsthetic and the philological study of Shakespeare in particular, as well as the general criticism and illustration of his writings, have been carried on with indefatigable devotion. The editions of Hudson (1853-56 and 1881) and Grant White (1857-65), of the biographical introduction to which the same author's charming "Life and Genius of Shakespeare" (1865) is virtually a reprint, and, above all, the incomparable "New Variorum" edition of Mr. Howard Furness (of which eleven volumes have been placed in our hands since its commencement in 1873), are enduring monuments of American scholarship and learning. Many lighter and even incidental contributions to the literature of Shakespeare-criticism, from Washington Irving to Russell Lowell, might be cited to show how deep a root the love of Shakespeare has struck in the minds and hearts of our kinsmen, and what choice fruit they have made it bear." (I. 571.)

The "Bacon-Shakespeare craze," as the author marginally terms it, is dismissed as "nonsensical imaginings," and evidently utterly unworthy of any notice more than this.

T. A. H.

★

Ober's "Puerto Rico" The events of the past year, in connection with our war with Spain, have transferred Puerto Rico to the United States from the Peninsular Power which has nominally held it since Columbus's discovery of the island in 1493. In acquiring it from Spain, or, as we may be suffered to say, in taking possession of it by right of conquest, we have travelled far from Seward's day, when that statesman proposed that the United States should buy the Danish islands in the West Indies as coaling-stations and bases of supply for our fleet in the "Mediterranean of America." Whether Cuba will or will not be permanently retained by this country, Puerto Rico, over which our country's flag now proudly floats, will be a valuable as well as, doubtless, an abiding possession. Commercially, no less than strategically, it is an important island outpost, admirably situated climatically as a winter resort for our people as well as for supplying our markets with a variety of the most highly prized of tropical fruits. Its range of products is great, including, besides fruits and nuts, spices, cereals, and food plants; while the island is blessed with many excellent and safe harbors and with a salubrious and generally healthy climate. Its resources, moreover, embrace many valuable dyes, drugs, woods, and minerals, together with sugar, tobacco, coffee, and cacao. As an American possession, these resources will now, no doubt, be greatly augmented and developed, with the benefit of

* See Coleridge's "Lectures on Shakespeare," collected by T. Ashe. London: George Bell and Sons.

ample capital and the aids and facilities of experienced scientific cultivation. Of what the island is capable, the intelligent and well-informed author, Mr. Ober, fully tells us in his instructive book on "Puerto Rico and Its Resources" (New York: D. Appleton & Co.). His work will be found to meet just what the investor, the immigrant, and the traveller want to know, and that on trustworthy lines, for Mr. Ober has some twenty years' experience of the island, and knows it not simply as a fitting visitor or globe-trotter, who merely culls a few crumbs or stray fragments of fact, to be afterwards padded out and embellished into a book. Nor is the volume a mere war-correspondent's itinerary, thrown together after a few hasty glimpses of the island in the track of the troops. The work has higher and more enduring merits, as the serious reader may readily and pleasurably discover for himself.

G. M. A.

★

A NEW story ("The Black Douglas") by Mr. S. R. Crockett, author of "The Raiders," will be welcomed by those who relish Scottish fiction, especially where it deals with history and in somewhat of the vein of Sir Walter Scott. The fall of the great House of Douglas, with which it deals, Mr. Crockett observes, "was the one romance of my boyhood"; the story therefore may be expected to be written with spirit and enthusiasm.

★

BOOKS RECEIVED

Texte, Joseph: "Jean-Jacques Rousseau and the Cosmopolitan Spirit in Literature: A Study of the Literary Relations of France and England in the Eighteenth Century." Translated by J. W. Matthews. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Co.

Goode, W. A. M.: "With Sampson Through the War: An Account of the Naval Operations of the Atlantic Squadron During the Spanish-American War of 1898." With contributed chapters by Rear-Admiral Sampson, Captain Robley D. Evans, and Commander C. C. Todd. 8vo. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

Ober, Frederick A.: "Puerto Rico and Its Resources." With maps and illustrations. 12mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Crockett, S. R.: "The Black Douglas." A novel, by the author of "The Stickit Minister," "The Raiders," etc. 12mo. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

Parsons, S., Jr. (ex-Superintendent of Parks, New York city): "How to Plan the Home Grounds." With illustrations by W. E. Spader, under the direction of G. F. Pentecost, Jr., F.A.S.L.A. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

Dix, Beulah Marie: "Hugh Gwyeth: A Roundhead Cavalier." A novel. London and New York: The Macmillan Co.

Addison (Joseph) and Steele (Richard): "Sir Roger de Coverley," from Essays from "The Spectator." Edited with notes and an introduction by Zelma Gray (Macmillan's Pocket English Classics). 25 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

"Fabian Essays in Socialism." With introduction by the late Edward Bellamy. Boston: Chas. E. Brown & Co.

De Bergerac, Cyrano: "A Voyage to the Moon." 16mo. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

Poems, by Richard Realf—Poet, Soldier, and Workman." With a Memoir by Richard G. Hinton. 12mo. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD

A GROWL OVER THE SPELLING-BOOK

"H AVE you learned that spelling-lesson, Mabel?"

"No, I haven't. I've studied it a dozen times, too. I hate that horrid old speller! I wish it was in Halifax!"

"So do I," "and I," "and I," chimed in other voices.

I peeped around the shrubbery that concealed me from the school children hurrying by. The speakers were not the poor, half-clad children of hand-to-mouth laborers. They were pretty, well-dressed misses that belonged to the "upper ten" families of our village. The vehement emphasis of that "I hate that horrid old speller" kept ringing in my ears. I remembered how my own little girl had wept over this same speller,—how I had given out the words to her, sometimes a dozen times over, and how it had tried me that she, the last of a line of expert spellers, should be so dull in her orthography. Perhaps I had been too exacting with her. What is the matter with the present generation's spelling, any way? But yesterday my dressmaker sent me this note:

"I hope this dress will please you. I made the new stile sleeve, as you suggested. MARY FITCH."

Last week I read a letter from a college girl. It accompanied a flattering report card of high proficiency in her various studies. Nevertheless three common, everyday words were misspelled in her letter. To cap the climax, I give *verbatim* the following note, filed among my husband's business papers:

"APRIL 7th. 1898.
Please pay barer alte dolars. Charge to my akount.
THOMAS GUMPY."

When it has reached the point that a man can misspell six words out of twelve, as did this Thomas Gumpy, and yet be elected school director, as he was that same April, what are our schools coming to? The largest wholesale dry-goods concern in one of the Western States habitually spells socks as "sox," and riveted as "rivited." What are our business men coming to?

It was not that way once. Our fathers and mothers considered a misspelled word in their correspondence as a disgrace. They learned to spell from Webster's old blue-backed "Elementary Speller," commencing with *a-b ab*, progressing to *ba-ker*, and finishing up with many-syllabled *in-com-pre-hen-si-bil-i-ty*. In those days the spelling class stood in a row to recite. The scholar that was Number 1 stood at the

head of the class until he was spelled down. Sometimes the same scholar stood at the head the entire term, and Numbers 2, 3, 4, and 5 stood as firmly in their respective ranks. So proud were these old-time boys and girls of their abilities in that line, that it was considered a point of honor to know each spelling-lesson by heart. The teacher would call the class up, make them "toe the mark" to a line in the floor; then he would pause in silence before the first expert speller. Proudly Number 1 would pronounce the first word of the lesson, then spell it. Number 2 would as promptly follow. Numbers 3 and 4 would take the cue as quickly. My mother has said that she has heard an entire lesson thus recited from memory, the teacher not having pronounced so much as a single word. The old blue-backed speller did not give words from the French or Italian languages, nor did it cull long lists of "catch" words from the hidden recesses of the Unabridged Dictionary. It did have a tolerably complete list of the words in everyday use, and it turned out the best spellers the world has ever known.

In the days of our schooling—and by "our" I mean the generation of us who are of middle age—we had progressed to the yellow-backed McGuffey Spelling Book, to an intimate acquaintance with silent-lettered words, and to an introductory knowledge of a few Frenchified words. Spelling was yet oral, and we still stood in a row to recite. However, the head of the class went down to the foot every night so as to give all an equal chance. We still took pride in our spelling, and every scholar's ambition was to get as many head marks as possible. Many of us missed not a single word in an entire year's school. Can as much be said for to-day's pupils in this era of written spelling, when all incentives toward headships or honors are removed?

Our latter-day spellers are constructed on the theory that all spelling-lessons are to be written. The advocates of this method tell us that it defeats parrot-like dependence upon sound; that it trains the eye to distinguish between bothersome *r*'s and *e*'s, or to the presence of silent letters; and, above all, that it develops an easy and quick chirography.

That is the theory. What are the facts? The rising generation are poorer spellers than the generation that preceded them. The handwriting of the average high-school or college student of to-day is notably below the standard

of the high-school or college student of twenty years ago, both in elegance and legibility. We are unorthodox enough to believe that this constant writing of the spelling-lessons is—to the youngest pupils at least—a positive detriment. Children that have not yet grasped the rudiments of correct penmanship are put at once to the task, not of correcting their crude writing, but of putting it into actual use. In these daily tasks the chirography is of secondary importance to the correct etymology. The pupils are hurried through the lesson, their clumsy little fingers making all sorts of wild marks and crooked capitals. By constant repetition these habits of letter-shaping become fixed. More than that, the universal use of the pencil unfits them for the pen. Give the older pupils, if need be, the written exercises, but don't compel the babies of the school to make bricks without straw. Don't compel them to write their lessons when as yet it takes a real effort for them to make a loop to their *g*'s, or to put a cross to their *l*'s.

I charge that our modern spelling-books are compiled on the theory that every school is as well equipped as to libraries and teaching facilities as are the large city schools; that the needs and requirements of country schools are ignored. I as specifically declare that they teach and pander to an affected style of pronunciation, and that they are deliberately neglecting solid, sturdy English words to introduce words foreign to our Saxon tongue. Now for my proof.

I take up a well-thumbed spelling-book. It is the same one my little daughter has wept over so often. It is the text-book of our public schools. Is it for the merchant's daughter, the professor's son, the clergyman's nephew? Or is it for the widow's boy, the farmer's daughters, the hod-carrier's children, and the drunkard's neglected offspring? We answer "Yes" to the first, twice "Yes" to the second, question. The public school is but a stepping-stone to something greater to those first favored ones, while it is the *alma mater* of the common people. Watch the children as they go by to school.

There goes a sturdy, chunky-built boy, Jakey Schneider. His father is a Dutch farmer with a family of twelve. Jakey will do just as his brothers John, Otto, Fred, Fritz, and Joe have done,—go to school while small, begin to stay at home to help at twelve, and never go a day after he is fourteen. He has a good brain, but not a quick one. The problem is not what accomplishments may be acquired by Jakey in his brief school life, but what actual solid knowledge shall be imparted to him. Every bit of unnecessary cramming and foreign-word memorizing is an actual detriment to him, as taking up that much of his precious time.

There goes lazy Pete. If his lessons were attractive and fairly easy, he might at least

try at them. When they are hard, dull, and unintelligible, he simply does not try. There is small chance for him to be anything but a booby if his other studies are as laboriously stupid and involved as is his speller. There goes mischievous Tom, sullen Dick, scatter-brained Bob,—none of them the ideal studious children for whom this book was compiled; nevertheless, they are very much in evidence, as the perplexed and sorely-tried teacher knows to her sorrow. And here come in a group Irish Mary, volatile, running over with mirth, quick as a cat at her lessons, forgetting next week what she has learned this; stupid Jane, the dunce of the school; chattering Maggie; madcap Ellen; and sickly Ruth, always coughing, always with an aching head. What is the bill of fare that this speller offers as mental food to these children?

Before the children are out of words of four letters they have to learn such words as these: *dune, lune, pule, dure, moil, and wort*. Ask half the graybeards, and they cannot tell you what a *dune* or a *lune* may be. Why burden childish minds with half-obsolete and altogether uncommon words? Go a little farther, and we find such words as these: *cives, torque, fyke, tete, sice, tige, pirn, feoff, gyre, oppugn, rasure, and obligor*. What idea as to the meaning of these words floats through Dutch Jakey's brain as he spells *exergue, cognoscible, eleve, and ophicleide*? Is it not a farce to compel children to memorize such words as these, of which not the least conception of their use is felt?

"The teacher should explain all unusual words," says our mentor. We point for answer to a district school, one of thousands. The teacher has sixty-five pupils, ranging in age from six years to twenty. Through the six-hour school day he hears four arithmetic, three grammar, five reading, two geography, two physiology, history, and civil government classes. How much time has he left to explain unusual words to his pupils? "Let the pupils consult the dictionary," again suggests our theorist; and again we remind this visionary authority that the apparatus of this school consists of a blackboard and a water-bucket, rule and broom, and none of these would throw much light upon such words as *cuish, imesis, gneissose, peripneumony, paradigm, and syzygy*,—all of which are found in the regular lessons of this speller.

Again, *a* is the most important vowel of our English tongue. It has but four normal English sounds, the long, broad, short, and open sounds. Our ancestors knew no other. The original Webster's "Unabridged" gave no other. Our "spellers" have joined the later school "readers" in a conspiracy to force upon our English speech two other sounds of *a* that are utterly foreign to it, and that at the best are mongrel tones that blemish and double-flatten the human voice. These are the mush-

in-the-mouth *ā* as in *cāre*, and *ā* as in *lāst*, —a tone as limp and insipid as over-cooked custard. Not a pulpit speaker or orator of renown anywhere but ignores these new-fangled mutilations. No man or woman who cares to speak clearly and incisively uses them. To use them, we must mouthe and wabble our words as though they were bits of hot potato that we dare not swallow and are too well bred to spit out. Are we to surrender, at the spelling-book's dictation, our clear Saxon speech and musical inflections? Shall this injury to clear, resonant tones be inflicted upon our children? Shall they affectedly prate of their *clāsses*, of a *rāre* flower, or of receiving a *scāre*? And this in the name of scholarship!

Upon the authority of the speller, the familiar *ma'ma* and *pa'pa* become the English *mam-ma'* and *pa-pa'*. Our florists, a well-educated class of men, invariably give the common and received pronunciation to *peony*, *gladiolus*, and *cyclamen*. Our spellers give the absurd renderings of *pe'ony*, *glā-di'olus*, and *cyc'lāmen*. One florist, upon having his attention called to the matter, wittily replied that he was not ready to die for his gladiolus, and he wanted no *sickly men* in his greenhouse. Louisa M. Alcott's famous *A(unt)-hill* in "Eight Cousins," so called because half-a-dozen aunts there watched over one little niece, would lose all its pleasantry if the spelling-book were followed. The dear old-fashioned "aunt," which but to speak suggests a smiling face and a cookie-jar ever full, gives way to a broad, Scotch *aunt* that suggests a grim-faced, tightly-laced mortal that never did and never could enter into a child's woes or joys. We might multiply these examples, but these are enough to show that the spellers of to-day

are doing their best to corrupt the speech of our children. The wonder is that we have endured it so long.

Last of all, the compilers of this book are ashamed of our mother tongue. They bow at the shrine of Latin; they fall in abject adoration at the feet of French. In lessons containing as simple words as *deaf*, *tomato*, and *lever*, are *roué*, *élite*, *naïveté*, *eclat*, *artiste*, *cuisine*, *debonair*, and *locale*. When the lessons grow harder, our little men and women struggle with such English (?) words as these: *gaucherie*, *chef d'œuvre*, *scrutoire*, *dansuse*, *xephophyllous*, and *debauchee*. They must learn that *bouffe* is pronounced *bööf*, *Czech* is *tcchek*, *creux* is *kra*, *entrée* is *ong-trā*, *centime* is *son-tēm*, *bouilli* is *böö-ye*, and *penchant* is *pong-shong*.

There are hundreds of these foreign words. In twenty-eight lessons foreign words comprise a third or more of the lesson. Indeed, in nine lessons they outnumber the English words two to one. Imagine our Jakey, of a few paragraphs back, conning these words in his slow Dutch way; or lazy Pete playing truant rather than learn the *sang-froid*, *faux-pas*, *mange*, *ceau*, and *non* of these Frenchified lessons.

Is it any wonder that our children are poor spellers? Give us, not less scholarship, but more common sense! Give our children a speller simple enough not to take a professor of modern languages to master it. Give us words that will not require a dictionary, a cyclopedia, and a trained corps of teachers to get the meaning of them into little folk's brains. The children have rights. Let us no longer defraud them of them.

LORA S. LA MANCE

PINEVILLE, MO.

AMERICAN COLLOQUIALISMS BASED ON AMERICAN HISTORY

IN THE language employed by the common people of the United States will be found many exclamations, comparisons, and epithets of whose origin and prime meaning the users have little conception. These expressions have been handed down from generation to generation as parts of a language learned by imitation, but they rapidly disappear before the approach of education. A conversation between cultured people rarely contains expletives and even few comparisons. Hence these colloquialisms are heard mostly in the mountains or in isolated regions of what was once the frontier. Dialect-writers have made free use of them.

Many of the comparisons are based on a fancied resemblance to well-known objects; as, "He is as thin as a rail," or, "It is as crooked as a rail fence." The latter refers to the worm fence made of split rails piled in a zig-zag man-

ner to maintain their position. Sometimes two additional rails were set in an X shape over the intersections of the panels of the worm fence, and upon the fork was laid one or more additional rails called "riders," thus giving an extra height to the fence. Hence the expression, "It is as hard to get over as a stake-and-rider fence."

Another class of colloquialisms is founded on experiences of pioneer or border life. "He is as dumb as a bound boy at a husking" is due to the custom of legally binding a dependent child until his majority, in return for the benefit of his services. Such a "bound" child might attend the frolic of a "husking bee," but his dependent position was presumed to make him only a silent spectator. "Taking the whole shooting-match," to indicate unusual success, arose from the contests of marksmanship in which live birds were used as targets. A su-

perior marksman might win all the stakes. Some States made provision that pecuniary assistance might be granted to poor people during the winter season. Such charity was usually dispensed by the county or township authorities. Hence the common prediction, "He will be on the county (or township) before spring."

The derivation of such phrases is evident from simple observation; but another class is based upon subtler meanings, to be found only in events in the nation's history. Many of them date back to Revolutionary days. Strictly speaking, there was neither a Whig nor a Tory party in the colonies; they were but reflections from the Old World. Since the English Whigs opposed the attempts of the Parliament to derive a direct revenue from the colonies, the rebel party in America chose the name of Whig, and fastened upon their opponents the name of Tory. It became a most opprobrious epithet, indicating baseness, treachery, and desertion. To-day to call a man a "Tory" in America is to offer an unpardonable insult. The employment of Hessians as mercenary troops also aroused the indignation of our forebears. The epithet of "Hessian" is almost as offensive as "Tory." The writer, in tramping through a mountainous region, came upon a negro on a hillside trying to plough with a mule and belaboring the stubborn beast with blows interlarded by "You old Tory" and "You old Hessian." Investigation proved that the negro was utterly ignorant of the origin of these terms, but thought them especially fitted for a mule.

The rebel colonies were obliged to issue paper money, called Continental currency, with which to carry on the war. Amounting to two hundred million dollars, it soon depreciated until a silver dollar was worth one thousand paper dollars, and it then ceased to have any purchasing power. Since then it is always possible for anything to be "not worth a Continental." When the Loyalists or Tories were driven out of the rebellious colonies by the patriots, many of them fled to England. Others went to Halifax, Nova Scotia. Upon their deserted houses the patriots wrote in derision, "Gone to Halifax."

When facsimiles of the signatures to the Declaration of Independence were printed, the prominence of John Hancock's name attracted attention. The story of his having said it was written so loud that the king could hear it, is

shown to be apocryphal by comparing it with his accustomed signature, which is always large. Yet it has given rise to the nickname of "John Hancock" for a signature, as "Put your John Hancock to that."

The Germans who settled in Pennsylvania have always borne the name of "Dutch," possibly from the Deutsch of their common Teutonic origin. Their slow adaptation of new fashions may have given rise to the contemptuous expression, "O that's so Dutchy." It may have been the same lack of ardor which caused the sarcastic comparison, "As hot as Dutch love." But it was the opposite reputation of the early Philadelphia bar which caused the expression, "As smart as a Philadelphia lawyer," or, "It would take a Philadelphia lawyer to get out of that."

The acquisition of the Louisiana territory renewed the old desire to migrate to unknown lands. Soon Texas became associated with this mysterious southwest borderland. To this day the threat may be heard in the Tennessee mountains, "I'll run away to Texas." When the public land was placed on the market for sale, it gave rise to many colloquialisms still heard in the regions where it lay. A land office was opened in 1812, and a busy time is still noted by "a land-office business." "Squatter"—one who settles upon land which he does not own—and "claim-jumper"—one who unlawfully seizes land or mines—are naturally terms of reproach.

The government roads were surveyed of unusual width, and they are still termed in many places "the big road." Turnpikes are denominated "pikes," and roads made of boards laid crosswise are known as "plank roads." Roads without macadam improvements were known as "mud roads," even in summer. Travel on such roads was necessarily slow, and the performance of a celebrated horse is still noted in "He goes at 2.40 on a mud road."

The methods employed by the opposing general in the Mexican War, as well as the story of his leaving behind him in flight his artificial limb, probably gave rise to the contemptuous epithet of "Old Santa Anna." It is usually applied to a woman, possibly because of the feminine sound of the name. Perhaps a century from this time some American may call an enemy a "Weyler" without a suspicion of the origin of the opprobrious epithet.

EDWIN ERLE SPARKS.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

A correspondent of "Notes and Queries," upon whose hands, it would seem, time must have hung heavily, has made a laborious calculation of the number of lines, words, and letters in each of Shakespeare's plays. The shortest is the "Comedy of Errors," with 14,438

words; then come "The Tempest," "Macbeth," the "Midsummer Night's Dream," and "Two Gentlemen of Verona," with from 16,000 to 17,000 words each. The longest is "Hamlet," with 3,930 lines and 29,492 words, and 120,050 letters.

YOUTH'S DEPARTMENT— HISTORICAL STUDIES

A FAMOUS BOY-ADMIRAL—DON JOHN OF AUSTRIA

ON FEBRUARY 24, 1547, was born at Ratibon, in Germany, a boy whose name was to flash into sudden brilliance as that of the youthful and idolized hero of the sea-fight of Lepanto, and one of the most romantic and dazzling figures in the annals of Europe. This boy was Don John of Austria, a son of the most famous monarch of his time, the Emperor Charles the Fifth, and a brother of Philip the Second of Spain, the "Demon of the South," who attempted to break the spirit of the Netherlands with all the terrors of the Inquisition, and who sent the Invincible Armada on its fatal voyage to England.

Don John's early boyhood was obscure and shrouded in mystery. Unrecognized by his father, the Emperor, for reasons of state, he was brought up by his foster-father, Luis Mendes Quixada, vice-chamberlain of the imperial household, and by Quixada's wife, the gentle Doña Magdalena. In the Quixada mansion at Villagarcia he passed a happy boyhood, unaccustomed to the pomp and luxury of court life, and ignorant of the greatness of his destiny. The change came as a thunderbolt. His father the Emperor had died, and his brother Philip reigned in his stead as king of Spain and of the Netherlands. One of the first acts of the new monarch was to call to his court the young brother whom he had never seen. A hunting party was made the excuse of the meeting.

By order of the King, Don John, then a boy of twelve, was brought by his guardian Quixada to the rocky pass of Torozos, where the royal chase had assembled. They rode through the forest followed by a gay company of vassals and servants on horseback and on foot. Don John, mystified at the novel reverence paid him, but still unconscious of its cause, soon heard the baying of the hounds which announced the approach of the royal party, and found himself, he scarcely knew how, in the act of kneeling and kissing the hand of a slender, pale-faced man, with cold eyes and marble features. It was the King. Then Philip, in the presence of his gentlemen and courtiers, and of the hunters, yeomen, and peasants who had collected around the group, formally recognized his brother and commanded that he should be honored "as brother to the King." Later, when the royal party returned to the capital, Don John rode at

the King's side, mounted on a superb charger, and was acclaimed by an enthusiastic multitude. From this moment the boy Prince was treated as an "Infant of Castille," and was assigned a separate establishment, with chamberlain, steward, master of the horse, captain of the guard, grooms of the chamber, and all the other privileges and paraphernalia of princedom.

Later on we catch glimpses of Don John as a royal student at the University of Alcalá, near Madrid, where he was lodged in the great archiepiscopal palace, studied with his venerable tutor, Honorato Juan, and spent his two years in learning a very little Latin and dialectics, and a great deal of shooting and riding. Destined by his father for the Church, his education was planned by his brother entirely with this end in view. In fact, when he was a lad he came very near receiving a cardinal's hat, and missed it by a mere question of precedence.

Again we see him richly dressed in crimson velvet and riding a stout charger, taking part in court processions; or else, robed in cloth of silver, with a furred crimson mantle, and chain of rubies and pearls, carrying a royal baby-niece to the baptismal font. But his ardent spirit chafed under these ceremonial restraints. He longed for action, and secretly trained himself for that life of command for which he felt himself fitted by nature. Don John, indeed, early showed that he was not born for luxurious inaction; he preferred the glory of war to the splendor of peace.

His first attempt to win the laurels of war as a runaway volunteer was an amusing example of his obstinacy and his love of a career of arms. In 1565 the famous siege of Malta was in progress. The fleet of Sultan Solymán, held at bay by the gallant John de la Valette, Grand Master of the Knights of St. John, threatened the peace of Europe. Philip the Second ordered his fleet, under the command of Don García, to sail to the relief of the besieged, and Don John begged to be allowed to join it. But the privilege was denied him on account of his youth—he was only eighteen. Still, he was not to be thwarted. If he could not go as a prince he would run away and sail as a private.

Accompanied by only two attendants he escaped from the palace and rode to Barcelona, where an auxiliary squadron lay in waiting to

start for the scene of action. But on the way a tertian fever, coming upon him suddenly, forced him to put up at a small town. Meanwhile the squadron set sail without him, and when he recovered from his illness he was obliged to retrace his steps to the capital, crest-fallen and defeated in his purpose, much to the amusement of the Queen, who "chaffed" him on his expedition against the Turks.

But the desire of his heart was soon to be gratified, and in his twenty-first year Don John received his first naval command. Philip conferred on him the office of "General of the Sea" or Commander-in-Chief of the fleets of Spain. It was a magnificent honor to give to one who in years was no more than a boy, but it was not long before he proved himself worthy of it. On June 3, 1568, to the sound of martial music and salutes of artillery, Don John hoisted his admiral's flag on the superb royal galley constructed for him by order of the King. Within and without, the art of sculptor and painter had been lavished on this magnificent vessel. The royal arms of Spain and those of Don John were emblazoned on the cutwater. On the stern were carved the adventures of Jason and the Argonauts, and the poop was decorated with statues of gods and heroes. In this sumptuous galley he launched on the career which was to bring him his future fame. Conqueror in two memorable enterprises, one military, the other naval, John of Austria is known as the queller of the great Morisco rebellion and the hero of Lepanto.

Since the time when the last of the Moorish kings looked back, from the hill called "the Last Sigh of the Moor," upon the fallen city of Grenada, a spirit of discontent and resistance had been slowly and persistently gaining ground among the conquered Moors of Spain. The sovereigns of Spain had pledged themselves to protect the property and civil rights, the laws, customs, and religion of their new Moslem subjects. But in a few years a royal decree had forced upon the unfortunate people the alternative of becoming Christians or of migrating to the Barbary States, on the north coast of Africa. Then a series of edicts commanded the Moriscos to renounce their language and dress, to give up their songs, dances, and marriage ceremonies, and to lay aside their Arabic names.

The smouldering hatred and disaffection broke out at last in the rebellion of 1569. The mountainous tract of the Alpuxarras, the seat of the rebellion, was well adapted for guerrilla warfare. The rugged hills and deep gorges, the intricate glens and ravines, formed a bewildering labyrinth through which it was impossible for a stranger to find his way. The rebellion broke out on New Year's Day, and in a week's time every Morisco from end to end of the Alpuxarras had taken up arms, and in every hamlet and village had fallen upon the unsuspecting Christians with fire and sword. The outrages that followed were terrible in

their barbarous cruelty. The vengeance of the Moors was the vengeance of demons.

A rebellion carried on in mountain fastnesses by a people frantic in their rage and despair can last, as we know by the Cuban insurrection at our own doors, for long and weary months and years. In April, 1569, Don John of Austria was sent as representative of the Crown to the seat of war, and from his headquarters at Grenada directed an energetic campaign which lasted for two years. At the end of that time the Moriscos were conquered, but the land which before had been a garden of beauty was turned into a desolate waste. Their strongholds were taken, their villages captured, their chief betrayed and murdered by his kinsmen, their wives and children made prisoners, and the insurgents that remained, without home and without food, were glad to come to terms. As the last breath of the insurrection died out in the Alpuxarras, Don John of Austria was recalled to Madrid to assume the leadership of a far more colossal enterprise—one that affected the interests of the whole of Christendom. The proof he had given of his military genius in quelling a rebellion that had reached alarming proportions justified his appointment as admiral-in-chief of the Christian Powers in their war against the Turks.

In the middle of the sixteenth century the greatness and power of the Ottoman Empire was at its zenith. The sceptre of Selim the Second ruled dominions that in extent and variety could be compared only to the Empire of China or the kingdoms of Philip the Second, and these broad lands and numerous races had been won by the scimitars of his forefathers in hard-earned conquests over Christian armies and barbarian hordes. The commerce of the world now paid him tribute, and the shores of Europe were threatened by an invasion of the Crescent.

The danger that had reached their very doors awakened at last the sovereigns of Christendom to the necessity of combined action, and between three of the great naval Powers was formed the Holy League for the defence of Europe. It was a new crusade against the Moslem. And over the assembled fleets of Philip of Spain, Pope Pius the Fifth, and the Republic of Venice, Don John of Austria, then only twenty-four years of age, was placed in supreme command.

The war of the Holy League culminated in the sea-fight of Lepanto. More than once in the annals of the navy has Sunday figured as a memorable day; and Sunday, the seventh of October, 1571, was destined to become famous in history. On that morning the fleets of the Turks and the Christians advanced in full sight of one another in the harbor of Lepanto. The vast crescent-shaped sweep of the Turkish armament, under the command of its brave and skilful leader, Ali Pasha, showed a superiority in numbers over the fleet of the League. Its

three hundred sail stretched nearly from shore to shore, and in the centre of the line rode the flagship of the Turkish admiral. Directly opposite, on the prow of his vessel and clad in full armor, stood Don John of Austria, the centre of the Christian fleet, and to the right and left of him and in the rear-guard sailed two hundred and twenty-five well-manned galleys. The waters of the Gulf were of glassy smoothness, and the sun shone brilliantly. A signal-gun sounded, and each vessel of the League was prepared for action. The peaks of the galleys were cut off, the bulwarks strengthened, the rowers' benches removed, nettings were spread to prevent boarding, and the fetters of the Christian galley-slaves were knocked off, so that they could join in fighting the infidel. Everything was made ready for a severe struggle. Meanwhile Don John, in a swift frigate, and with only two attendants, passed along the line of battle, stopping at each galley to speak some word of encouragement and stimulus. "My children," he cried, "we are here to conquer or to die!" Soldiers and sailors received their gallant leader with enthusiastic applause.

The wind favored the League. Slowly and without an effort the Christian galleys were carried along toward the enemy, whose slaves strained every muscle at their oars. A gun was fired, the bugles sounded the charge, and the two opposing lines closed in battle. The sea-fight of Lepanto is too famous in history not to be well remembered: how the flagships of the two commanders steered straight for one another, and met with fearful force; how, linked together, they became a bloody battleground where janissaries and arquebusiers fought with grim resolve; how thrice the Christians swept the Turkish deck, pressed on to the mast, hauled down the sacred Moslem standard, and raised the banner of the Cross; and how brave Ali, fighting gallantly, was shot full in the forehead and fell dead upon the gangway. Then, too, how Veniero and Colonna, the Venetian and the papal admirals, fought in the thickest of the fire with the daring of heroes; how the young Prince of Parma, almost single-handed, boarded and captured a Turkish galley; how the two young sons of Ali Pasha were taken prisoners after an obstinate struggle; how Aluch Ali, the daring corsair of the Mediterranean, was routed; and how, last of all, the left wing of the Turkish fleet was finally dispersed after fierce fighting on both sides.

The victory of Lepanto was due mainly to the skill, the boldness, the seamanship, of John of Austria. His fame spread throughout Christendom. But it would seem as if even the applause of Europe, the flattery of statesmen, or the adulation of the populace, could not spoil the generous and noble nature of the youthful victor. It is a hard thing for a young head not to be turned by sudden fame. Yet Don John retained unspotted his sweetness and courtesy. He visited the sick and

wounded, making every sacrifice for their comfort; he fully recognized the distinguished services and valor of those under him in command, and did honor to the valiant dead. One act in particular showed how generous were his impulses. The two young sons of Ali Pasha had been taken prisoners during the fight. They were mere boys, of thirteen and seventeen, brought to sea by their father. He ordered them to be well cared for and lodged in safety. After the battle the eldest, Mahomet, died, but Said, the younger, was restored to liberty without ransom, and laden with rich gifts.

After Lepanto, Don John formed the central figure in a number of the political enterprises of his brother Philip the Second. Among others was the scheme for the invasion of England and the marriage of Don John to Mary Stuart. But of far greater importance was Don John's mission to the Netherlands in 1576, when he was appointed "Lieutenant-Governor and Captain-General of the Low Countries."

The Netherlands, the richest and most productive of the Spanish King's possessions, had been in a state of active and growing disaffection since the accession of Philip the Second. The doctrines of the Reformed Church were rapidly gaining ground, and a powerful anti-Spanish party was formed, numbering in its ranks both plebeians and nobles. Religious laws against the new converts were enforced with great severity, and as a result popular tumults became more and more frequent and formidable. The Morisco rebellion had been a religious war between Christians and Mohammedans; the troubles in the Netherlands became a religious conflict between Catholics and Protestants.

It was the fate of Don John, German by birth, gentle, just, and merciful by nature, to fight the battles of his brother, the cold, bigoted, and crafty King of Spain. Hence, to the sore and revolted Netherlands, Don John was despatched. He set out on his northern ride toward the end of October, 1576. Disguised as a Moorish slave, his face and hands stained, and his hair and beard dyed black and frizzled, he set forth with only three attendants and in profound secrecy.

We have now reached the melancholy turning-point in Don John's career. Sent to pacify a country in revolt, with the royal army in a state of mutiny, powerless to act except by instructions from the King, without money, and making his entry by stealth, the beginning surely was not propitious. The first year was spent in wearisome, protracted, and fruitless attempts to reach an understanding without resorting to the force of arms. But tortuous negotiations were wholly uncongenial to Don John, and his press of duties as governor bore heavily upon his health and spirits. When at last open war broke out between the adherents of the King of Spain and those of the

Prince of Orange, who represented the civil liberties and religious freedom of the Netherlanders, Don John was only too glad of the chance to return to the clash of arms and the camp-life of a military commander. He threw himself with energy into the campaign of 1578, which brought him a return of his former successes. But his troubles were not yet over. Perez, the King's secretary, jealous of the power and brilliant career of Don John, plotted his ruin. From the moment of Don John's journey to the Netherlands Perez had whispered false stories into the ear of the King, and Philip's suspicious mind was at last poisoned. He believed the preposterous tales of his secretary, believed that Don John, who was faithfully fighting the King's battles in the council-chamber and on the field, was working for his own ends, that he was planning to possess himself not only of the crown of the Netherlands, but of the crown of England and of Spain itself.

Forsaken and betrayed by the King, Don John's repeated appeals for money and instructions received no answer. Left powerless to act, he wrote a last passionate letter of entreaty to his brother, speaking of his deep pain at being "disgraced and abandoned by the King whom he had served as a man and a brother." Even this failed to move the cruel heart of Philip.

Don John had been for weeks suffering from

the fever that had undermined his health. He now grew rapidly worse, and his last days were spent in an agony of suspense and disappointment. He died a poor man, without a hand's breadth of earth he could call his own, and there were grave suspicions that he was poisoned by order of the King.

So ended the career of the victor of Lepanto. Comet-like he passed through the world, leaving behind him his mark upon history which can never be effaced. At twenty-one he received his first command. At thirty-one he died. In those ten years he accomplished what would have done honor to a long lifetime of service, and to a head gray with age and wise with the knowledge of years. A mere boy, with all the fresh ardor and enthusiasm of youth, and with a spirit as faithful and true as steel, he left a record full of inspiration and pathos that will not be forgotten as long as the love of great and good deeds stirs the hearts of youth. A born leader of men, he was spirited and daring, gallant in bearing, gentle and courteous in manner, winning the confidence of his equals and the love of his subordinates. Fitted by nature to fill the highest places of command in the service of his country, he became a victim to the obdurate, vacillating, and suspicious policy of his brother the King.

JOHN WARD.

PRINCETON, N.J.

CURIOSITIES OF LANGUAGE

MANY comical examples of "English as she is spoke" have been reported from time to time. The high-flown and involved language of the *babu* of Hindustan, the superficially educated native clerk, has been mimicked in the columns of "Punch." Periodically, also, there appear in print actual or well-imitated specimens of the compositions of muddled boys and girls who, in ill-regulated public schools, have absorbed just sufficient knowledge of a too extensive variety of subjects to turn out amusing jumbles of facts strung together in sentences that utterly disregard the rules of syntax. The "Heraldo," of Cardenas, Cuba, recently contained the following announcement of a professor of languages:

TO AMERICANS.

JUST KINDLY READ.

I greet making a call upon the Americans who are to stay with us and may therefrom feel anxious to become familiar with our people's talk, warning the whole crowd, officers ranks and privates in the U. S. service, that I have figured down, in their own behalf, a *rock bottom* term, far below my standard school fees, and just as a privileged allowance, namely: two dollars a month in mutual exchange for an every day congregate session of one hour's Spanish teaching at my address at foot, from 6 to 7 P. M.

Drop freely and confident at any time, bearing in mind that a twofold speaker is worth *two* men and is thus enabled to easierly earn his living wherever he chances to roll.

PROF. LAURENCE A. RUIZ'S ACADEMY.
No. 129 Jénez St.

Passing from Cuba to South Africa, we find the "Times of Swaziland" recording the following reply of an educated Kaffir to a question as to the harvest prospects in that district:

"The copious downfall of rain which we have had during the past fortnight has relieved to an appreciable extent the calamitous consequences which were heretofore looming in the distance."

But these occasional instances of curious composition are sufficiently few and far between merely to illustrate the humors of language in a few spicy paragraphs. The following sentences from a recent novel, the scene of which is laid in Wales, give an alarming hint of the possibilities of a deluge of Welsh-English that may ultimately pour over the land as did the flood of "kailyard" Scotch-English of recent years:

"What you is clabbering about, man?" said Shoni indignantly. "Keep to the English if that is your language, 'coss me is spoke English as well as Welsh."

E. E. T.

ROUND THE TABLE

THE ART OF SOLID LYING

ALIE is a false statement uttered for the purpose of deception—an intentional violation of truth. The word is of Saxon origin and is harsh and unpleasant to the ear. There are synonyms of Latin derivation more pleasant to hear, but "lie" is shorter and expresses the thought exactly.

There is a marked difference between a lie and an untruth. A lie is an intentional violation of truth; an untruth is merely an expression of what is not truth without the intention of deceiving. Any violation of truth with the intention of deceiving others is lying. It may be by words spoken or by words withheld, by signs, by looks, or by gestures.

There is an art of lying and a science of lying. The science of lying is a knowledge of the subject so classified and arranged as to be easily remembered, readily referred to, and advantageously applied,—a knowledge of its laws and principles and of the relations of things appertaining thereto. Lying is governed by the laws of nature, and these laws are—or are supposed to be—immutable. Considering the importance of the subject it is strange that its science is still so crude. Few writers have treated the subject scientifically. It remains for some Adam Smith to pave the way. Others will follow until we have a science as exact as that of political economy.

The art of lying is the systematic application of knowledge in producing desired results. The art may be considered both in relation to material results and to æsthetic results.

Lying is almost universal. It is not limited to particular nations, races, or classes of people. The testimony of travellers in different parts of the world is nearly always to the effect that wild tribes are addicted to it. There are exceptions, but so few in number that they prove the rule. American Indians, African tribes, and the wild people of Asia were seldom truthful. If these wild tribes should send explorers to civilized countries, the emissaries would no doubt return with the report that civilized races were in the habit of lying.

From literature we learn that civilized peoples had no very high regard for the truth. The Old Testament did not forbid lying except to one's neighbor. Isaac resorted to an intentional falsehood when he told King Abimelech that Rebecca was not his wife, but his sister. Rebecca later induced Jacob to lie to his father and thereby gain the birthright that belonged to his brother. But Jacob was afterward paid

in his own coin, for, after he had labored seven long years for Rachel according to his contract, Laban gave him, instead of Rachel, her weak-eyed sister. Paul was somewhat of a liar, for he said, "If the truth of God hath more abounded through my lie unto His glory, why yet am I also judged as a sinner?" With such examples, is it strange that some Jews of modern times resort to lies? The Orientals are persistent liars. The Hindoos and East Indians are also proverbial liars. Their literature abounds in lies, and in it lying is commended.

Veracity was not held in high esteem among the Greeks. From the "Iliad" we learn that the gods deceived one another as well as men. The chiefs are represented as great liars. Athene fell in love with the crafty Ulysses because he was so deceitful. The Trojans successfully repelled the Greeks until Sinon lied to them concerning the wooden horse. The Spartans taught their youth to lie.

The Romans were more truthful. Their ideas of justice, no doubt, caused them to discountenance lies. The story of Regulus returning to his captors, the Carthaginians, because he had promised to do so, is a fine illustration of the Roman regard for truth.

The Carthaginians, on the contrary, were very untruthful, and from their custom of breaking promises came the derisive term of "Punic faith" applied to their contracts by the Romans.

The dark ages were times of almost universal lying. The northern nations of Europe, the Saxons, the Norsemen, and their kinsmen, are thought to have been truthful in the main. But not so the Romance nations. In testimony hereof the French language is recommended as being peculiarly fitted for the language of liars, lovers, and diplomats.

Among the many varieties of the lie now flourishing may be mentioned the white lie, the lie indicative, the lie romantic, the lover's lie, the literary, commercial, religious, political, and campaign lies. Most of these are too familiar to need explanation. The lie indicative consists in telling the truth in such a way as to induce the hearers to believe that one has said something else.

Lying is produced by natural causes. Human nature is much the same the world over. In mankind at large there is little love of truth for truth's sake, irrespective of ends to be accomplished. Naturally enough, where self-interest demands it, truth will be discarded for

falsehood. So long as self-interest is conserved by truth, the individual is truthful; but where truth is hurtful or will accomplish nothing, he resorts to lies. It is thus a question of expediency, and the matter of determining if it be expedient to lie is of course left to the individual. He may be a rival of Ananias, and yet, thanks to his elastic conscience, may believe that he only lies when it is expedient for him to do so. We are taught that honesty is the best policy, — that is, that honesty will accomplish more for us than dishonesty. We should love honesty for its own sake, irrespective of ends and without regard to consequences. To an artist in dishonesty, that and not honesty is the best policy. Many who are honest are doubtless so because it is the best policy. They can accomplish desired ends best in that way. They would be bunglers in dishonesty, and know it.

People lie to gain some advantage of ease, enjoyment, or profit. A lady resorts to a white lie and sends word to a caller that she is not at home because she does not want to be bothered. She *means* she does not want to be seen; she *says* she is not at home. She thinks it is expedient to lie. The romancer lies for the enjoyment of the reputation he gains by it. The lover lies for the favor of the loved one. Where money is at stake, a lie is told because of the pecuniary gain that will result. Self-interest affects our actions at every turn. For some reason we do not lose our self-respect because of things *we* do, which if done by others would cause us to lose all respect for them. We —

"Compound for sins [we] are inclined to
By damning those [we] have no mind to."

In the fierce struggle of life, when men seek that which they desire with the rapacity of wild beasts, it is no wonder they resort to lies. But if they will lie, they should do it artistically. We speak of a successful enterprise as a "solid" institution, and of a successful merchant as a "solid" business man. The "art of solid lying" is merely the art of lying successfully, in whatever field it is. If men and women will lie, they should do it well. If they succeed they will accomplish the desired ends and will continue to be respected members of society. If they bungle and fail, they become objects of contempt unworthy of the confidence of their fellow men.

Many persons who fail as liars would succeed admirably if they would only bear in mind a few simple rules and the qualifications necessary to produce an artistic liar. There must be quickness of observation, vivid imagination, great natural assurance, and tenacity of memory. If any of these elements are lacking, the liar will ultimately disgrace himself and deserve and receive the censure of intelligent persons. Quickness of observation will enable one to know when to lie and to whom to lie; a vivid imagination will enable him to invent the proper lie; sufficient natural assurance will give force to it; and a tenacious memory will enable

him to remember what falsehoods he has told, and to whom, and prevent him from convicting himself.

An amusing story of injudicious lying was recently told in the newspapers. Years ago the wife of an American diplomatist was in Peking with her husband, who was a member of the United States legation. The French Minister was on very friendly terms with the lady, and one very warm day he rode a long distance to keep an engagement with her. She did not wish to be disturbed, and the Chinese servant refused him admittance. The Frenchman told the servant that he had come a long distance to keep his engagement and explained who he was. But the lady said to her servant, "Tell him I cannot see him; it is too hot to talk. Tell him anything to get rid of him; tell him I am dead." The servant repeated the message verbatim, which was unnecessary, as the Frenchman had heard every word through the lattice. When next he met the lady it was in Washington, and he refused to recognize her or be presented to her, on the ground that when he last heard from her she was dead, and he did not desire to be a resurrectionist.

The successful practitioner of the art of lying must know his prey. He must be able to distinguish between the credulous and the incredulous. If he has a get-rich-quick plan, he is wasting time and energy to explain it to one who is satisfied with honest returns on his investments. He understands that he must work on people who have never learned that it is next to impossible honestly to get something for nothing. The day of the lottery is well-nigh past. But those who would invest in lotteries if they had the chance, are ready to invest in any scheme, however wild, if extraordinary returns are promised. The artistic liar can rely on both the ignorance and the cupidity of his victims. But he must avoid those doubting Thomases who want to know.

If our ease or pleasure is so necessary that we must lie to obtain it, we should lie artistically. If the good will of persons can best be obtained by flattering lies, we should be artistic about telling them. If wealth cannot be obtained or held by strict adherence to truth, we must learn to be artists or fail. True, if we fail, we can comfort ourselves with the thought that we are too honest to succeed, but we should not confound bungling with honesty.

Commercial lies are very abundant. Bargain sales and bargain counters abound with them. The manager of a large department store not long ago desired to get rid of a number of trunks that had been on hand for a long time. Fortunately a fire occurred next door and gave the merchant the long-desired opportunity. His stock was not injured in the least by the fire, but he piled the trunks out in the aisle and turned the hose on them for a few minutes, and the next day a "fire sale" was advertised in the papers. The trunks were soon sold,

together with some other goods that had been specially treated for the occasion.

Goods are frequently marked down and put on a bargain counter. A favorite plan is to show figures from which they are marked down. The ready-made-clothing dealers' plan is to make a suit sale and offer a large number of suits of different kinds at the same price,—say for \$13.98. They put in a few suits of greater value than that, and put the most attractive ones in the windows. The greater number of the suits are marked *up* to \$13.98 and are readily sold at that price. The desire to obtain something for nothing will cause men to buy articles they would not buy if they were marked at a fair price and sold in the ordinary way.

But the liar, however artistic he may be, is in danger of coming to grief. There are limitations to his abilities, and he frequently overtaxes his powers. He cannot fool even *some* of the people *all of the time*. We see men who lie continually, and whose very lives are lies. They are at the head of some institution which is generally supposed to be sound, but is a mere shell, liable to collapse at any moment. Who can imagine the depth of torture they must undergo. Death would be a relief, and many of them, when exposure comes, seek relief by self-inflicted death.

Many liars are exposed in the law courts. Where property or personal rights of litigants are at stake, their ideas of truth are wonderfully warped. Where the truth is against the interest of a litigant, he is very apt to distort the facts or resort to positive falsehood if necessary.

At the present day, when wealth is considered all important, the commercial lie is very common, and when we are taken in by it we consider it very reprehensible. But it is only natural that it should be resorted to. If people who have an ambition to become rich cannot attain their end and be truthful, they will do so by lying if possible. Property-owners swear to false returns of their holdings to save money by the falsehood; but not long ago a business concern, in failing circumstances, returned its property for taxation at fully five times its real value, in order that it might get a large credit on the faith of its claims. All sorts of goods are adulterated. Buckwheat cakes are made of anything but buckwheat. Pure maple syrup is manufactured from cheap sugars. Corn-stalks and corn-cobs are worked up into meal and fed to human beings and animals. Nearly every article in grocery stores is adulterated in some way. The most marked lying is found in financial schemes. Corporations and societies are formed presumably for the benefit of the investors, but really for the benefit of the promoters.

It is a serious question whether it is ever right to lie. Opinions differ, and the weight of authority appears to be in favor of lying under certain circumstances. There is a class of lies that is thought to be justifiable, as when a

physician lies to a patient, or a lie is told to thwart a robber. A bank cashier in a western town, when commanded by robbers to open the safe, informed them that the time-lock was set for a later hour. His lie was successful,—he saved the money. We are apt to think such a lie justifiable. Money is so dear that we would save it from robbers by means of a lie if we could. But the average individual believes he is justified in lying about his tax returns and about property he has for sale. One of the wealthiest men in the world has recently been reported as gloating over the fact that in his early dealings he was considered "slick" at a horse trade.

To our mind, however, things that cannot be obtained without lying should be given up, even though it be life itself. Considering truth for truth's sake, nothing is more important than truth. And if a man loses his property or even his life in its cause, more has been done for the world than he has lost.

Consideration of the subject leads one to speculate as to how this fine art of lying can be suppressed. Something can be done by legislation; but even then the artistic liar will escape, and only the bungler will be punished. Something can be done by education; but this is a slow process. The term "liar" has ever been a term of opprobrium, and is resented by everyone, and by no one so much as he who deserves it. A man on trial for assault and battery on one who has called him a horse-thief was told by the judge that his anger was unjustifiable, and that he would not have become angry under the same circumstances. "But, your honor," said the prisoner, "*you* never stole horses." The giving of the lie was formerly the cause of many duels. There ought to be more boldness in denouncing liars. They ought to be "shown up." The fear of being talked about deters many from going wrong. It is not a commendable motive, but it is better than none. In a small community, where one man's business is everybody's business, if anyone gains a reputation for falsehood his business is ruined. In a large field, if he is found out by a few, he can transfer his operations to those among whom he is unknown.

Individuals are inclined to think that the world owes them a living, and that they are at liberty to gain the means of living in any way they can. Thus the tramp endeavors to live without working, the sharper to live by his wits, and the unconscionable capitalist to live by organizing corporations engaged in legalized robbery. The saying is attributed to Franklin that some persons try to live by their wits, but fail for lack of capital. But in this day the number of persons who have capital enough to live by their wits is appalling. All such persons prey on society. We can never be rid of them until the enormity of their offense is understood and properly abhorred. Their calling must be put on the plane where it belongs.

It is commonly said that what a people wants or needs it will have. When we have suffered sufficiently from the evils of lying we will adopt some means of compelling truth. There are more than enough truthful people to bring about this result if they choose. The day of the liar will pass away as has the day of the lottery gambler. Time was when lotteries were considered so respectable that institutions of learning and even churches resorted to it. The world is growing better in this regard, and some day the people will rise in their might and though the liar may be with us his day of success will be gone. Persons will not then lie as a vocation, but, if at all, as an avocation. Re-

cently a brilliant young man coined an apparently new phrase when he said that what we needed was not "to realize the ideal so much as to idealize the real." But as applied to a rule of speech we certainly should realize the real and not idealize it. There will always be some lying in the world. The existence of truth demands the existence of lying. The excuse for lying is that man follows natural laws as he understands them, and they lead to lying. What is needed is a perfect understanding of those laws. Then it will be seen that man, as part of one grand plan of creation, should live by truth, or, failing to live by it, should die a martyr to the holy cause. ALBERT RABB.

INDIANAPOLIS.

THE "WHITE MAN'S BURDEN"

IT is the prerogative of Mr. Rudyard Kipling, says a thoughtful writer in the London "Spectator," to embody in ringing verse the latent thought of the English-speaking peoples. All England leaped at the "Recessional," for he expressed in those fine lines our secret fear that we were growing vainglorious, too full of the pride of life, too charmed with our own success, and that we needed pardon from the Lord for spiritual fatness. We can but hope that his poetic address to the American people will make a similar impression, for it conveys in language almost as powerful, though not quite as simple, as that of the "Recessional," the truth which we have for a lifetime been endeavoring to preach. The duty of the white man is to conquer and control, probably for a couple of centuries, all the dark peoples of the world, not for his own good, but for theirs; to give them the chance of development which comes with a stable and well-ordered peace; to break forever, if such breaking be possible, that strange arrest of progress which for so many centuries has benumbed their powers, and which leaves two-thirds of the world such hells upon earth that, if the white man realized the truth, all the strength of the good would be absorbed in one great effort to ameliorate their condition. To Asia the world owes all the great creeds it has, yet no Asiatic untaught by a European believes a reasonable creed; while in Africa the millions who have thought of nothing, invented nothing, built nothing, and founded nothing, live on more like evil children or animals with human form than like men with intellects and souls. It is surely the duty of the white man, who has advanced so far that he is almost bewildered by the rushing multitude of his acquirements, who has made of himself through the favor of God a restrained and self-controlling human being, and who can put on at will for any task the enchanted armor of science which no barbarian force, however vast, may pierce, to

try at least whether he cannot terminate this arrest, and set the whole race of man free to work out the destiny intended for him. We all admit that duty within our own narrow lands, and try to perform it toward our own savages; and the extension of our work, if we can extend it over the whole world, cannot but be good. Only we must perform it in the right spirit, taking it up, as Mr. Kipling sings, as "the white man's burden," seeking no profit beyond fair pay for honest work, shrinking from no accusation except that of wilful oppression, and, above all, expecting no gratitude from those whom we may help to redeem. If we fail, and we may fail yet, for we are not yet sure that our patience will hold out under the necessary self-sacrifices, "the new-caught, sullen peoples, half devil and half child," will curse us by all their gods; while if we succeed,—and we may succeed, for we are slowly succeeding at home,—they will but bid us begone unthanked, perhaps use their new powers, the discipline enforced on them, the knowledge by degrees poured into them, to inflict on us untold miseries. If Asia acquired but half our science without acquiring our character and creed, and could lead Africa as Arabs even now lead negroes, she could extirpate the white man, and would do it with the glee of an evil child as it tears a mouse or crushes a butterfly into powder. Nevertheless, there is our duty clear before us, and Mr. Kipling, in this instance humbly following the Providence which is clearing the path and compelling us all, even against our wills, to enter on it, bids us perform it though we do but "reap the old reward, the blame of those we better, the hate of those we guard."

But, then, is it a duty? The question is not an empty one, for it is at this moment disputed by a third of America, perhaps the best third, certainly the most cultivated; it makes some of the best Christians at home irresolute in their course and hesitating in their approval; and

we have heard Anglo-Indians, while civilizing provinces, doubt audibly, in a sort of agony of introspection, whether the work they were performing was "a great duty or a great dacoity (robbery)." It seems to us that in principle the path is clear if indeed we have any responsibility for our fellow-men, or for the benevolent use of our own powers—and if we have not, what is the teaching of all the wisest worth?—and in practice the question resolves itself into one of method only. If we could civilize Asia and Africa by persuasion, by teaching, by example, no one—and especially no one of those who oppose conquest—would dream of opposing such an undertaking, though each man might contend that civilization meant something which all the rest denied. It is the use of force alone to which objection is raised and which requires justification. What right, it is asked, can you have to rule men who do not consent to your rule; to deprive them of their freedom; to order that they shall live in this way or that when they declare with blows their preference for their own way? If we admitted, as some do, that all men were equal, and that apparent differences were chiefly matters of form, we should say this argument was nearly irresistible; but we cannot admit the hypothesis.

There is no more equality among the races than among men. The same right which justifies those in a country who are wise enough to see what is gained by order, justice, and lenity in securing those good things even through policemen and soldiers, justifies the wiser races in compelling the less wise races to pursue the only course which can cure them of their deficiencies. There are races which are morally lunatic; races which are as children; races which are to the white man as the lowest residuum of Europe are to English judges: and the right to protect them, to educate them, to guide and urge them, seems to us as clear in the one case as in the other. No one objects when a State suppresses a momentary anarchy within its own dominions, and why, if circumstances seem to open up the path, should it hesitate to put down anarchy in the Philippines? Our contention is that, as in a school, the conditions of

progress in the world are peace, order, and the leadership of the white race, which alone has displayed inexhaustibly that faculty of accumulating wisdom which is the first distinction between man and the animal kingdom. We say nothing of the ruin of generations involved in the method of persuasion (fancy the ages to be wasted in persuading Turks to govern in Armenia as we English govern in Ceylon!) and point to the grand fact that on the Yangtse, on the Nile, on the Niger, on the Congo, in all the vast tropical valleys inhabited by a third of the human race, there has been in the last two thousand years, if anything, retrogression. What business is that of ours? That is just what Rudyard Kipling is trying to explain to the excellent American Cains who refuse to consider themselves responsible for Abel, but who, if he offends them, shoot without remorse. It is not their fault; we are all doing it; and some of us, like the Belgians on the Congo, doing much worse. To say we may interfere, with all our scientific weapons, to protect ourselves, to further our trade, to open ports and harbors—as we did in both Japan and China—but may not, when the path opens, interfere to govern, seems to us a conviction which can have its ultimate root only in perfect selfishness. If we claim to interfere at all we must "take up the burden" though it renders the pace slow and the sweat almost unendurable. There is solid thought in all Mr. Rudyard Kipling's new verses, but the wisdom which the world most needs just now lies, we are convinced, in the last two:

"Take up the White Man's burden—
Ye dare not stoop to less—

"Nor call too loud on Freedom
To cloak your weariness.

By all ye will or whisper,
By all ye leave or do,
The silent, sullen peoples
Shall weigh your God and you.

Take up the White Man's burden!

Have done with childish days—
The lightly-proffered laurel,
The easy, ungrudged praise:
Comes now, to search your manhood
Through all the thankless years,
Cold, edged with dear-bought wisdom,
The judgment of your peers."

THE climatic feature of "The White Man's Burden" is described by Mr. Samuel W. Bedford, late assistant adjutant-general on the staff of General Otis at Manila, who writes in the "Review of Reviews" for April, 1899, concerning the possibility of American colonization of the Philippines:

"It would be impossible. . . . Their climate is so entirely unlike anything experienced in this country that the cost in life attending any such effort would be appalling. The humidity caused by the heavy rainfall makes the heat terrific. The only difference between their

winter and summer is, a few degrees in the temperature during the months of November, December, and January, and this relief is felt only at night. . . . The effect of the climate is to wear away by degrees the vitality of persons from northern regions and to impair their strength. Its effect was seen in the condition of the American army at Manila, where in spite of the best weather of the year fifteen per cent of the troops were entirely unfit for duty. . . . Scientific sanitation will appreciably diminish the death-rate, but it cannot overcome the evils of the climate."

CHRONICLE OF THE MONTH

FRIDAY, MARCH 3.—Rear-Admiral George Dewey became admiral of the navy under the law recently passed by Congress; General Otis was promoted to be major-general by brevet.... The Cortes will be dissolved and Señor Silvela, leader of the Liberal party in Spain, has consented to attempt the formation of a cabinet.... Italy's demand for a lease of San-Mun Bay has caused excitement in China.

SATURDAY, MARCH 4.—A gunboat shelled the rebels near Manila, causing heavy loss; the civil members of the United States Philippine commission reached Manila on the cruiser "Baltimore".... The British cruiser "Talbot" has been ordered to New York from Bermuda to convey the body of Lord Herschell to England.... J. M. Cook, the head of the tourist agency, died in London.

SUNDAY, MARCH 5.—General Gomez has informed General Brooke at Havana that the number of men in the Cuban army was 48,000.... One hundred and ten thousand pounds of powder exploded at Toulon, France, killing or injuring many soldiers and civilians; chemical decomposition of smokeless powder was the cause.... China gave notice to Italy of her refusal to accede to the Italian demand for the cession of San-Mun Bay; Italian warships landed marines at San-Mun Bay, virtually taking possession.... Germany is reported to have reopened negotiations with Spain for the purchase of the Caroline Islands.... There were 972 deaths from plague in Bombay last week.

MONDAY, MARCH 6.—The civil members of the Philippine commission landed at Manila; troops were disembarked from transports, and preparations were made for an aggressive campaign against the rebels before the wet season sets in.... It was officially announced in Washington that this Government had no purpose of acquiring any territory in China.... A letter from Secretary Long to the Senate committee on naval affairs in reply to Rear-Admiral Schley's recent statement was made public.... Great disorder was caused in the two Houses of the Spanish Cortes by the reading of the decree of dissolution by Premier Silvela.... The Italian minister at Peking refuses to hold direct communication with the Tsung li Yamen, owing to the manner in which the request of Italy for a lease of San-Mun Bay was refused.

TUESDAY, MARCH 7.—American troops attacked the insurgents around Manila, driving them back with heavy loss; the American casualties were few.... The Chinese minister at

Washington, discussing the situation in his country, expressed great satisfaction over the announcement that the United States has no purpose of acquiring any territory in China.... The funerals of fifty-one victims of the powder explosion near Toulon took place in that city.... Admiral Von Knorr, commander-in-chief of the German navy, has resigned.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 8.—The administration has decided to bring home and muster out all the volunteers in Cuba.... Adjutant-General Corbin's plans for reorganizing the regular army under the law recently passed by Congress have been approved by President McKinley.... The members of the French Chamber of Deputies, while complaining of their war budget, admit the necessity of meeting German military increases.... China will apologize to the Italian minister at Peking for the terms used by the Tsung Li Yamen in refusing to grant the demand of Italy for the cession of San-Mun Bay.

THURSDAY, MARCH 9.—American troops were landed at Negros on March 4, and were well received.... This Government was recently sounded by Italy in regard to a demand for a port on San Mun-Bay, China, and it was replied that the United States would adhere to its policy of disinterested neutrality.... The army beef court of inquiry assembled in Chicago and spent the day inspecting the processes in use at one of the big packing-houses.... M. Cambon, the French ambassador, visited the White House and delivered a friendly message from President Loubet to President McKinley.... The citizens of Fort Wrangell, Alaska, are said to desire the cession of their town to Canada, for business reasons.... Mr. Goschen, first lord of the admiralty, discussed the annual navy estimates in the House of Commons; an official statement was likewise made concerning British promises of support to China against the aggressions.... Monsignor Clari, the papal nuncio at Paris, died.

FRIDAY, MARCH 10.—The "Grant," with 42 officers and 1,716 men, under command of General Lawton, reached Manila.... The army beef court of inquiry spent another day in the Chicago stock-yards, witnessing the processes of canning beef.... It is reported that a large force of Russian troops has arrived at Fort Murgabi, in the Great Pamir, with the intention of seizing Sir-i-Kel, a territory of undefined boundary, north of the Mustagh Mountains.... The Russian protest against the Niuchwang loan contract in China has been withdrawn.... Reports of Herr Rose, the German consul at Samoa, were made public.

SATURDAY, MARCH 11.—Active preparations are being made for a general advance of the American forces against the rebels around Manila. . . . The Cuban military assembly impeached General Gomez and removed him from command of the Cuban army. . . . The director of the census announced the policy under which his work will be conducted. . . . The German Government and German commercial interests are showing great friendliness to the mission of Robert P. Porter.

SUNDAY, MARCH 12.—General Otis has telegraphed that Manila is not a safe place for officers' families. . . . General Gomez issued a statement accepting discharge from the Cuban military service. . . . The State Department has received claims to the amount of \$21,000,000 on account of property destroyed in Cuba belonging to American citizens. . . . The Government inquiry has shown that the powder explosion at Toulon was not accidental, and much credence is given to the rumor that it was an anarchist outrage. . . . A Te Deum was sung at St. Peter's, at Rome, to commemorate the Pope's recovery and the anniversary of his coronation in March, 1878.

MONDAY, MARCH 13.—General Wheaton's division attacked and captured the city of Pasig. . . . It was announced in Washington that a satisfactory understanding as to affairs in Samoa had been reached by the three treaty Powers—Germany, Great Britain, and the United States. . . . President McKinley, with a party of friends, started for Thomasville, Ga. . . . President McKinley appointed Herbert Putnam, of Boston, librarian of Congress. . . . According to a Rome newspaper the Italian minister to China has been recalled. . . . Colonel Picquart was handed over to the civil authorities of Paris for trial.

TUESDAY, MARCH 14.—General Wheaton's division had a sharp encounter with the rebels between Pateros and Taguig; the town of Pasig was burned by the insurgents. . . . The Cuban military assembly adopted resolutions thanking the United States for aid, refusing to accept the \$3,000,000, and appointing a committee to state the conclusions to President McKinley. . . . President McKinley arrived at Thomasville. . . . Considerable important testimony was taken by the army beef court of inquiry in Chicago; it was developed that all the canned roast beef was bought on direct order from General Eagan. . . . The Italian minister of foreign affairs outlined Italy's policy in China. . . . The Reichstag, by a vote of 209 to 141, rejected the army increase asked for by the German Government.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 15.—Three thousand Filipinos made a stand against the American advance at Pasig, near Manila, and were defeated with heavy loss. The loss of the Americans is said to be slight. . . . General Brooke has been authorized to dissolve the Cuban assembly

if he considers such a step necessary. . . . The Spanish Cabinet decided to ratify the treaty of peace as soon as the Cortes was dissolved. . . . Joseph H. Choate, United States ambassador to Great Britain, made a speech at the dinner of the United Chambers of Commerce in London.

THURSDAY, MARCH 16.—The American troops continued their advance from Manila, and captured the town of Cainta; their loss was two killed and seventeen wounded; the Filipino loss was about one hundred. . . . The Queen Regent of Spain signed decrees dissolving the Cortes and convoking the new Parliament. . . . The Canadian Parliament was opened at Ottawa. . . . A movement in favor of General Gomez for president of the future Cuban republic has gained considerable headway in Havana. . . . Baron Russell, of Killowen, lord chief justice of England, has been appointed a member of the Venezuelan arbitration tribunal, to succeed Lord Herschell. . . . The army bill was adopted by the German Reichstag, a compromise having been agreed to by Emperor William. . . . The bodies of Prince and Princess Bismarck were placed in the new mausoleum at Friedrichsruh.

FRIDAY, MARCH 17.—One hundred and fifty Filipinos were captured near Taguig. . . . A dispatch from General Otis, received by the War Department, indicates the approaching collapse of the insurrection in the Philippines. . . . The army beef court of inquiry inspected the Armour packing-house and took testimony in Kansas City, Mo. . . . Princess Kaiulani's death at Honolulu on March 6 was announced. . . . The Windsor hotel of New York was destroyed by fire and over a score of guests and employees were killed or burned. . . . The Queen Regent signed the treaty of peace between Spain and the United States.

SATURDAY, MARCH 18.—Filipinos made an attack at Taguig, but were repulsed with heavy loss. . . . M. Cambon, the French ambassador, will represent Spain, and Secretary Hay the United States, in exchanging ratifications of the peace treaty. . . . The Navy Department was informed by Admiral Dewey that the battleship "Oregon" had arrived at Manila. . . . Herbert Putnam, of Boston, has accepted the librarianship of Congress. . . . The Spanish Cabinet approved of the credit for payment of interest on the Cuban debt. . . . Finns who went to St. Petersburg to protest against the Tsar's decrees received orders to return home. . . . General Rios reported that all the Spaniards at Manila were desirous of returning to Spain.

SUNDAY, MARCH 19.—General Wheaton's brigade attacked the Filipinos, pursuing them eleven miles and killing about two hundred men; the losses of the Americans were few. . . . Direct evidence was given before the army beef board of inquiry, of beef delivered at Lakeland, Fla., with a coating like paraffine, which the

agent called "preservatine".... A comparison of the exports of the United States and of Great Britain shows that the former exceeded the latter for the first time in 1898, each exceeding \$1,000,000,000.... President Krüger advocated the South African republic's retention of the dynamite monopoly, and announced his intention to modify the mining laws.

MONDAY, MARCH 20.—Insurgents at Iloilo in the island of Panay were repulsed with a loss of two hundred men.... The President and Vice-President, with Senator Hanna, went from Thomasville to Jekyl Island, off Brunswick, Ga., where Speaker Reed is staying.... W. J. Bryan made public his letter to Perry Belmont, declining to attend the Jefferson birthday dinner of the Democratic Club.... A statement from General Joseph Wheeler defending his conduct at the battle of Las Guasimas was made public.... The Chinese minister at Rome has delivered an apology to the Italian Government from the Tsung Li Yamen for having returned the note from Italy asking for a concession on San Mun Bay.

TUESDAY, MARCH 21.—Reports of fighting in the island of Negros have reached Manila.... The United States Philippine commission at Manila has decided to issue a pronouncement to the inhabitants of the islands.... The army beef court of inquiry in Chicago heard the testimony of Dr. Nicholas Senn and Colonel Corliss, both of whom said that canned beef is not a proper ration for troops.... An agreement regarding the Anglo-French dispute in Egypt was signed at London.... The funeral of Baron Herschell, of the Joint High Commission, took place at Westminster Abbey.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 22.—The transport "Sherman" arrived at Manila with reinforcements for General Otis.... The Moros, or Mohammedan, natives of Mindanao, in the Philippines, are determined to resist the American occupation of their island.... The Germans in Samoa have united in a petition against the retention of Chief Justice Chambers.... It is understood in Rome that China has again refused the Italian demand for a concession at San Mun Bay.

THURSDAY, MARCH 23.—Important mail to and from Filipino leaders has been captured by Americans.... Part of the Second South Carolina regiment has sailed from Havana to be mustered out.... The Samoan negotiations in Washington are said to have reached a deadlock, each of the three Powers firmly sustaining its representative; it is thought that the treaty of Berlin may be repudiated.... As the result of race troubles in the South, six men were killed in Arkansas, where a negro had been lynched, and three negroes were lynched in Mississippi.... Professor Robert Koch, the German bacteriologist, will start with an expedition for the tropics next month to continue his investigation of the nature of malarial fever.

FRIDAY, MARCH 24.—Two escaped Spanish prisoners who have come into the American lines at Manila report that the Filipinos are concentrating at Malabon.... Señor Azpiroz, the new ambassador from Mexico, arrived in Washington, and talked of the friendly relations between his country and the United States.... It is semi-officially announced in London that an early agreement between Great Britain and Russia in regard to China may be considered assured.... A dispatch from Caracas states that the insurgent forces under General Ramon Guerra, formerly Venezuelan minister of war and marine, have been severely defeated by the government troops under General Antonio Fernandez.

SATURDAY, MARCH 25.—A general advance of the American troops in Luzon resulted in the defeat of the rebels, who suffered heavy loss; three towns were reported captured; the casualties of the American army were 45 killed and 145 wounded.... The reports of the fighting in the Philippines are followed with great interest by War Department officials.... Ambassador White says that the negotiations between Germany and the United States in regard to Samoa are now carried on exclusively in Washington.... The aggressive discussion of the Samoan question in the German press has led the inspired Berlin "Post" to counsel moderation.... The result of Cecil Rhodes's mission to Germany is regarded in Berlin as a failure.

SUNDAY, MARCH 26.—General Wheaton's brigade captured the town of Polo after a fierce fight; the rebels burned Malabon and fled toward Malolos.... It is reported from Hong Kong that Aguinaldo is deceiving his followers by announcing that every engagement is a defeat for the Americans.... A petition to Queen Victoria has been signed by 21,000 British subjects in the Transvaal, asking for reform of abuses and complaining that their position is intolerable.... The Germans have decided to discontinue their support of Mataafa, hoping this will induce the United States to recall Chief Justice Chambers.

MONDAY, MARCH 27.—The town of Marilao, north of Meycauayan, was taken by the American troops after an engagement in which six men were killed and about forty wounded.... General Otis, in his capacity as governor, has purchased all of Spain's gunboats in the Philippines, thirteen in number.... The President started on his return from the south of Georgia to Washington.... Further conferences on the Samoan question have been held between Secretary Hay and the British and German ambassadors.... M. Delcassé presented the Anglo-French agreement regarding Africa in the Chamber of Deputies.... Orders from England for American locomotives inspire comment on the superior facilities of American iron works.

SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. IX

JUNE, 1899

NO. 4

HARVARD UNIVERSITY



THERE is a tradition that during the forty-year wandering of the Children of Israel, not only did "their raiment wax not old nor their feet swell," but their garments grew: what fitted the child when they left Egypt covered the man on their reaching the Promised Land.

The records tell of the supply of manna and water, but scant reference is made to clothes, showing how little thought these people—bent on escaping from bondage—gave to their outward appearance. It may be questioned whether an article on the clothes of the Israelites at the time of their escape from the desert would be edifying. Hardly more do the habiliments of Harvard, as she approaches the end of her forty years' progress from the bondage in which she was in 1860, lend themselves to felicitous description.

Cardinal Newman is credited with the opinion that "material pomp and circumstance should environ a great seat of learning," an injunction to which slight heed has been given at Harvard. The building of 1638 was "thought by some to be too gorgeous for a wilderness, and yet too mean, in others' apprehensions, for a college." In much the same words might be formulated the current estimate



PRESIDENT CHARLES WILLIAM ELIOT

of the present housing of the University. The truest son of Harvard makes no pretence that the outer aspects of his alma mater can be shown with pride. The buildings are numerous and large, and the "yard," or chain of yards, extends for fully half a mile, while the outlying botanic gardens, arboretum, observatories, boat-houses, and athletic fields are to be sought in remote parts of Cambridge, in other suburbs of Boston, and even as far as Peru. Individually the buildings are disappointing to the visitor, and collectively no plan has been followed that would give effectiveness to their *ensemble*. Any view could show but a portion of these college "workshops,"—for such they are in the activity they shelter,—numbering, as they do, fifty in the central yards and nearly a hundred in all. It thus seems preferable to present portraits of a few of those who have taken part in maintaining the good name of Harvard and directing her growth in recent years, with a vignette of the gateway and a full-page illustration of the

yard and a few of the surrounding buildings.

Of Oxford it has been said that the one duty which that university has never neglected is the assembling of young men from all over England, and giving them three years of liberty of life, of leisure, and of discussion, in scenes which are classical and peaceful. For those days, the "most fruitful of their lives," Oxonians have often expressed their gratitude. Landor, though he "wrote better Latin verses than any undergraduate, . . . could never be persuaded by tutor or friends to contend for any prizes," and found pleasantest and most profitable those hours which he passed with Walter Birch in the Magdalen Walks. For such gainful communion, to the neglect of the methods of mental improvement prescribed by the faculty, we find thanks recorded by our own James Russell Lowell.

The Harvard of the first half of the century; the Harvard whose educational

merits her honored son, Joseph H. Choate, has so often urged; the Harvard that fostered James Russell Lowell, John Lothrop Motley, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Ralph Waldo Emerson, George Bancroft, and Charles Francis Adams,—was a community to which came young men who had gained at school the power of application in studying Greek, Latin, and mathematics by methods which gave to their tasks little that was alluring. In college these young men, thrown with others pursuing the same studies and having common interests, mastered that next element of success in life, the knowledge of men and how to meet them. Of such a college, of such an environment, Professor Norton gives the requisites as "inspiring traditions and historic associations, the memory and abiding influence of famous teachers, the heroic examples of past generations, an atmosphere of culture."

That the Harvard of fifty years ago was making men who have become leaders in greater numbers than it is to-day is claimed by some of the older graduates.

They remember that, from the cradle to Commencement, every task of study had in it little that was seductive; they had learned first their letters, and later the rules of Greek grammar, before they could appreciate the utility of either; they had gained the habit of application in work, and then, in their not over-burdened college days, they had added facility in attuning themselves to the keynotes of their associates, of harmonizing with their surroundings,—a capacity that avails more than erudition and logic when human nature is to be moved.

The time had come, however, when not so much leaders and clever all-round men were needed as an educated proletariat,—rather special tools for doing the specialized work in the rapidly differentiating activities of the world. Exception may be taken to the use of the word "tool" to designate the modern specialist. My justification is, that in so far as he is a specialist and not a man with human sympathies, he is for others to handle, not to handle others. The specialist has devoted all his best energies from childhood to acquiring a command of the accumulated knowledge in some limited field; he may have gained such facility in the methods of investigation in that field that he can push the bounds of knowledge yet a bit further. It is often true that there are not a dozen men in the world who, working on the same lines, will take interest in what he is doing. While he may for a moment catch the attention of the workers in other departments, it will be but for a moment; the mental attitude of each specialist becomes so warped that it adapts itself ill to other conceptions than those with which it is familiar. All the same, these crooked tools are just what are wanted in the world-modeling which is going on; but there is little harmony when they are brought together.

As long ago as 1826 it was appreciated at Harvard that the world's store of knowledge had grown too great for any one man to grasp,

and that some choice of what he should study must be made by a student intending to make himself a master in any department. The elective system was tried, but met with such opposition that by 1860 it had been suppressed as far as possible. The curriculum of the sixteenth century—the curriculum which most American college faculties supposed they were still following in 1860—contained all that was then worthy of study. At the beginning of the present century not ten per cent of the studies now pursued at Harvard could have been taught; they are of knowledge then unknown.

By 1860, so considerable had become the domain of learning that it was forced upon the Harvard authorities to decide whether they would remain content with the old methods, and, as descendants of the Puritan fathers, be "thankful for the parched corn of learning," or whether they would adapt themselves to the developing intellectual environment, call in additional teachers, and give young men



PROF. CHARLES ELIOT NORTON

the opportunity to study the new subjects. There was practically no escape from the system of electives. By 1869, when Mr. Eliot was made president, a fair beginning had been made, and from that time on the aim has been to teach every liberal branch of study, above the level of the entrance requirements, for which there is due demand, and to teach it so well that the students may be carried to the confines of current knowledge and left there with such facility in the methods of investigation and thought in that branch that they may conduct original investigations. In 1860, while one man might not have been able in four years to master all the studies offered, yet he could have done so in six; this year it is estimated that the programme is so varied and long that sixty years would be required.

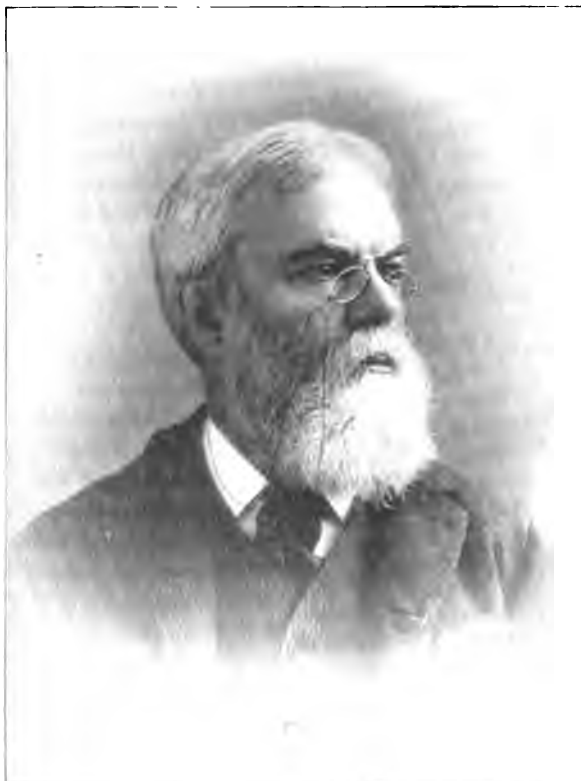
This programme of instruction of five hundred courses necessitates a corps of more than four hundred

instructors. For the means to maintain these the college is indebted to unnumbered benefactors who have given liberally of their wealth, so that the quick assets of the University amount to more than \$10,000,000, while the investment in plant reaches \$5,000,000 more. This endowment, though large, is exceeded by the endowments of several American universities.

The modern studies are not so cheaply taught as were those of fifty years ago, when the recitation-rooms contained noth-

ing but desks, and the materials used were a text, grammar, and dictionary, or a text-book of mathematics or philosophy. The study of science is not possible without laboratories stocked with apparatus for investigation, and museums for the storing of the accumulated results of investigations. So great is the cost of these science workshops and storehouses that it is a question whether the donations of private individuals will be sufficient to

maintain and develop them. Even the studies that find their materials in books have felt the influence of the scientific method. The library stands in much the same relation to history as a museum does to zoölogy. Twenty years ago the readers in the library at Harvard were accommodated at one table in an anteroom, and there sat as trembling interlopers; now 1250 readers enter the main building daily. To accommodate this throng; to furnish rooms where instruc-



JUSTIN WINSOR
(Late Librarian)

tors may discuss plates and other illustrative material with advanced students, and not annoy other workers; to allow of the return to the shelves of books now scattered in department libraries or piled up in cellars,—the building should be enlarged to four times its present size. The collection now contains nearly 600,000 volumes and as many pamphlets, being numerically the third in America, and probably the most valuable, on account of the number of rare books gathered during the 263 years of Harvard's life.

The work-a-day spirit that prevails at Harvard is illustrated by the library, to which visitors naturally enough turn as likely to have one room in which they may feel that they are expected, and in which Harvard shall have placed such exhibits as will entertain them, inform them of her history and current interests, and give them pleasant impressions to carry away. As it is, there is not a foot of space within the library walls to which visitors are welcome, a placard on the outer door informing them that they are not wanted—the coldest of cold Puritan hospitality.

Having the equipment for teaching, the next step is to make it available for the good of the public. There are boys who have access to, and time to attend, schools equal to fitting them for Harvard College, the nucleus and academic department of Harvard University. There are many other boys shut off from such early training who yet are qualified to derive benefit from many of the courses. These may enter the Lawrence Scientific School on passing examinations calling for less classical knowledge than do those for the college proper. Special students, who do not enter for any degree, are allowed without examination to pursue any courses which they can show their ability to take with advantage. Finally, during the long vacation, this educational plant is not allowed to rust in idleness, but is opened for the Summer School.

In 1890 the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, replacing earlier distinct faculties, assumed the educational control of Harvard College, the Lawrence Scientific School, and the graduate department. The highest courses under the supervision of this faculty are those in the graduate department, the realm of small classes of picked students, and lead to the degree of Ph. D., the *sine qua non*, in this day, of all who would secure positions as teachers in colleges. Some of the courses offered by the Scientific School are professional, but, in



PROF. JAMES MILLS PEIRCE

the main, the studies under the charge of this consolidated faculty are what are known as liberal. The plan referred to, of admitting three grades of students to the benefits of these studies, has been adopted as the best, for the present, by which the University may keep in touch with the preparatory schools. It is the belief of the college authorities that the education of a boy from the time he is ten or twelve till he is twenty-one or twenty-two should be considered as a unit, and that school studies may be shortened and brought into harmony with those of the University so as to save several years of schooling and allow the young man to enter on his professional work or business life at an earlier age than twenty-three, as at present. To this problem, so far as concerns the entrance examinations, the Harvard Faculty of Arts and Sciences has given much attention for several years past.

The present policy of the University may be described in President Eliot's own words:



• THE YARD •

"We seek here at Harvard to put all the various sciences and arts into practice, so that public advantage may be the result. We seek to train doers, achievers,—men whose successful personal careers are made subservient to the public good. We are not interested here in producing languid observers of the world, mere spectators at the game of life, or fastidious critics of other men's labors. We want to produce, by the hundreds and thousands, strenuous workers in the world of to-day,—a more interesting world, I venture to say, than has ever yet offered a field for splendid intellectual and moral achievement. American social conditions do not produce a body of students who seek learning for its own sake. The atmosphere is not favorable to men of the type of the Oxford or Cambridge don,—highly educated and refined scholars, whose responsibilities are few, and whose mission in life is to keep alive the traditions of good manners and leisurely learning."

Harvard, therefore, seeks to utilize the large teaching force and plant to the utmost by receiving all young men that can show themselves qualified to benefit by any of the instruction, stamps them in accordance with their performance, and sends them out into the world fitted each to do his special task. Such men may be narrow in their intellectual sympathies,—they probably are; but they are needed to leaven the body social with intelligent views of what concerns its welfare in political science, in hygiene, in industrial science, in education. The training of these men may be or may not be as good as that of the college men of forty years ago to give them an understanding of men and so make them leaders of men; but leaders are few,—too few to justify modelling a college course to fit their needs, to the detriment of those who are to make up the rank and file. "The Persian curriculum—to ride, to shoot, and to tell the truth"—would make of a boy a man whom we all should be glad to know, but it would not make of him a miner of copper, a drawer of wire, or a designer of dynamos, whom we all should be glad to have as a co-worker

capable of making our existence more comfortable.

Coming back to Harvard after an absence of years, the impression first received is one of activity; the students are at work; laboratories, books, and door-steps are worn. The clothes by some miracle still cover the body striving to keep pace with human progress, but there has been little thought of an ephod and bedecking it with "wrought onyx stones inclosed in ouches of gold."

Harvard was one of the first fruits of New England. The earliest Puritan comment on the college published in 1643, though often quoted, will bear repeating:

"One of the next things we longed for and looked after was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity, dreading to leave an



PROF. CHRISTOPHER C. LANGDELL

illiterate ministry to the churches when our present ministry shall lie in the dust."

Theology had been regularly taught in the college, but near the end of the last century—the date is not known—a divinity school slowly budded from the

parent stock, the first list of students appearing in 1819. Founded by the Established Church of New England, it was natural that the college and the divinity school should have continued under the influence of that church and its successor. The present policy of the school, and that

The first degree in medicine was conferred in 1788. In 1810 the lectures in medicine were transferred from Cambridge to Boston, where the first building for the school was built in 1815. The course of study for the degree of Doctor of Medicine is of four years' duration. Beginning

with the year 1901, candidates for admission to regular standing must present a college, scientific, or medical degree, or pass examinations showing equivalent qualifications. Advanced courses for graduates in medicine and summer courses are offered each year.

The Law School was established in 1817, being the earliest school in the country connected with a university and authorized to confer degrees. The course was gradually extended, the present course of three years dating from 1877. Since 1896 only graduates of approved colleges and young men qualified to enter the senior class of Harvard College are admitted as regular students. In spite of entrance examinations, examinations throughout the course, and the lengthening of the course to three years, the school has increased in numbers in the past dozen or fifteen years from 130 to 551, and is taxing the capacity of the building, which was supposed to be unnecessarily

large when erected in 1883. The success of the school is credited to Professor C. C. Langdell, the first to introduce the method of studying law by original research, as it has been called, — a method which has revolutionized law-teaching in this country.

The Dental School was instituted by a vote of the Corporation in 1867. The course of instruction occupies three years. A School of Veterinary Medicine was opened in 1882. This course, also, is for three years. As an aid in the work of instruction, a free clinic is maintained, which has proved to be a useful and highly appreciated charity. The Bussey Institution is a school of agriculture and horticulture, opened in 1871. It is meant for young men who intend to become



PROF. NATHANIEL SOUTHGATE SHALER

which has prevailed for many years, is expressed in the school regulations, which prescribe that "every encouragement be given to the serious, impartial, and unbiased investigation of Christian truth, and that no assent to the peculiarities of any denomination of Christians shall be required either of the instructors or students." The administration now carefully conforms to this principle. Various denominations are represented in its faculty and among its students.

The organization of the three oldest professional departments of the University, under the titles Theological School, Medical School, and Law School, is first indicated in the catalogue of 1827-28. Three professorships of medicine were, however, established as early as 1782.

farmers, gardeners, florists, and landscape gardeners. The Arnold Arboretum was founded in 1872 for scientific research in forestry, and as a museum of trees and shrubs suited to the climate of Massachusetts. It occupies part of the Bussey farm, 220 acres in extent, and is open to the public every day from sunrise to sunset.

About a mile from the college buildings is the Botanic Garden, founded in 1807, seven acres in extent. More than 5,000 species of flowering plants are here cultivated for educational and scientific purposes. Interesting are the groups of plants to illustrate the floras of special literary epochs, that of Shakespeare, for instance. Near the garden are the grounds of the Observatory. This institution, which is wholly devoted to investigation, was opened in 1846. A branch station in the Andes is located at Arequipa, Peru, at an elevation of 8,000 feet. Forty assistants take part in the work. Meteorological observations are made regularly at numerous stations in the Andes, and at the Blue Hill Observatory about ten miles from Cambridge.

In an out-of-the-way corner of the college domain in Cambridge stands a two-story wooden building which was erected forty years ago through the efforts of Louis Agassiz. In that building instruction in natural history was given to a group of young men who have now spread the love of nature-study far and wide in the United States,—a passion which few who were privileged to listen to the elder Agassiz could resist. Not far away there now stand the great museums with their acres of floor space, for which the University is largely indebted to the munificence of Alexander Agassiz. The museums are known as the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, the Botanical Museum, the Mineralogical Museum, and the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology,—the latter founded in 1866 by George Peabody, of London. (The Serpent Mound Park in Adams County, Ohio, is the property of the Peabody Museum.) The Semitic Museum, founded in 1889, is the newest of this group. There is only space to note that this great pile contains, in addition to the collections on exhibition (the Ware collection of glass models of flowers, by the artists Leopold and Rudolph Blaschka, for instance), lecture rooms and laboratories for instruction and investigations. The William Hayes Fogg Art Museum,

founded in 1895,—a fireproof building,—is the centre of instruction in the fine arts and the depository of the art collections of the college.

In addition to the courses of instruction open to students only, many lectures and readings are given each year, under the auspices of the University, which are open to the public. Those of last year included courses by Prof. Gildersleeve, of Johns Hopkins; Prof. Percy Gardner, of Oxford, England; Prof. William Knight, the eminent Wordsworth scholar, of St. Andrews, Scotland; Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte; Hon. Richard Olney; John Henry Barrows, D.D., of the University of Chicago; René Doumic, and John Fiske; and a series by experienced men, at the breaking out of the Spanish war, on the soldier's and sailor's life. There were meetings of the seminaries and conferences in classical philology, modern languages, American history, economics, physics, mathematics, and geology; of the Boylston Chemical Club, Botanical Club, Graduate Club, Boston Physical Education Society, Harvard Religious Union, Christian Association, St. Paul's Society, and Harvard Catholic Club, at which over two hundred papers were read. Before the different debating societies more than eighty subjects were discussed. In addition there were given a series of concerts of the highest order. All these help to make Cambridge an attractive place of residence.

There are annually appointed five preachers to the University of various denominations, who, in conjunction with the Plummer Professor of Christian Morals, arrange and conduct the religious services of the University. To ensure complete freedom of worship, pews at all the churches of Cambridge are rented, at the cost of the college, for students.

On the athletic question, opinion in the University is not a unit. The athletic equipment consists of the Hemenway Gymnasium and four other buildings, while more than thirty acres of the college domain are used as playgrounds. This is enough to show that healthy exercise is encouraged. Though it seems hardly human, there are those who take no interest in, and actually discountenance, the intercollegiate contests, disapproving the excessive devotion to physical culture which they necessitate, and the principle of such exhibitions under college

auspices being open to the public for gate-money.

With Harvard's record of achievement and evidences of vigor, with her reputation for conservative management of finances, it is little wonder that President Eliot could report \$1,250,000 of gifts and bequests covered into the treasury during the year 1897-98. Old Harvard has not much of material pomp and circumstance to show visitors; though they come in throngs, they may see little more than

the outer walls of workshops. That the habiliments are not more beautiful is cause for regret; more important is the keeping steadfastly in mind that there is no Promised Land at only a year's journey, that health and vigor will depend on further progress, on development and adaptation to new public needs and conditions. "A good past is positively dangerous if it makes us content with the present, and so unprepared for the future."

N. D. C. HODGES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

THE UNREST OF THE NATIONS

"Why do the heathen rage
And the people devise what is vain?
The kings of the earth contrive plots,
And the princes take counsel together."
— *Polychrome Bible.*

THE past quarter of a century has been marked by a great wave of unrest, sweeping over the populations of Christendom in ever-increasing volume. No state or people of modern civilization has escaped the universal sense of restlessness and discontent. In our own country it has filled the land with idle tramps; it has given rise to yellow journalism and a jaundiced literature which have stimulated an already excited people. Idle vagabonds moved over the country in bands and armies, not because they were unable to find, but because they hated, work. The spirit of unrest has infected the field laborer, the artisan, and the mechanic, and even legislatures, congresses, and parliaments have not escaped the general agitation. Kings, princes, and cabinets have felt its influence, and have wondered what it meant. It has shaken the ancient creeds and dogmas of religion, which are crumbling away, and men are appealing to lights of history, reason, and science in their stead.

The causes of this remarkable movement are not far to seek. We live in an age of wonder. The progress of science and art has been well nigh marvellous. The development and multiplicity of inventions, and the ceaseless additions of machinery to do the work of man, have transformed our age and given birth to a new society, in which there has been created a nervous tension of mind and imagination which has nearly reached the breaking point.

Long ago Mr. Tyndall told his London audiences that there was light in darkness. The physicist tells us there is no such thing as a solid in the universe—that a mass of iron is composed of atoms floating in an ethereal medium, all in violent motion, as if, indeed, the mass were a living thing. The astronomer tells us that the planetary and stellar spaces are occupied by a medium of excessive tenuity, yet of the consistency of brass, whose vibrations send heat, light, and electric force streaming through the universe. The chemist has converted, not only the very air we breathe, but the lightest and most inflammable substance in nature,—hydrogen gas,—into liquid form, sensible to the touch and visible to the eye. Plagues and pestilences which a few centuries ago wrought havoc in the human race are banished from the earth by the skill and science of the physician, and men are freely speculating whether there may not yet be discovered an antidote for every ill of flesh. The electrician sends his messages not only through the air, but also through walls of brick and stone, and men are asking if they may not reach the stars. The photographer has become a wizard, and he not only brings to view on his metal plate our very bones surrounded with their integument of flesh, but he also shows us through the walls of an iron box the image of a body concealed therein. If electric force has annihilated time, the developments of steam have nearly annihilated distance. A man can sit in his

arm-chair in New York and talk with another in Petersburg, or Peking, or Australia, as easily as he can with a man at the other end of town; and the modern steam engine has converted the great oceans into mere waterways for ferries.

The multiplication of facilities for ease and comfort by the use of machinery has transformed mankind. Machinery is clothing and feeding the populations of Christendom. It drills and covers the seed; harvests the wheat; rakes, binds, threshes, fans, winnows, and grinds it; and conveys the resulting flour to the great cities to feed the nations. From the mighty battleship of iron, ploughing its way through the ocean at eighteen miles an hour, to the little potato-peeler in the kitchen, the hard and drastic work of men's hands is transferred to the machine. If the hours of labor have been shortened from twelve or fourteen to six and eight, men are demanding still greater emancipation from toil. Pressure upon a button moves the ponderous arm of a great machine, and it lifts a five-ton gun high in the air and transports it a hundred yards, though not long since the same task would have required a hundred men and as many oxen. A hammer of a ton's weight, managed by one man, can be made to flatten a mass of iron into a sheet no thicker than a nickel five-cent piece. It prints and turns out our books and newspapers, and the world is flooded with the studies and the thoughts of men. The implements of war have become so terrible that rulers and peoples alike stand in fear and dread of hostilities; and the mere contemplation of its horrors must cause war to cease and the reign of peace to begin. At Omdurman, lately, the dervish army was mowed down like grass before the reaper at the distance of a mile. With the machine guns now invented the same things that were seen in the Sudan could be done on the plains of Europe.

Why, then, should we wonder at the unrest of the nations? Neither princes nor their ministers can lead their people into such shambles of death and ruin, and the day has passed when whole populations will be driven like flocks to the slaughter. Kings and rulers no longer lead the people; it is the people who are pressing their rulers before them. Plot and scheme as they may, pile armament on armament, ship on ship, it only in-

creases the terror and hate of war. Our age of wonder is also an age of deep unrest. Consider the nations to-day, and while they abide in fear on the one hand, they stand in eager expectation on the other.

France has always been an uneasy and restless nation. Her history is a long record of massacres, wars, revolutions, terrors, and communes. She dares no longer follow her old policy of bewildering and distracting her people by war. No less than five of her chief military leaders stand before the world's judgment-seat charged with forgery and perjury, if not with assassination. An army commanded by such men is harmless and worthless. France has ever been making adventures in external expansion. Algeria has been a school for the soldier, but nothing else. Wherever the soldier halts on his march, civilization halts too. Instead of a field of relief or a source of profit, Algeria has been a costly burden to the overtaxed French people. Tonkin is not only a burden of anxiety and fear, but it entails an ever-increasing weight of taxation to maintain armies and navies of occupation in a territory which yields no returns in revenue. The wanton invasion of peaceful Madagascar proves merely the acquisition of a vast graveyard for the invaders. Expansion has for France been the crowning act of her misgovernment throughout her history.

Three hundred years ago Spain was the great expansionist of the nations, and for three hundred years her history is a history of war and woe and of loss to her people. Spain conquered to plunder and not to colonize. Her galleons poured rivers of gold and silver into her treasury, only to debauch her kings and her nobles, to the grievous neglect of the people, who were relegated to ignorance, poverty, and superstition. The Spanish nation is now brought to the edge of an abyss of ruin.

Since the heroic days of Victor Emmanuel and Count Cavour, who once more created a united Italy, the misgovernment of that country has passed into proverbs. There is no kindlier or more humane man in Europe than the present King of Italy, and the misgovernment of his country lies with the Parliament and not with the King. In an evil hour that Parliament was smitten with the rage for expansion, and Italian armies were sent to the shores of the Red Sea, where they miserably

perished. Italy presents to the world the strange spectacle of tens of thousands of her people fleeing from their own country to every part of the civilized world in search of food and raiment. Expansion in Italy has not been a blunder, but a crime.

Since the days of Maria Theresa, Austria has been on the decline. One by one her provinces in Italy, on the Rhine and Danube, and in Silesia, have been wrested from her grasp, and her once proud primacy of the Germanic States has disappeared. She is now a victim of the strife of the races remaining to her empire,—a legacy of her former expansion. The Czech hates the German, the German hates the Czech, they both hate the Italian, and the Hun hates them all. It is no prophecy to say that with the passing away of the present bereaved Emperor, the empire of Austria will be no more.

Germany is a vast military camp, governed by militarism and bureaucracy. A nation of high schools and universities, of great scholars and learned men, the very universities, the railways, the steamship and commercial companies, and great business houses, are all under the hand of bureaucracy and governed like an army. A nation which in all its business affairs waits for the word of command from the government is a dependent people. It is not possible for personal initiative or individual effort to exist under such a régime, and Germany is honeycombed with socialism. Her people regard government as the fountain and source of all action, and the commander a mighty proprietor of the souls and bodies of men. Germany, too, is smitten with the passion for expansion. The sharp scrutiny of the Emperor's subjects is directed to every reef, islet, or atoll in the distant oceans, where the German flag is planted as a symbol of the Emperor's possession. Whatever may be the moral judgment concerning the seizure by armed force upon a long strip of territory belonging to another empire, it is quite certain that it can only become a garrison for military occupation. Germany may possess colonies without colonists, if it will serve the interests of the German people, but they must pay for military occupation by increased taxation.

We commonly think of the Tsar of Russia as governing his vast empire by his personal will or caprice; but no prince in Europe is so fettered as he. Like a wall of iron the families of the old Russian

nobility surround him, and Russian history shows that their veto on the Emperor's authority is the veto of death. He is between the upper millstone of the old nobility and the nether one of the Nihilists, and he cannot travel a league without danger to his life. And yet with dauntless courage he is surely leading his nobles up to a higher plane of civilization. When Mr. Gladstone pronounced his tremendous sentence of condemnation upon the Tsar, he failed to know him. The apparent contradictions and hesitations so often observed in his diplomacy have no other explanation than the opposing influences of the old nobility to the Emperor's policy.

The Russian Emperor does not share in the modern mania for foreign expansion. Confining his policy to the domain of his own great empire, and to territory contiguous thereto, he is acting the part of a statesman and the true ruler of his country and people. The great trans-Siberian railway is counted one of the great monuments of the century. Mile by mile, as the iron tracks are laid, colonies of European Russians are dotting the route and building towns and cities right across the continent. This is the true process of colonization, not by conquest, but by industry.

That Russia should require an outlet on the eastern sea is not only just and necessary for her, but it is necessary also for other nations. Manchuria is a country with only a nominal sovereignty of the Chinese Emperor hanging loosely over it. To put that great, almost unknown region of Asia under the influences of European civilization, when its sovereignty is scarcely claimed even by China, is certainly for the betterment, not only of Manchuria, but for the nations, and it is accomplished without war or bloodshed. There is no interest, right, or justice in blocking the eastern march of Russia toward the ocean.

There is no good reason to suppose that the Tsar's intentions in regard to China differ in any degree from those of England and the United States. The idea of all sound statesmen in respect to China is to bring that people into contact with European learning and civilization. Railroads and telegraphs must penetrate into the recesses of the remote and secluded provinces, and not armies and the implements of war. Chinamen alone can redeem China, and no European colonies

can take the place of the over-populated native race. The Chinese race is far from being dead or moribund. There has not been a period in her history for three hundred years when strife and rebellion have not existed there; and rebellion is there the symbol of life and expresses the passion for human betterment. The further fact is illustrated by the philosophy or religion of Confucius. A philosophy of such lofty moral ideas, of such supreme ethical significance, has kept the entire nation from moral and political death; and now there exists a rebellion or an uprising of young China, of immense proportions. The dead weight that has hung upon the vitality of this people is its existing dynasty. It has long been manifest to the world that the present dynasty, with all its ancient, archaic stagnation, must be overthrown, and a new one installed in its place. China must be redeemed by the race itself, and by trade and commerce entering freely into the empire. If the entire German nation were transplanted onto Chinese soil, it would as surely perish as the tribes of America have perished before our civilization.

The origin and cradle of the English nation was the three colonies of Anglo-Saxons, Danes, and Normans. The race has preserved its ancient traits; and it is quite as much at home at sea as on the land. The permanent trait of the race, too, is the invincible love of liberty and the claims of freemen. The race never has waited, and it does not now wait, for its movements, upon the government word of command. The unconquerable energy of the race inspires each individual with the passion to take the initiative of his own free will; and it was this sentiment, or passion rather, which made them steer their ships toward the southern pole, and found there the English colonies of New Holland, New Zealand, and Van Diemen's Land. No alien race, no towns, no cities, no civilization stood in their way, and they repeated here the old example of the North American colonies, planted in a wilderness and peopled by savages. They explored the land; they dug the mines; they built cities and railways; and it was only when they became a nation that the strong arm of the government was laid over them for their protection.

South Africa fell into English power from the weary hands of Holland, which

would have none of it, and which turned from it in disgust. The mother country sent her ships to the Cape of Good Hope with a stream of emigrants, and again was the process repeated of building towns, cities, and railways, and erecting an empire which is now reaching toward the equator and is calling upon Anglo-Egypt to come down and join it.

The Dominion of Canada was won by arms, but in the righteous defense of Britain's children planted in colonies along the New England coast. Weary years of wrong and incessant warfare by the French and their red Indian allies, had been suffered and endured by the English. In one year it is recorded that no less than a thousand men, women, and children were kidnapped and dragged over the winter snows to Canada, to die of cold and hunger in Canadian prisons. When at last the government came to the rescue of its flesh and blood, and Wolfe with his five thousand soldiers climbed the Heights of Abraham, the dominion of Canada, and the French hopes of a western world, fell from the hands of Louis XV into those of the Anglo-Saxon race.

The unrest of the English race has not been that of the lust of war and conquest since the days of Edward III and the Hundred Years' War with France. It is the legitimate inspiration of *self-initiative and self-independent action*. The empire of India fell into English hands through the chaos, anarchy, and civil war of the native princes, who called upon the English to be their arbiters and give them peace and stable government.

If now we turn to our own country, we have much room for contemplation. Aside from men under the absolute dominion of optimism and the lust of conquest or plunder, the great body of intelligent American citizens is perplexed and doubtful.

Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands are not colonies, nor can they ever be. They are already peopled, and covered with towns, cities, and all the works of modern civilization. They are conquered provinces and not colonies, and as such they must be administered by proconsular governments; and we are thus brought face to face with the anomaly of two different systems of government existing under the flag of the United States,—the one proconsular, and the other federal and under a federal constitution.

How long these two can live side by side without the one usurping or absorbing the other is yet to be seen.

Imperialism is a word that falls with an evil sound upon American ears. We revolt from it, for its history for two thousand years is one of evil omen. That our countrymen will pursue the discarded and hateful pathway of a Roman Tiberius or a French Napoleon we need not believe. It would be strange indeed if a nation numbering seventy millions of highly strung, nervous people should not have among them followers of evil political leaders as well as sincere patriots. The yellow literature and jaundiced journals, which, like the passion for tramping over the country, are the worst and most vicious products of our national unrest, have, during the past ten years, been specially active in inflaming already heated brains. But we may rest assured that sober second-thought will bring health and reason. The most exalted and fanatical optimism has had its reign, beside the dejected pessimism of fear and doubt. But of these two diseases, as between the optimist and the pessimist, the optimist is the bigger fool.

The last illustration of a republic passing into an imperialism was that of Louis Napoleon. It is said that the first scene in the drama of this man's imperialism cost 75,000 lives of his countrymen. No nation, in any period of human history, has undergone the humiliation and disgrace of the invasion and final evacuation of Mexico. The scheme was initiated by a lie from an emperor's lips, and it ended in the tragedy of another emperor's death by sentence of a drumhead court-martial. A few years of strutting and swelling in imperial plumes at last culminated in the frightful disaster of Sedan, the surrender of an emperor and his army as prisoners of war, and the horrors of the Commune at Paris.

It would be difficult to find in the history of governments and nations any king, prince, or power that has so grievously disgraced or inflicted so much wrong upon his country and his countrymen as this ambitious example of a republican imperialism. Whatever may be the outcome of our war with Spain, we may be sure that our race will never suffer itself to be led into the bloody, dishonored path of imperialism.

Our country has been a symbol of peace

and righteousness to the nations for nearly a hundred years, and it has won for us their respect, esteem, and friendship. It cannot be doubted that the nervous unrest of our people has forced us into an unwilling war. Mr. Cleveland's Venezuelan manifesto, so wanton, so unnecessary, fanned the popular passion into a flame of fire. Our country was not under threat or menace from any source, and yet that manifesto was a defiance flung in the face of a friendly nation; the people for whom we threw down the gauntlet of war, we knew little about; and their land was a thousand miles from our frontiers. When a whole nation is lashed into fury and acquires a thirst for war, it does not easily subside. The long peace of our nation may have been aptly compared to the Roman boast of "the majesty of the Roman peace." It was rudely broken, we have had the lesson of war, and we are now unwillingly slaughtering thousands of Filipinos to secure the gains of war.

Our country is now brought face to face with an unwilling war,—not with a nation, but with the fanaticism of Mohammedanism, of Malays, and savage mountain tribes,—such a war as baffled the marshals of the great Napoleon and compelled them to withdraw from the peninsula of Spain. War never was and never can be humane, and to couple the word humanity with war is like clothing Satan with the wings of an archangel.

The closing years of our century mark an eloquent era in the history of civilization. The unrest of the peoples is the outcome of the intellectual expansion of mankind, of the developments of invention and machinery, and of the amazing progress of art and science. No period of civilization has shown so much of human benevolence, so much beneficence in gifts of living men, and in bequests by those who have passed away. The millionaire is not such for the mere sake of being a millionaire, but for the power and honor it gives him. He gives to colleges, hospitals, and homes for the aged, if not with a profligate, yet with a lavish hand. The miser no longer exists. From the Supreme Court Bench we have seen drawn in prophetic words lurid pictures of red,—of fire, of flaming towns and cities, the product of class hate and envy. Such childish talk may be relegated to the store-room of the orator and the politician. The nations of Christendom are no

longer marshalled in two hostile classes,—the rich and powerful noble on the one hand, and “the man with the hoe” and the starving peasant on the other. This condition of society passed away with the feudal barons and the knights of chivalry. What is called the “middle class” constitutes the framework of society, as it is the

foundation of governments. The owner of the cottage and the garden is a greater power than the owner of the mansion. The framework of society and the fabric of government may be transformed, but they will never perish in an age of reason and science.

F. A. ROE,

Rear Admiral, U.S.N.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

THE ACQUISITION OF LOUISIANA

AT A time when our country is gathering in its arms the islands of the sea, and defending the wisdom of its course by pointing to the results of its acquisitions in the past, it is interesting to review the story of the first and most important of those acquisitions, that of Louisiana. It is the most important because, coming when our institutions were still in a formative state, it gave birth to the thought of expansion, before undreamed of by our forefathers, and, securing that vast stretch of inland territory, gave to the growing American people the supremacy of the continent, and with it the power of working out their institutions free from entanglement with European nations.

At the close of the Revolution the country lying between the Atlantic and the Mississippi was thought to be ample for the development of the thirteen States. The scanty population was scattered along the Atlantic slope, and west of the Alleghanies was an almost unbroken wilderness. But with the close of the war came a great change. Settlers poured over the mountains and peopled the back lands of Virginia and North Carolina. Before Marietta was even founded, Kentucky was demanding admission to the Union as a separate State, and threatening, if denied, to leave the Union altogether.

It was a bold, hardy race that settled Kentucky and Tennessee, a race to whom the rifle was the handiest means of deciding an argument or settling a difficulty. Some, like Daniel Boone, came because they found it too crowded east of the Alleghanies; they wanted more room to breathe. Others, overburdened by debt, left their old homes and came West, where they might start afresh. Many old soldiers came to cultivate their bounty

lands; and still others, restless ones, for whom life in the old settlements was far too quiet and tame, came from sheer love of adventure. All had drunk deeply of the spirit of independence and freedom, and when they crossed the mountains they felt that they were coming into a new world, a world that was all their own, to develop as best they might. They sent representatives to the legislatures, sitting at Richmond and Raleigh, but, separated as they were by a range of mountains and vast tracts of uninhabited country, there were no ties binding them close to the mother States, who, they felt, cared but little for them, and their needs were hardly known.

At that time agriculture was the only industry of these back colonies. The soil was fertile and they easily grew much more than was sufficient for their own needs. To send this surplus product across the Alleghanies to the seaboard States was a difficult and expensive undertaking, and yet it was the only way of reaching the market, because the Mississippi, their natural highway, was closed. Spain, in addition to owning the entire right bank, owned the island of New Orleans and the Floridas, which extended to 31° north latitude, and reserved the right of trading for her own citizens. The people of Kentucky clamored for the right of navigating the Mississippi, and Congress labored for years to make a treaty to that effect with Spain, but finally gave it up as impossible. Then the Kentuckians cried out that the East had sold them for its own advantage, and their indignation was extreme. They considered the open Mississippi of far more value to them than union with the ultramontane States, and were ready at a word to place themselves under the rule of Spain. Happily the danger was averted, and

Kentucky settled down and became a loyal State.

At length, in 1795, a treaty was concluded with Spain giving to Americans free navigation of the river, and also granting them the right of deposit at New Orleans, with the proviso that if the king saw fit to take this right from them another convenient place near the mouth of the river should be assigned in its stead. The treaty was to hold good for three years, and was renewable at the end of that time. When, in 1798, the three years had expired, Spain was in the midst of war and the treaty was tacitly continued without any open renewal.

In 1800 Spain ceded all of Louisiana to France by the secret treaty of St. Ildefonso. This remained unknown for over a year, but in 1802 it began to leak out and occasioned the greatest alarm. So long as Louisiana was in the hands of Spain, no anxiety had been felt, for Spain was a declining power and unaggressive. With the Mississippi open and the right of deposit at New Orleans granted, it was not likely that her possession of that vast territory, even including the island of New Orleans, would ever be injurious to the United States. But Louisiana in the hands of France was a very different matter, for Citizen First-Consul Bonaparte was at that time master of France, and it was his intention to build up in this ceded territory a vast colonial empire. The power of France was increasing daily. With that aggressive power planted at the mouth of the Mississippi, through whose channel flowed three fifths of our commerce, we should have been helpless. Friction would have been produced on all sides, and we would probably have been drawn into a war with the then greatest military power in the world.

President Jefferson was thoroughly alive to the dangers of the situation. On April 18, 1802, he wrote to Livingston, our minister to France, that there was one spot on the face of the earth so important to the United States that whoever held it was for that reason naturally and forever our enemy, and that spot was New Orleans. Again he wrote to Livingston: "The day that France takes possession of New Orleans fixes the sentence which is to restrain her forever within her low-water mark. It seals the union of two nations which, in conjunction, can maintain exclusive possession of the ocean.

From that moment we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation." These were the words of one of the most pronounced lovers of France and haters of all things British in the country. He determined to buy the island of New Orleans and the Floridas, and instructed Livingston accordingly; in addition, he bade our minister negotiate also for all of Louisiana north of the Arkansas River.

Meanwhile matters were brought to a crisis in this country by the action of the Spanish intendant at New Orleans, who suddenly stopped the right of deposit at that place. It was feared, naturally, that he did this at the instigation of France. The act called forth one of those sudden bursts of passion to which the American people sometimes give way. The country was ready to fly to arms on the instant. The people said: "The Mississippi has been given to us by nature. If Spain will not yield it we will seize it." "Take possession of New Orleans first, and negotiate for its cession afterwards," they cried; "that's the only way we will ever get it." Resolutions for the seizure of New Orleans were even brought up in Congress, but, fortunately for our good name, were never acted upon.

Jefferson saw that he must act quickly if he would prevent war. He appointed James Monroe minister plenipotentiary and extraordinary, giving him joint powers with Livingston to negotiate for the purchase of New Orleans and the Floridas. He discussed the matter fully with Monroe before the latter sailed. Whether he said anything then concerning the purchase of Louisiana north of the Arkansas River is not known; no mention is made of it in the formal instructions given the two ministers by the Secretary of State. It is certain, however, that he himself desired it. We find in his correspondence at this time a foreshadowing of the Monroe doctrine. He dreaded France's possession of Louisiana, because she had acquired it for the purpose of colonization. If she sold New Orleans to the United States it would only mitigate the evil, not do away with it. He would have been glad to check her by buying as much of her territory as possible.

Meanwhile Bonaparte began to feel that he had an elephant on his hands. He could not send his contemplated colonizing expedition to Louisiana, since, in consequence of the negro uprising in San

Domingo, he had no troops to spare to send with it. Moreover, every day made it plainer that the peace of Amiens was but a truce, and that England was preparing to grapple again with her old enemy. Bonaparte well knew that if he took possession of Louisiana, England would seize it the moment war broke out, and would seize also any expedition that might be on its way there. He would be powerless to prevent such a seizure, for he had no navy. He was not going to feed England with this choice morsel; besides, he wanted money. Therefore he would turn to good advantage what he could not keep, and at the same time would help to build up a power that would hold England in check on this continent. So at the very time that Livingston was writing home that he feared we should never acquire New Orleans unless we first seized it, Bonaparte was meditating selling us the whole of that vast empire. Not long after this, Talleyrand requested Livingston to name a price for it. Then, hearing of Monroe's appointment, both let the matter drop until he came.

Bonaparte placed the negotiation in the hands of Marbois, his minister of finance, with strict orders not to sell for less than *f.*50,000,000. That astute minister promptly set the price of Louisiana at *f.*100,000,000, and then compromised on *f.*80,000,000, *f.*20,000,000 of which were to be paid to American citizens who had claims against France. The other *f.*60,000,000 Bonaparte wished to have paid in cash, but it was arranged that it should

be paid in six per cent stock, irredeemable for fifteen years, and payable then in annual instalments of \$3,000,000. France agreed, on her part, that in selling this stock she would sell in a way as little hurtful to the credit of the United States as possible. The banking-houses of Hope and Labouchere of Amsterdam, and Barings of London, took the stock off the French government's hands.

The treaty of cession was signed by the three ministers, April 30, 1803, and sent at once to the President. Bonaparte sent his ratification at the same time to the French minister at Washington, so that, as soon as the Senate had confirmed the treaty, ratifications could be exchanged.

The people were astonished. They had asked for an island, a strip of sand-bank, and a peninsula, and were given an empire. The two ministers, in their report to the Secretary of State, acknowledged that they had exceeded their instructions, but informed him that it had to be all or nothing. They were influenced, they said, by the immense benefit it would be to the nation to have Louisiana withdrawn from foreign control, and by the thought that this was the one effectual way of keeping the United States out of European entanglements and foreign wars. And they were right. Granted that they had exceeded the letter of their instructions, it was only by so doing that they could be faithful to their spirit.

JULIA WORTHINGTON.

CINCINNATI, O.

EUGENE FIELD'S MESSAGE TO THE CHILD-LOVER

THE study of child life is a thing of comparatively modern development, and the child itself is becoming more and more insistent of recognition as a thinking being. Scarcely a century has passed since Pestalozzi and Froebel—the one in Switzerland and the other in Germany—studied the construction of the child mind and evolved systems of education founded on natural lines. And scarcely a decade has passed since Froebel's principles took form in this country in the kindergarten.

Children's books have become widespread only in recent years; yet to-day it is no unusual sight to see a child collect-

ing his or her own private library of favorite books. If the old maxim is to be believed—that "Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do," so also is the fact that mental activity makes for happiness in the child as well as in the adult. To realize this, one has only to recall the figure of the little Ruskin seated for hours on the floor by his mother's side, busily engaged in pricking out the pattern in her dress with a pin; or the lonely and melancholy child, Froebel, on the garden bench, dreamily watching the shadows flicker across the grass, and the butterflies come and go.

These children never had the exquisite

delight of wandering through the marvelous byways of Wonderland with Alice, watching with breathless interest the ineffectual efforts of the Hatter and the March Hare to put the Dormouse into the teapot, or looking with growing astonishment on the ever-widening grin of the rapidly disappearing Cheshire Cat. They never penetrated "Through the Looking-Glass" into the manifold mysteries beyond, or took the fascinating voyage to the North Pole with the Water-baby Tom to watch the old Gerfowl weep tears of oil as she expatiated on the vanishing glories of her distinguished ancestors.

All of this delicious nonsense has been reserved for the children of a later generation, who, what with their fairy tales and their wonder-books, live almost entirely in a land of enchantment peopled by dream children. And what an ever-present delight is the child who has a firmly rooted belief that fairies dance along every moon-beam, and that every tiny rosebud and violet leaf shelters some tardy elf from the ardent rays of the noon-day sun. Such children are to us, whose cloud-castles have long ago fallen to pieces, like some sweet-breathed wind blown from Elysian Fields. They embody all the poetry and romance that life holds for us, and are typical of the larger faith we older children must have to find the peace that passes understanding.

The subject of child-poetry may be viewed from two standpoints; that written *about* children and that written *for* children. Bards of all times have found the child's daintiness and grace, or its mischief and glee, prolific subjects for poetry, but few of them have used their genius to write of childish things to the child itself.

Lewis Carroll, the staid professor at Oxford, turned awhile from his dry mathematics and let his fancy riot in the quaint imagery of "Alice in Wonderland" and "Through the Looking-Glass;" Charles Kingsley stopped for a time in his wonderful preaching and wrote of "The Water-Babies;" Nathaniel Hawthorne reconstructed and simplified the old Grecian myths and produced "The Wonder-book;" but these were prose, and it remained for Eugene Field to devote his poetic talent almost entirely to the children. They were his muse and his inspiration, and the closing words of Long-

fellow's beautiful poem may be said to have been the central idea of his life—

"Ye are better than all the ballads
That ever were sung or said;
For ye are the living poems,
And all the rest are dead."

It was no uncommon sight in Chicago to see this tall, ungainly man with the mischievous eyes surrounded by troops of children to whom he would tell strange stories and quaint rhymes. Indeed, the story is told that on his own marriage morning, when the bridal party arrived at the church, they found no groom there to meet them. After waiting some time they sent a friend to look him up, and sure enough, a few blocks from the church he was found down on his knees on the pavement settling a dispute some street boys had raised over their marbles. When reminded of the more urgent duties awaiting him, he left them with a merry smile and proceeded to the church. His idiosyncrasies have been talked of far and wide, and his queer den, the walls of which were lined with dolls and mechanical toys, is known to all who knew him.

There is also a story told of his meeting with the children of Dr. Gunsaulus, which, if not true, is so characteristic of what we know of him, that we feel it ought to be. The children had long heard of Mr. Field, and were anxious to know the man who had made such lovely verses for them. One day their father told them that Mr. Field would be at their house that evening, and that if they were very good they might come in to see him. All day they were on their good behavior, and that night they came into the room in awe-struck and bashful silence to see their hero. Mr. Field, on seeing them, immediately exclaimed, "I'm hungry! Come and show me where the cookery is." With a shout of delight they seized his hands and led him off to the dining-room, where they found the remains of a turkey left from dinner. Although he was supposed to have had his dinner, he immediately set to work to devour the bird, all the time talking to the children at a rapid rate and winning their hearts by his funny stories.

No one could enter more completely into the child nature than he, and I find, all through his stories and poems, a plea for the larger life of the child, that found only in the realm of the imagination.

He says himself: "I would not give

much for grown-up folks who do not believe in fairies and are not just a little bit afraid of the dark."

In "The Little Yaller Baby" he speaks of a mother as "a woman whose life has been hallowed by God's blessin' with the love 'nd the purity 'nd the sanctity of motherhood." And she it is who is largely responsible for the mental attitude of the child; whether his little life is full of selfish desires and fretful demands and restless longings after he knows not what, or whether the sunbeam and the butterflies, the dewdrop and the violet, bring a meaning to him that gives him the "open, sesame" into another world—the world of poetry.

What exquisite imagery is to be found for the child in "The Rockaby Lady from Hushaby Street," who—

"Comes stealing; comes creeping;
The poppies they hang from her head to her feet,
And each hath a dream that is tiny and fleet.
She bringeth her poppies to you, my sweet,
When she findeth you sleeping.

"There is one little dream of a beautiful drum,
Rub-a-dub it goeth;
There is one little dream of a big sugar-plum,
And lo! thick and fast the other dreams come,
Of pop-guns that bang, and tin tops that hum,
And a trumpet that bloweth.

"And dollies peep out of those wee little dreams
With laughter and singing;
And boats go a-floating on silvery streams,
And the stars peek-a-boo with their own misty gleams,
And up, up, and up where the mother moon beams
The fairies go winging!

"Would you dream all these dreams that are tiny and fleet?
They'll come to you sleeping:
So shut the two eyes that are weary, my sweet,
For the Rockaby Lady from Hushaby Street
Comes stealing; comes creeping."

Then there is the ever-fascinating story of Wynken, Blynken, and Nod, who—

"One night sailed off in a wooden shoe,
Sailed on a river of misty light
Into a sea of dew.

All night long their nets they threw
For the fish in the twinkling foam;
Then down from the sky came the wooden shoe
Bringing the fishermen home;"

—and the satisfying explanation of how—

"Wynken and Blynken are two little eyes,
And Nod is a little head,
And the wooden shoe that sailed the skies
Is a wee one's trundle-bed."

The night wind has a plaintive, chiding note in its voice for the mischievous boy, which, if he understood, would make him pull the covers tightly round his head.

"Have you ever heard the wind go wooooo-o-o-o-o?
'Tis a pitiful sound to hear.

It seems to thrill you through and through
With a strange and speechless fear.
'Tis the voice of the night that broods outside
When men should be asleep,
And many and many's the time I've cried
To the darkness brooding far and wide,
Over the land and over the deep,
Whom do you want, O lonely Night,
That you wait the long hours through?
And the voice would say its ghostliest way—yooo-
o-o-o-o."

The delightful poem of "Child and Mother" gives the child's method of banishing care.

"O mother-my-love, if you'll give me your hand
And go where I ask you to wander,
I will lead you away to a beautiful land,
The Dreamland that's waiting out yonder.

"We'll walk in a sweet posie garden out there,
Where moonlight and starlight are streaming,
And the flowers and the birds are filling the air
With the fragrance and music of dreaming.

"There'll be no little tired-out boy to undress,
No questions or cares to perplex you;
There'll be no little bruises or bumps to caress,
No patching of stockings to vex you.

"For I'll rock you away on a silver-dew stream,
And sing you asleep when you're weary.
And no one shall know of our beautiful dream
But you and your one little dearie."

But the time came to Eugene Field, as it comes to many another, when the Reaper enters the little home circle and takes away one of the number—perhaps the one watched over the most tenderly. For these "Little Boy Blue" has its own heart-burden.

"The little toy dog is covered with dust,
But sturdy and staunch he stands:
And the little toy soldier is red with rust
And his musket moulds in his hands.
Time was when the little toy dog was new,
And the soldier was passing fair;
But that was the time when Little Boy Blue
Kissed them and put them there.

"Now don't you go till I come," he said,
'And don't you make any noise!'
Then, toddling off to his little bed,
He dreamt of the pretty toys.
And as he was dreaming, an angel song
Awakened our Little Boy Blue—
Oh! the years are many, the years are long,
But the little toy friends are true!

"Aye, faithful to Little Boy Blue they stand,
Each in the same old place—
Awaiting the touch of a little hand,
The smile of a little face.
And they wonder as waiting the long years through,
In the dust of that little chair,
What has become of our Little Boy Blue
Since he kissed them and put them there."

And now that Eugene Field himself has gone across that "slumbrous sea that is gray with the peace of the evening sky," he has long ago thrown off the heart-weariness that made him exclaim—

"Heigh ho, but the years go by—
I would to God that a child were I!"

D. SODEN COOKE.

NASHVILLE, TENN.

HONORÉ DE BALZAC

THE complete life of Honoré de Balzac can never be written. The necessary documents do not exist. Paris has had too many revolutions and too much of the iconoclastic spirit. Then there were periods of his Parisian life when he disappeared altogether from society and his friends. He kept no record of his life and work. His sister Laure, Madame Surville, has given us the fullest account of his earlier years. She relates many facts of his struggling life—its failures and poverty, and his heroic, cheerful conduct under it all. But she pauses on the threshold of his manhood, and gives us no hint of the man himself, the great soul who has bequeathed to us so rich a literary legacy.

The age of Balzac, the first half of the nineteenth century, was a stormy one for France and Europe. It was the age of Napoleon, Louis XVIII, Charles X, Louis Philippe, and the Republic of 1848. This was the period of revolutions. Paris was a boiling cauldron and ever boiling over. The mercurial Frenchmen seemed to be in their glory. In these fifty years of perpetual political unrest Balzac was born, educated, wrote, and died. Possessing such a strong and sympathetic nature, the marvel is that he was not drawn into some of the political struggles. In 1830 he writes:

"The country is now in very serious circumstances. I am alarmed at the struggle before it. I see passion everywhere and reason nowhere. If France is convulsed I shall not be among those who refuse to give her their arms or talents."

He openly pronounced his political opinions, so characteristic of his independent spirit:

"France ought to be a constitutional monarchy, with an hereditary royal family and a chamber of peers endowed with extraordinary powers, representing landed property."

He had no leanings at all toward the visionary belief and projects of the restless young minds of the day. Their theories of socialism were repugnant to him. He was alive to the ever-shifting conditions of government and to the endless political intrigues of the discontented masses. How vividly he has wrought all these experiences of conviction and feeling into his novels of character. He was

emphatically French and particularly Parisian in all his sympathies and opinions, but by no means narrow and exclusive.

Balzac was born at Tours, May 16, 1799, on Saint Honoré's Day,—hence his name. His father was a stern, strong type of the old-time French gentleman. For years he was Advocate of the Council of Louis XVI, and suffered variously under the constant shiftings of the political régime. Gifted in memory and observation, he was quick at repartee and full of fresh originality. In 1797, at 51 years of age, he was married; his wife being very much younger than himself, rich, beautiful, vivacious, firm in decision, and devoted to her family. Honoré was the oldest of four, two sisters and one brother forming the remainder of the family. At seven years of age he was taken from the day school at Tours and sent to the seminary at Vendôme, then very celebrated. Nearly seven years were spent in this preparatory school, during all which time he was misunderstood and misinterpreted by the old-style faculty. All sorts of punishments and dull-head names were meted out to him, but in spite of it he read all the readable books of the school library, through connivance with the old librarian.

From Vendôme he went to the Sorbonne, where he remained for several years, reading omnivorously as usual and making no special mark in his studies or standing in his classes. At his father's request he studied law for two years, and passed a creditable examination. This accounts for his legal knowledge and ready use of legal terms.

At twenty-one years of age, instinctively aware of his genius, he rejected his father's well-known wish that he should become a notary, then a very dignified and profitable business, and resolved upon a literary career. His father, strenuously objecting, said, "Do you not know that in literature, to avoid being a slave, you must be a king?" "Very well," replied Balzac, "a king I will be." And a king of literature he became, though at that time he had not given the slightest proof of his literary ability. He left home, took a cheap attic on a poor street in Paris, and scantily furnished it; but it afforded him the opportunity he longed for of quiet and liberty,—an opportunity to make

himself what he aspired to be. It was near the famous Arsenal Library. Here he began his "twenty years' war" against the odds as they piled up most formidably.

During these years of his garret life he often wrote to his sister Laure. His letters are bright and breezy, overflowing with wit and wisdom, permeated with a plucky resolve, building air-castles and creating little airy nothings to inhabit them. In these he talks of the novels, dramas, comedies, and tragedies he intends to write, and by which he will cover the Balzac name with glory. No man ever had a more implicit confidence in his lucky star than he, or indulged in more sanguine expectations of the future, a future roseate in color, out of which an invisible genius beckoned him on. In one of his letters to his sister he writes:

"You ask for news. I shall have to manufacture it, for no one ever sets foot in my garret. I can only tell you a lot of things about myself. For instance, a fire broke out in No. 9, Rue Lesdiguières (his own street and number), in the head of a poor lad, and no engines have been able to put it out. It was kindled by a beautiful woman whom he does not know. They say she lives at the Quatres-Nations, the other side of the Pont des Arts. She is called Fame."

Later to the same, evidently after some delay:

"I have received your scoldings, Madam. I see you want particular information about this poor delinquent. Honoré, my dear sister, is a simpleton who is crippled with debt without having had one single jovial time to show for it. At this moment he is in his room engaged in a duel; he has half a ream of paper to kill, and he is stabbing it with pen and ink in a way to make his purse joyful. This fool has some good in him."

Still another extract:

"A garret even has its poesy, in whose charming fields I revel at will and with great liberty of delight. I am more infatuated than ever with my career, and this for a crowd of reasons."

From 1820 to 1830, under various pseudonyms, he wrote some forty volumes, not one of which proved a success. The forty-first volume, "Les Chouans," was the turning-point in his literary career. And this came through the kindness of Emile de Girardin, editor of "La Mode," who thoroughly indorsed the book and author, and thus brought him into public recognition by the great literary men and women of that day. This brought him more frequently to the Salon of Madame Sophie Gay (the mother of Madame de

Girardin), the great centre of social and literary interest in Paris. Here gathered poets, painters, musicians, publicists, politicians, dramatists, and novelists, together with beautiful and brilliant women. Here he met Victor Hugo, De Vigny, Lamartine, Soulié, Horace Vernet, Baron Girard, Rossini, Meyerbeer, Malibran, Duprez, Duc de Broglie, Thiers, Madame Tallien, Madame Recamier, George Sand, La Touche, editor of "Figaro," and many younger literary, military, and political men. It was before such a brilliant gathering that he read his "Peau de Chagrin" and received the heartiest congratulations. Forthwith came editors and publishers soliciting his articles and books.

The business part of his literary life was not happy; he had many publishers and did not continue on good terms with them. This grew out of his methods of work. His handwriting was the despair of the printers, and his method of handling his proofs was most laborious. He would erase, interline, cover the margins with whole paragraphs of fresh material, leaving hardly a trace of the original. The second proof was handled similarly, and such was his desire for perfection in his work that he would repeat the process eight or ten times before he would give his order to print. His writings bear no evidence of haste; every page is as highly finished as he could make it. He was his own severest critic. For corrections after the first proof he had to pay extra, and his "Pierrette" cost him 300 francs more than he received for the story.

An outline of his day's work will be appreciated by the reader. He rose at two o'clock in the morning, and, after lighting a dozen candles, drove his pen vigorously until six. His bath, which followed, usually lasted an hour; then, after exercise, he took a cup of clear, strong coffee at eight. He received visitors until nine,—editors, publishers, and copy-boys from the printing-office. From nine to twelve he wrote with tremendous pressure, and at noon he breakfasted on two boiled eggs, bread, and water. From one to six his quill (he always wrote with a crow-quill) raced with quivering force over his white sheets; at six he dined lightly, taking a small glass of *vouvray*, of which he was very fond. From seven to eight he received callers, and at eight retired to rest. This spell of intensity would last from six to eight weeks, during which he would

write a book or magazine articles, read incessantly, and formulate plans for other books. Then he would rest, sleep, and eat, take long walks in city and country, regain his wonted vigor, and mingle again in society until another writing spell seized him.

His early literary work did not pay expenses and he became involved in debt. Many schemes fired his brain from which he hoped to realize such returns as would free him from the entangling meshes of these troublesome obligations; but they increased and hung over him like the sword of Damocles. He entered the book-publishing business, bringing out for the first time the entire works of an author in a single volume; he also edited and published journals and magazines; but in each case he failed, and his debts grew and became famous.

Like many gifted writers he longed to do dramatic work. He regarded the stage as a great teacher of men, and ranked it above the sphere of the novel. His first attempt proved a flat failure; the second, third, and fourth ventures also failed. His fifth and last play, entitled "*Le Faiseur*" ("*The Speculator*"), was produced for the first time a year after his death and was intensely popular. Its hundredth night was the occasion of a strong article, full of commendation, in "*Le Constitutionnel*." The play has in it the elements of great power and is marvellous as a prophecy of the possibilities to which money can bring the world. It is a vivid forecast of our own financial times.

When Balzac began his literary career in 1821, it must be remembered that the novel had not become the literary and social necessity it is to-day. The novels of the First Empire are childish in plot and character, and under the early Restoration there was only a little improvement. Louis Philippe's administration gave no impetus to literary work. The romantic movement was just beginning to be felt in French circles as Balzac put forth his first score of books. There was little demand for them; it had to be created; and his pen, more than that of any one writer of his age, forced the literary era upon his nation. His style at the outset was not popular, but it was the voice of his genius. He used words to express his meaning. Language was not to him an art in itself; it was the sluiceway of his ideas. As the

torrent of his thought came rushing on with its hundred currents and aspects, it seized words or made them to phrase its intensity. He took infinite pains with his style, but could not altogether make it light or graceful. He was not a natural writer, but he forced his thoughts out and on, and they created a closely woven and compact style altogether unique, passionate, powerful, and picturesque. At times there was an easy gracefulness, and often a delicate humor, that gave a charming bit of color to his descriptive scenery, or an extra glow of life to his myriad personages.

It was in 1832 that Balzac conceived the idea of his "*Comédie Humaine*." He would epitomize the human life and civilization of a century. He would paint French life in all its aspects, "the great modern monster with its every face," as he puts it. It was a masterly and even daring undertaking. We do not wonder that he immediately wrote his sister, "Salute me: I am become a genius." His "*Human Comedy*" is a world-combination of characters. They appear and reappear from time to time in his works, just as in real life actual personages cross and recross our path, vanishing and coming again, touching us pleasantly or painfully. His plan for this enterprise covered one hundred and forty-four stories! It included scenes from private, provincial, Parisian, military, political, and country life, with philosophical and analytical studies. George Sand wrote of it, "Nothing more complete ever issued from the brain of a writer." Eighty-eight of these stories were finished, together with numerous treatises, essays, articles, and plays, when his prolific pen fell from his wearied fingers. His biographer, Edgar E. Saltus, has with great accuracy prepared a Balzac bibliography, the titles and dates of which cover more than thirty-three duodecimo pages. He surely won the title accorded him while living—"the most prolific of our novelists," and after his death that of "the first of novelists." Never in the literary world was genius so closely wedded to learning, industry, personal purity, artistic finish, and productiveness. He was an artificer who built like a giant and finished like a jeweler.

It was Alexander Dumas who called Shakespeare "the greatest creator after God." The words, if usable, might with

even greater propriety be applied to Balzac, for never did such a number of living beings issue from any human brain. He created more than three thousand different characters in his stories, and the extraordinary feature of the work is that there is no repetition. Each character stands out endowed with its own distinct and positive individuality. Their accuracy and reality are matters of wonder. Their relation to their own environment and work, and to each other's character, is keenly appreciated and exhibited. He knew his personages like a master, through and through; the very melodies of body and soul seemed perfectly familiar to him. Like Vishnu he possessed the gift of avatar, and incarnated himself in different bodies, living in them at his pleasure. He did not merely copy his characters; he created them and knew accurately their every gift and every inch and ounce of material that entered into them. For the time being he lived in each of his creations, wore their clothes, moved in their spheres, contracted their habits, schemed and intrigued with them, knew all their joys and sorrows, felt their ambitions and longings, and sensed their meanness or goodness. He always thought of his characters as of people whom in the world he knew best: "I am starting for Grenoble; M. Benassis lives there,"—or, "to Alençon, you know Mlle. Carmon lives there." To a company discussing "Félix de Vandenesse," he said, "Do you know Félix is going to be married?" and at once branched off into a half hour's rich discourse, giving intensely interesting and new information as to the future of some of the prominent characters in this book. He was a fine conversationist, and where he gave direction to it he either talked of his heroes and heroines or created new ones to the delight of his auditors. At such times he was full of animation and eloquence, and would go on rapidly from anecdote and character to philosophy, and from social observations to local descriptions. He was as one intoxicated, sketching with bold and rapid strokes, with intensity of feeling and incomparable drollery, the fantastic images that were dancing in the dark chambers of his brain.

It was the "gifted women of Paris" who first recognized Balzac's true power and brought him to public favor. They discovered in his writings the true champion

of their sex. He did not flatter or prevaricate; he was simply truthful in his loyalty to womanhood. He saw her true nature and power, and portrayed it; her failings and foibles, and exposed them; but it was all done so manfully as to win their admiration, and they made it known. It has been said that woman was the keynote of Balzac's work. True: he wrote of her as but few or none had ever written; he understood her better than any writer of his age or country. His book, "The Woman of Thirty," produced a powerful impression on Parisian society. He wrote of her as he thought and felt, put her into literature, made her real, helped more than any one to revolutionize many of the social amenities of the age, and brought her to her true self and station. He early said that man was a dual being; that man and woman were both needed to express humanity. He said that the thread of the divinity which makes man in the image of God is transmitted through woman, that she is the soul of humanity, and that soul had no gender. Man is born an understanding, and woman a love. Her glory and power is her sense and use of the divine love. She lost her Eden, and ever since has sought to regain it and bring her loved ones into it. Her mission is to elevate and love, hence she is naturally more spiritual. She is the home-builder. Sainte-Beuve asked: "Who has better painted the belles of the Empire; who has so delightfully sketched the duchesses and the viscountesses of the close of the Restoration?" He has portrayed many noble women, lavished an unequalled analytic and descriptive power upon them. He has delighted to show them in the family relation, unselfish, patient, tolerant, confiding, always ready to sacrifice themselves for those they love. He has shown them loyal, prudent, affectionate, wise, foreseeing, pure, and happy. His women are natural and real; defects appear, as they ever do in the best of women and men; but they are true to life. He drew with an exact pencil and won approval.

Several facts in his early life led him naturally to have the highest conception of and regard for woman. His mother was an ardent woman, and she and her son were devoted lovers. His sister Laure was his loving correspondent through all his life, especially during the years of his trials; she was ever loyal to his abilities

and full of cheer and tact. At the age of twenty-three he met the angel-woman for whom he longed, and who thenceforth inspired his life, until some great calamity overtook and wrecked their love. All traces of her name, person, condition, character, and letters are lost. Only once did Balzac ever allude to it. It saddened and shadowed and yet inspired his life.

"For me she exists, only more beautiful; if I have made her into a vision, it is that no one may be master of my secret. . . . I have always been heart-crushed beneath my terrible burden."

The secret of this early love history is wrought up in "*Albert Savarus*;" it is the story of man's first love for woman. Then, too, he had the advice, sympathy, and sincere friendship of several women of rare mind and character.

It is often asserted that the charm of the French novel is its immorality. That charge may be sustained against many French writers but it cannot be affirmed of Balzac. The character of the man prepares us to believe in the purity of his work. His was an exceptionally chaste life. George Sand, who knew his habits, says, "His private life covers no black spots." Gautier describes the moral code which his intimate personal friend laid down for himself as one that rivalled the severity of Trappist or Carthusian friars. Against all examples to the contrary he insisted that simple habits and absolute chastity were essential to the development of the highest literary faculty, and that all excess led to the ruin of talent. It is universally affirmed that "*Louis Lambert*" is largely autobiographical; that being so, it imputes the highest praise to Balzac, for that novel is as pure and delicate as a Hebrew psalm.

Balzac was more than moral; he was religious. He was a profound student of the Bible, and its teachings are inwoven most deftly into his work. Rarely has a writer laid bare the deep, strong, and pure motives of priests and nuns as he. He was not blind to their faults, but he divined the pure heart and had the profoundest reverence for it. Like most men of deep intuitions, he was strongly influenced by the mystical schools of thought.

"He revelled in the misty philosophies of St. Martin and Swedenborg, the spiritual contemplations of Madame Guyon, and the occult studies of the Orient. Out of these came that unique piece of heavenly fiction, '*Séraphita*.'"

A corrupt heart could never conceive, or, conceiving, could never execute so divine a figure.

We are not blind to the fact that the "*Comédie Humaine*" contains stories of low life, passion, intrigue, deception, and vice of such character as to disturb our American sense of propriety. Some of them we would not put into the hands of young people. But, to be just, we must say that these stories were made necessary by the very purposes of his work, which was to picture life as it then existed. By this plan his work is lifted almost out of the sphere of the novel and becomes a profound sociological and ethical study. He declares that the *Marneffes*, *Hulots*, *Brideaus* are not creations of his imagination, he only describes what he saw. His descriptions are not debasing but historic,—the actual pictures of his own times. Balzac says:

"My blushing critics veil their faces before certain personages in the '*Comédie Humaine*,' who are, unfortunately, as true as the others and set in strong relief in my vast pictures of the morals of the times. But I defy them to cite a single passage in which religion or the family is attacked."

He never makes vice respectful, nor virtue undesirable; rather he makes it known repeatedly that vice merits and receives its own ill reward.

The last eight years of Balzac's life are contained in the history of his intercourse with the Countess Hanska, a Polish lady of great beauty and immense wealth. The acquaintance began in an anonymous correspondence, she first writing and thanking him for his last book, "*Le Médecin de Campagne*," and offering some suggestions, and this correspondence was carried on several years before they met. During this period they were thoroughly delighted with each other; and when met, the delight passed over into strong personal attachment. M. Hanska, for many years an invalid, died early in 1843; in September of that year Balzac visited her at St. Petersburg. In 1846 they were engaged, but the marriage was delayed for various reasons. She had one child, a daughter fourteen years of age, and a great landed estate. Russian laws were very strict in the matter of marriages out of the state, where great property was involved. To marry, she must relinquish her property, and this would be a great sacrifice.

His own financial condition, however, was improving rapidly. His debts were all paid, his enemies were conquered by his great popularity, his friends multiplied, his books were selling rapidly, and he was riding triumphantly on the crests of the highest waves of prosperity. He began to remodel his house in the Rue Fortunée. She visited him several times in Paris, saw his home, friends, and prospects, and approved. She put into the house many of her choice works of art.

Occasionally during these years of waiting the old-time spirit of writing came upon him, and he produced three of his greatest books and one of his noblest characters,—“*Les Paysans*,” and two volumes of “*Les Parents Pauvres*,” and “*Madame de la Chanterie*.” But he was broken in health and could not work as formerly. At length the daughter was married to a Russian prince, and the governmental consent was given to her marriage. It was celebrated March 14, 1850. For sixteen years they had loved as noble souls ever can, and now was the fruition. His two immense desires had been fulfilled,—he was celebrated and was beloved.

His last illness, now in his beautiful home in Paris, surrounded by his loved ones, was rapid and alarming, and on Sunday the 20th of August he died suddenly of heart disease. A broken column, and on it a single name, mark his grave in the beautiful Père Lachaise.

There is a fascination about Balzac, the man and the artist, as enduring as his works. The spell is endless, and the

thirst insatiable to know more of this great man and foremost novelist.

George Sand says of him:

“To say of a man of genius that he was good and kind is the highest praise I am able to bestow. I saw him under the shock of great injustices, both literary and personal, and I never heard him say an evil word of any one. He went his painful way with a smile in his soul.”

Gautier, his ever true friend, says

“When I first saw Balzac he was thirty-six, and his personnel was one of those never forgotten. In his presence Shakespeare’s words come to mind,—‘Nature might stand up and say to all the world, This is a man.’”

Leon Gozlan calls him “*Cette vaste mer*.”

Sainte-Beuve wrote:

“Balzac’s energy almost makes the page tremble as you read it. It pervades all his work as the throbbings of the engine pervades the ocean steamer at sea.”

Robert Louis Stevenson said:

“Not to know Balzac is an ignorance that will soon be excuseless, and we hope rare. Not to know him is certainly to lose one of the highest intellectual pleasures, and to shut out one of the profoundest educational forces of literature in this century. Balzac’s work is throughout full of power.”

Zola speaks of him as “the brightest brain of the century.”

Of all the modern novels those of Balzac are the most powerful and subtle, a union of qualities that make them still unapproached as masterpieces.

F. C. HUBBARD.

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION—I

MORE than fifty years ago there was founded in Washington “an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men.” Probably nowhere in the world does a similar institution exist, and while the name “Smithsonian” is a familiar one, comparatively few persons know anything of the history of the bequest made to the United States “in trust for the good of mankind.” The result of this bequest is readily seen by an inspection of the rich scientific and historic collections in the Institution, but the steps by which the end has been achieved are not so plainly perceptible.

James Smithson, to whose munificence this Institution owes its existence, described himself as the “son of Hugh, first Duke of Northumberland, and Elizabeth, heiress of the Hungerfords of Studley, and niece of Charles, the proud Duke of Somerset.” It is believed that he was born in France in 1765, but little is known of his early life. He was graduated at Pembroke College, Oxford, on May 26, 1786, at which time he was known as James Lewis Macie.

It was during his undergraduate career that his mind first turned to science, and his private journal gives an interesting account of a geological tour in Scotland,



JAMES SMITHSON

made two years before graduating, in company with various distinguished persons, including Faujas de St. Fond, a distinguished French geologist and professor of geology in the Jardin des Plantes, in Paris. Thereafter he devoted much attention to the gathering and analysis of rocks and minerals. Davies Gilbert, President of the Royal Society, a fellow-collegian and a lifelong friend, said that he excelled all other resident members of the University in the knowledge of chemistry.

After leaving the University he settled in London and sought admission to the Royal Society, of which, on April 26, 1787, he was made a Fellow,—a distinction which, according to Arago, is "the highest point of ambition of the man of science."

Notwithstanding his acquaintance with the foremost scientists in England, and with all the opportunities at his command for making a splendid career as a chemist, he passed over to the Continent, where he spent the greater part of his remaining years, at first in Paris, and then in Berlin, Rome, Florence, and Geneva, but everywhere the friend and associate of the leading men of science. He made long tours, during which he closely observed the climate, physical features, and geological structure of the localities visited. He studied the characteristics of minerals

and the methods employed in mining and smelting ores. With a portable laboratory, minute balances, and with apparatus so delicate as to be hardly visible, he made the most accurate and satisfactory determinations. It is said of him that, "happening to observe a tear gliding down a lady's cheek, he endeavored to catch it in a crystal vessel; that one half of the drop escaped, but, having preserved the other half, he submitted it to reagents, and detected what was then called microcosmic salt, with muriate of soda, and three or four more saline substances held in solution."

The results of his investigations were sent to England, and of the twenty-seven papers known to have been published by him eight appeared in the "Transactions of the Royal Society." It was he who first discovered and analyzed the carbonate of zinc, and in his honor, Beudant, the great French mineralogist, called it *Smithsonite*. Berzelius speaks of him as "one of the most accomplished mineralogists in Europe."

Always a student, ever observing and noting his opinions, he passed his life, and finally, in Genoa, Italy, on June 27, 1829, he died. His property, valued at £120,000, is believed to have come to him partly from the estate of his mother's husband, and partly from his half-brother, Colonel Henry Louis Dickinson, and was bequeathed by him to a nephew of the latter.

His will, bearing date October 23, 1826, provided, in the event of the death of this nephew without children, that the estate be disposed of in accordance with the following clause:

"I bequeath the whole of my property to the United States of America, to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men."

Within six years from Smithson's death this nephew died in Pisa, Italy, and his fortune came to the United States. The reason why this country was chosen as the beneficiary is not positively known, but Mr. William J. Rhees, his biographer, says:

"He undoubtedly felt that in the United States there would be wider scope for the promotion of knowledge, and that in this new country there would always be free thought and indefinite progress. By selecting the nation itself as the depositary of his trust he paid

the highest compliment to its intelligence and integrity, and testified his confidence in republican institutions and his faith in their perpetuity."

Dr. Goode, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Institution, believed it probable that he met Joel Barlow in Paris, and became familiar with his plan for a realization of Washington's project for a great national institution of learning in the Federal city as mentioned in the latter's Farewell Address. The two opinions are perfectly reconcilable.

Congress was apprised of the bequest in December, 1835, by a special message from President Jackson. A suit was entered by the United States in the English Court of Chancery, and on August 29, 1838, the ship "Mediator" arrived in New York with £104,960 in gold, which was deposited in the Bank of America until September 1, when it was delivered to the Treasurer of the United States Mint in Philadelphia, and immediately recoined into American money, yielding \$508,318.46 as the bequest of James Smithson.

When Congress assembled in December, 1838, President Van Buren notified that body that the fund had been received by the government, and urged the prompt adoption of a plan by which the intention of the testator might be carried out. No legislation, however, was had for eight years, but much agitation took place, both in Congress and among the people. Dr. Goode said in this connection:

"Every man had a scheme peculiar to himself, and opposed all other schemes with a vigor proportionate to their dissimilarity to his own. Schools of every grade, from a national university to an agricultural school, a normal school, and a school for the blind, were proposed. A library, a botanical garden, an observatory, a chemical laboratory, a popular publishing house, a lecture lyceum, an art museum,—any and all of these and many more were proposed and advocated by this voluntary congress of many men of many minds."

Finally, on August 10, 1846, President Polk signed the bill creating the Smithsonian Institution. As defined therein, the "Establishment" is composed of the President of the United States, who is presiding officer *ex officio*; the Vice-President; the members of the Cabinet; and the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. This body is responsible for "the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." The act also provided for a "Board of

Regents," by whom the business of the Institution is administered. It is composed of the Vice-President of the United States, the Chief Justice, three members of the Senate, three members of the House of Representatives, and six citizens, no two of whom may be from the same State, though two must be residents of the District of Columbia. The presiding officer of the Regents is the Chancellor, whom they elect from their own number. This place has been usually filled by the Chief Justice. The executive officer of the Smithsonian Institution is the Secretary,* who is chosen by the Regents.

Organization having been accomplished, the next thing needed was a scheme of administration and an executive officer. With a wisdom that builded better than they knew, the Board of Regents submitted Smithson's will to Joseph Henry, then Professor of Natural Philosophy in the College of New Jersey, in Princeton, and requested him to suggest a plan by which the bequest might best be realized. His scheme proved so satisfactory that on December 14, 1846, he was chosen first Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. The "Programme of Organization," which Professor Henry presented to the Regents on December 8, 1847, grew out of his earlier plan, and it had for its chief object the fulfillment of Smithson's provisions.

To "increase knowledge" Henry proposed:

1. To stimulate men of talent to make original researches, by offering suitable rewards for memoirs containing new truths.
2. To appropriate annually a portion of the income for particular researches, under the direction of suitable persons.

To "diffuse knowledge" he proposed:

1. To publish a series of periodical reports on the progress of the different branches of knowledge; and
2. To publish occasionally separate treatises on subjects of general interest.

This plan was submitted to the judgment of leading men of science in the United States and Europe, and received general approval.

At the time of his appointment Henry was forty-seven years of age, and well known among scientific men by his researches in electricity and magnetism. Sir David Brewster said of him: "The

* The office of "Secretary" is equivalent, in its duties and honors, to that of "Director" in similar institutions.

mantle of Franklin has fallen upon the shoulders of Henry." It is becoming recognized that Henry was the first actually to magnetize a piece of iron at a distance, and to demonstrate the applicability of the electro-magnet to telegraphy. Within a week from the date of his appointment Henry was in Washington, and at once entered on the duties of his office.

One of the requirements of the Act of Establishment was the erection of a suitable building. Congress had already assigned a site in the square on the Mall, now known as Smithsonian Park. Plans

the main building soon became the repository of the collections deposited by the government; for the Smithsonian Institution is the custodian of "all objects of art and of foreign and curious research, and all objects of natural history, plants, and geological and mineralogical specimens, belonging to the United States."

Scarcely had the Institution begun its career when a splendid opportunity to illustrate the wisdom of the plan adopted by the Regents presented itself. Dr. Edwin H. Davis, an Ohio physician, had devoted his leisure to the examination of the



FRONT VIEW OF THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION

were prepared by James Renwick, famous as the architect of Grace Church, New York, and the building was begun in 1847. Although not entirely finished until 1855, portions of the building were soon ready for occupancy. It is of red sandstone, mainly in the Romanesque style, but with many Gothic features. It is nearly 450 feet long, with nine towers that range from 75 to 150 feet in height. The internal structure has been considerably modified since the building was first completed, but the exterior maintains its original dignity. The east wing during Henry's administration was used as the private residence of the Secretary, while

mounds so common in certain portions of that State. He had made a large collection of the remains of the builders of those mounds,—that ancient people whose origin is still doubtful. Dr. Davis had confided the preparation of a description of his investigations to Mr. E. G. Squier, and this manuscript was submitted to the Smithsonian Institution for publication. In accordance with the practice then inaugurated, the memoir was submitted through Albert Gallatin, President of the American Ethnological Society, to a committee of its members, among whom were John R. Bartlett, George P. Marsh, and W. W. Turner, for inspection. Having

been pronounced worthy of publication, the work was issued in 1848 under the title of "Ancient Monuments of the Mississippi Valley," and formed the first volume of the quarto series of the Smithsonian "Contributions to Knowledge." Thus the first step toward the fulfillment of Smithsonian's bequest was accomplished.

From this beginning the series has expanded into thirty volumes, containing nearly 7,000 pages and many fine plates. Almost every volume includes several memoirs, each of which was originally published separately. One of the last of these memoirs is "On the Densities of Oxygen and Hydrogen, and on the Relation of Their Atomic Weights," by Edward W. Morley, and contains the results of the most magnificent chemical investigation ever undertaken and completed in this country.

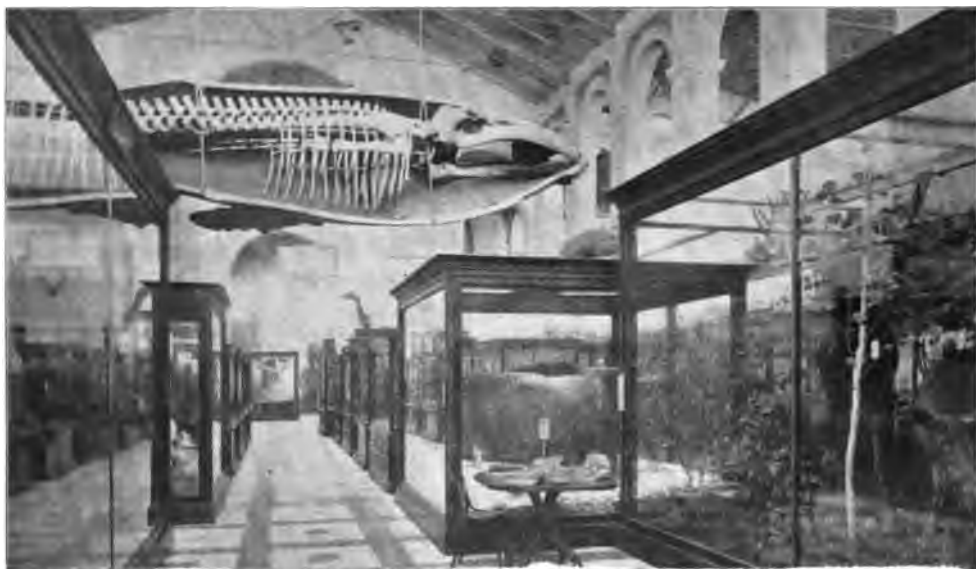
It was originally Henry's desire to issue one volume of these "Contributions" each year, but the great difficulty in securing "the results of new investigations of the highest importance to the well-being of man" prevented the accomplishment of that purpose. Still, great scientists like Agassiz, Bache, Cope, Guyot, Gibbs, Hare, Harkness, Langley, Leidy, Michelson, Newcomb, Peirce, Torrey, and Wyman, are among those who have contributed the richest products of their intellects to these volumes.

Coexisting with this series is a second one entitled Smithsonian "Miscel-

laneous Collections," in which are published memoirs that are not necessarily of the greatest originality, although of great value. In this collection are the bibliographies by Bolton, the "Constants of Nature" by Clarke, the "Meteorological Tables" by Guyot, and the "Synoptical Flora of North America" by Gray. Some thirty-nine octavo volumes have thus far been published. Besides the foregoing, the Institution issues Annual Reports, each of which contains special papers that are selected on account of their scientific worth. It is sufficient to say that in the regular series more than one thousand works have been issued, and for the Atlanta Exposition the librarian prepared a complete set of all the works issued by the Institution, which included over 200 volumes of more than 1,000 pages each.



THE ROTUNDA — UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM



THE MAMMAL HALL—UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM

A careful student of the history of American science has well said that the scientific departments of the United States government, with three exceptions, originated with the Smithsonian Institution. It is true that the Coast Survey, the Astronomical Observatory, and the scientific portion of the Patent Office, which has since become the Department of Agriculture, were in existence in 1846; but each one of these institutions has secured very important aid from the Smithsonian Institution, so that it may fairly be claimed that their development is largely due to its influence.

The firm alliance between Secretary Henry and Mr. Bache, the great Superintendent of the Coast Survey, that continued until severed by the death of the latter in 1867, very early manifested itself by the establishment of a magnetic observatory in the Smithsonian grounds under the joint control of the two departments. Later it passed completely under the control of the Coast Survey, but the spirit of coöperation then inaugurated has continued until the present, and for pendulum experiments rooms at the Smithsonian are still at the disposal of the Survey. Mention should also be made of the coöperation with the Navy Department, by the extension of aid to Lieutenant Gilliss in his astronomical expeditions to Chili, and the early computations by Downes of the occultations visible in the United

States during the years 1848 to 1853, and of the computations of the ephemeris of Neptune by Walker for the Nautical Almanac. In the departments of Botany and Entomology the Smithsonian Institution still shares the care of the collections in these branches of science with the Department of Agriculture, and the curators of these subjects in the United States National Museum are officers of the Department of Agriculture.

In his Programme of Organization Henry indicated a "system of extended meteorological observations for solving the problem of American storms," as a subject eminently suitable for the employment of the funds of the Institution. He promptly organized a service in which he secured the aid of three classes of observers. One class, without instruments, was instructed to record the changes in the aspect of the sky, the direction of the wind, the beginning and ending of rain, the appearance of the aurora, etc. Another, in addition to the foregoing, was required to give an account of the changes of the temperature as indicated by the thermometer, while a third class, furnished with full sets of instruments, was expected to record all changes deemed important in the study of meteorology. Regular communications were established with these observers, from whom monthly detailed observations of various degrees of accuracy, on blanks furnished them by the Institution, were

received.. For more than twenty-five years this relation continued with the most important results, the work extending and enlarging year by year in a rapid ratio, until finally more than six hundred observers from all walks of life and in all parts of the country were in direct communication with the Smithsonian Institution.

It was Henry's avowed policy never "to engage in any operation which could be as well, if not better, carried on under the direction of another institution." In accordance with this policy, when the United States Signal Office was established in 1870, Henry promptly offered to turn over the Smithsonian system, with its observers, to that office, even though it was at that time, according to Baird, "by far the most important feature of Smithsonian activity." Thus what is now the Weather Bureau passed from the control of the Smithsonian Institution.

Doubtless remembering the fact that Smithsonian was an analytical chemist, the Act of Establishment provided for a chemical laboratory. Soon after the completion of the building a commodious room was fitted up for original research in chemistry. That the laboratory has never received the prominence that other departments have is easily explained by the fact that Henry recognized the existence of other laboratories in Washington where analysis "could be as well, if not better, carried on." Chemists of repute have had charge of the chemical laboratory, and chief among these was J. Lawrence Smith, who spent the years 1853-54 in that capacity, during which he devoted himself to the examination of American minerals. It is still employed for a similar purpose.

Again returning to the original Programme of Organization,—which, after all, contains the germs of all the results that have been accomplished by the Smithsonian Institution,—it will be found that Henry there directs that volumes of the memoirs be exchanged for the transactions of libraries and scientific societies, and that copies be given to all the colleges and principal libraries in this country, his object being to found a library that should consist—

—" (1) of a complete collection of the transactions and proceedings of all the learned societies in the world; (2) of the more important current

periodical publications and other works necessary in preparing the periodical reports."

With the issuing of the first volume of the Smithsonian publications came the problem of its distribution to the best advantage and at the lowest cost. Besides the volumes distributed in the United States, six copies were sent to Central and South America, one to Africa, eight to Asia, and one hundred and sixty to Europe. Custom-house requirements caused great delays, and Henry set himself to work to secure prompt delivery. In 1852, after much correspondence, a system of international exchanges was effected by which scientific material was sent free by American and foreign scientific bodies through the medium of the Smithsonian Institution. In the accomplishment of this purpose Henry established such relations with learned men in all parts of the world that there is no civilized country where the Institution is not represented. To-day the list of correspondents includes all of the scientific and learned institutions of the world, as well as many thousands of special correspondents.

As the Bureau grew, other tasks were assigned to it, including, in 1867, the duty placed upon it by Congress of exchanging fifty copies of all public documents for similar works published in foreign countries. In 1889 a definite treaty made in Brussels was announced by President Cleveland, according to which the United States, with other governments, undertook the continuation of the exchange service on a more extensive basis. From this has sprung the Bureau of International Exchanges, which Congress partially provides for by an annual appropriation. From 1852 to 1895 the Smithsonian exchange service handled 1,459,448 packages, and during recent years the weight of books passing through the Institution has been more than one hundred tons each year. By means of the International Bureau of Exchanges any scientist of recognized standing, whether in the United States or elsewhere, may send, without expense to himself, any material of a scientific nature, including books, to any other scientist who is within reach of the system.

MARCUS BENJAMIN

WASHINGTON, D.C.

(To be continued.)

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

SOME LETTERS AND REMINISCENCES

My acquaintance with Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes began under peculiarly agreeable circumstances. In the autumn of 1869 I was visiting Boston, armed with a few letters of introduction. I had dined with Fields, the publisher of Dickens and Tennyson in America, at the Saturday Club; and Dr. Francis Parkman, whose "Discovery of the Great West" had just been brought out, made me at home for a month at the cozy quarters of the Union Club, then situated at No. 8, Park Street. Whipple, who often dined there, I met at luncheon, and he gave me a letter to Edward Everett Hale,

whose charming "Sybaris, and Other Homes," was making a delightful impression in the world of letters. In turn Dr. Hale sent me to Longfellow and to Holmes. By them I was afterwards introduced to Agassiz and to Dr. Sterry Hunt, chemist, palæontologist, and geologist.

On the 19th of October, the inauguration of President Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University, took place, and to that imposing function and the subsequent reception at the president's house I received invitations. The leading lights in letters, in art, and in science were present, and the hours passed away

all too soon. I walked in the procession with Dr. Holmes's old tutor, and listened to much delightful talk about the Autocrat and his early days. From the president's house I crossed over with Dr. Holmes to the residence of his brother John, one of the most interesting men that I ever met. He was bright and cheery, and very much like his better-known brother in manner and conversation.

After a pleasant chat of half an hour or so we went off to Dr. Holmes's house, where I was to dine. The "A" of "Our Hundred Days in Europe" was plying her needle on a task which must have been very agreeable to her, for the slippers she was "filling in" were destined for her future husband, Mr. Turner Sargent. Mrs. Holmes was charming, and asked many questions about the event of the afternoon. The talk ran on Harvard and her distinguished sons, of course, and many hopes were expressed for the



OW Holmes

success of the new president, hopes which have since been abundantly realized. Before I left, my host handed me one of his books, a beautiful copy of "The Autocrat," quaintly illustrated by Hoppin, and his poem, "Bonaparte-Humboldt," in proof-sheet form and signed by himself. From such beginnings was our acquaintance formed, an acquaintance which ripened into a friendship that remained unbroken till the end. I was publishing in those days, in St. John, New Brunswick, a quarterly magazine to which I had given my name. Of course I sent some numbers to Dr. Holmes. These he looked over and took the trouble to point out to me the ways and means by which the serial might be improved. He was the friendly critic, the gentle reader to whom the authors of half a century ago addressed their books. I need not say that I took his advice, and strengthened, under his direction, the weak features and shortcomings of the venture. The magazine went on from 1867 to 1872, when with some reluctance I withdrew it from the field.

On looking over my literary treasures I find a large number of letters from Dr. Holmes, all of them interesting to me; but, some of them being interesting to lovers of the man and his art, I do not think that it would be just to withhold them from publication.

In June, 1871, with something of a sportsman's pride, I sent the doctor a salmon. On the 25th instant he wrote:

"The letter came all right, and the glorious fish after it, looking fit to swim for a wager. I had him laid on the ice, and to-day a goodly portion of him was served at my table. I am much addicted to salmon, and I found this one the best I have had this season. Accept my thanks for this most welcome gift, which tasted all the better because it came reminding me of a young friend who is doing good service in the field of letters. I hope your magazine is meeting with all the success it deserves, and bringing you a substantial revenue in addition to the consciousness of helping on the cause of good learning.

"As for myself, I have been so busy with establishing myself in a new house, and my daughter's marriage, and the rearrangement of our medical school, and other private matters, that I have hardly pretended to write anything since the January number of the 'Atlantic,' in which I had a poem, 'Dorothy Q.,' which my friends liked particularly. I do not expect to go to the P. B. K. exercises or dinner this year, so you need not expect that dinner

poem from me. There is a wedding in a friend's family I must attend; besides, I am a little tired of hearing myself on such occasions."

A good many letters passed between us from 1871 to 1877, but they were chiefly of a personal character. In the latter year some contributions of mine were printed in "Belford's Monthly," of Toronto. They dealt with the careers of Longfellow, Lowell, Holmes, Emerson, Whittier, Bryant, Howells, and Aldrich. I called the series "Evenings in the Library," and threw what I had to say into the form of conversations between a professor and two students, and in that way the opportunity frequently offered for the admission of a good deal of matter which could never have been utilized in any other form. I sent the sketches, as they appeared, to Dr. Holmes, and on the 3d of February, 1877, he wrote me these lines:

"I received the two numbers of 'Belford's Monthly,' containing your very kind and flattering notice of myself and my writings. Of course I blushed as I read it, but there was nobody looking on, and I assure you a man can stand a good deal of commendation without disputing its essential justice. It is much pleasanter to read the remarks of appreciative critics than those of the stupid, blind, wilfully ignorant, malignantly illiterate, and totally depraved persons who have the presumption to find fault with things we know to be every way admirable. I have been so engrossed with my regular duties, and various incidental calls upon my time, that I have not had the leisure to examine the monthly you send me, very thoroughly; but it seems to present quite an agreeable variety of contents, and I should think would prove a very useful channel for the talent and scholarship of the Dominion. I hope the business of *magasining* will not be injured by over-competition, as I should fear it might be in the United States. Up to this time some half-a-dozen such periodicals have managed to keep their heads above water, but it would be a striking proof of the literary appetite of the country if some of them did not find the struggle too much for them before many years are gone. You, who have worked so faithfully in this department of letters, must know how hard it is to fight the battle, with indifference on the one hand, and rivals on the other, successfully."

The following letter refers to that remarkably gifted orator, Wendell Phillips, who had been my guest. A more delightful man in private life never lived. In his famous lecture on Daniel O'Connell it was his custom to quote two stanzas of a poem on Ireland so sad and so hopeless

that it seemed the very moan of a departed spirit. Mr. Phillips did not know the name of the author of "The Plagues of Ireland," and he was very much pleased when I put Furlong's little volume into his hand. It will be remembered that in 1877 Phillips made some very bitter speeches about President Hayes and his Cabinet. They were eloquent and magnificent as pieces of oratory, and the rich voice of the speaker made them very effective. But they were unjust; and many of the orator's friends — Dr. Holmes, his kinsman, among the number — much regretted them. The latter sent me this letter on the 11th of April:

"I received and have read your paper on Mr. Lowell, which struck me as fair and appreciative. I am afraid I have been negligent in my correspondence, but I have an excuse in the fact that my thoughts have been centred on events occurring about me. I have lost two who were very near to me within the last few weeks, — Mr. Sargent, who married my daughter, near the end of February, and, last week, my sister, Mrs. Upham.

"No private sorrows can keep us from thinking much of public affairs at a time like this, when questions like those of South Carolina and Louisiana are so full of doubts and possible dangers. You ask me if I read a speech of Wendell Phillips about Hayes and his Cabinet. I read everything I see of Cousin Wendell's in the papers, but I confess I think his eloquence and his prejudices are more conspicuous than his judgment. I do not think that sensible people trouble themselves very much about his denunciations or his vaticinations. He airs his epithets on too many worthy people. But Wendell is charming to meet, and as amiable as a sucking lamb off the platform. My brother John, of whom he spoke to you, is quite famous for his social gifts — at least famous in the Cambridge circle, to which Lowell and other men, who ought to be good judges, belong. The paper of his which you refer to was published in two ponderous and costly volumes about Harvard University published a year or two ago. I have no copy of it, though I contributed a brief account of an old Cambridge house to it."

On the 20th of June of this year (1877) the great fire occurred in St. John, New Brunswick, when over sixteen hundred houses, churches, and public buildings were destroyed. The area burned over was two hundred acres in the very heart of the city. The fire provoked much sympathy in all parts of the world, and large contributions in money, clothing, and food literally poured into the doomed town.

Dr. Holmes had his feelings aroused by the disaster, and on the 11th of July he sent me these words from Beverly Farms, his summer retreat:

"I enclose the account of the celebration at Woodstock, Connecticut, at which I delivered the poem which you will find here printed in full. I went to Woodstock because it was my father's birthplace, not suspecting that it was a party political meeting to which I had been invited, until a little before the time of meeting. I then made up my mind to show that I was not in sympathy with the attack on the President, and wrote the dozen lines which you will find also in the report of the paper [the Boston 'Daily Advertiser.']. I thought you might like to see the whole account, and the lady's poem as well as mine. I heard none of the discourses, etc., except Chamberlain's address. The rest of the day I devoted to sight-seeing and to visiting the former residences and the graves of my forefathers.

"I hardly know how to speak of the great calamity in which you, I grieve to hear, have been a sufferer. I remember so well the effect of our own great fire, — the terror of the conflagration as I saw it, the nervous excitement it left in myself and others, — that I can imagine something of what you have been through. There is nothing that can be said which is of much use — there is much that may be *done*; and I hope our people are doing their share. I, myself, have done nothing as yet, having had my pockets cleaned out by an extraordinary and unexpected call which I did not feel at liberty to resist; but I hope I shall be able to add my modest contribution whenever I am appealed to, as I expect to be, among the members of my profession, who, as I have heard, are to be called upon. I am now staying at a little house in this seaside town, and have not seen the physicians' subscription paper. If I had felt richer, I would not have waited for it.

"I came to this place very much fatigued with many and varied cares and duties, which had worn upon me more than anything has for a long time. I am just beginning to get a little rested, and hope to return to Boston by September, somewhat refreshed, and after an unusually exhausting succession of labors. I am glad you have the spirit and courage to write, and shall look for your account of the fire with painful interest."

Another letter, full of tenderness and sympathy, was written to me by the same hand on the 12th of August, in which an offer of books was made, to fill the gaps in my library which had been caused by the fire:

"If you do not like to take it, I shall consider it a reproach to myself, for I received, not ten days ago, from a gentleman who is under no obligation to me, as an unprovoked present,

three beautiful and rare volumes, which I accepted with great willingness. I have only to say, pray do not refuse this, and pray do not thank me very hard for so small a matter."

After the fire I removed to Toronto, to take charge of the "Canadian Monthly," the magazine founded by Prof. Goldwin Smith, and which had become amalgamated with "Belford's Monthly." My publishers wished a book on the administration of the Earl of Dufferin in Canada, and I was deputed to write it. I consulted Dr. Holmes and Mr. Longfellow on the subject. The latter thought I had a splendid topic, and exclaimed:

"What a genial and charming man the young earl is, and how lovely is Lady Dufferin! They are a great loss to Canada, but you have some excellent people coming to take their places. Everybody will be fascinated by the Princess Louise, and I see by the last number of your magazine that the poets have already begun their songs of praise."

Dr. Holmes, writing under date of the 16th of April, said:

"I am very much pleased at the prospect before you. I do not see how the work can help succeeding. All you have to do is to write on a subject familiar to you, and with the governor-general's speeches for a background to your book, your practiced and easy pen will run along itself, like Planchette.

"I had the great pleasure of meeting Lord Dufferin when he was in Boston, some two or three years ago, I should think, and found him, as I knew I should, a most agreeable and intelligent gentleman. I knew him through the Motleys, as well as by his writings. But England has a way of sending *gentlemen* to represent her, and not twitching them from their seats, as my friend Motley was displaced. Lord Dufferin gave Lowell and myself a very cordial invitation to visit him a year or two ago, but neither of us found it convenient to go. I do not know whether he asked others of our countrymen at that time, or whether any of them went. But I should have liked mightily to be his guest, if I could have got away.

"My Memoir ['Motley'] gets along quite slowly, for so small a matter as it promises to be at present. I cannot help it. I have so many other things to do, and I have to wait for other people's information.

"There are some ticklish points to deal with which I have not yet reached, and which I fear will give me trouble if they do not make trouble; for there has been a great deal of trouble about the treatment Motley received. However, I may possibly handle it so as to keep out of *very* hot water."

In June, 1878, Lord Dufferin went to Cambridge, Massachusetts, to take part in

the Commencement exercises at Harvard, and to receive the honorary degree of LL.D. Those who were granted a similar honor at the same time were Nathan Clifford, of the United States Supreme Court, William Goodwin Russell, and Thomas Chase. Among the distinguished men present were Governor Rice, Charles Francis Adams, Longfellow, Emerson, R. C. Winthrop, E. E. Hale, O. W. Holmes, and C. W. Eliot. The Phi Beta Kappa Society entertained Lord Dufferin at dinner, and he made a capital speech over "the walnuts and the wine." Dr. Holmes wrote to me of this:

"Lord Dufferin was delightful. He captivated everybody he met, myself among the number. His speech at the Phi Beta Kappa dinner was most felicitous,—natural, spontaneous, cordial, playful, graceful,—making us feel as Desdemona did, wishing that heaven had made us such a man in place of some native specimens we would exchange for him. His visit, following that of the Emperor of Brazil, was just what we wanted to show us that the right man can be got at now and then without universal suffrage; we know too well that this often helps us to the wrong ones."

Other letters I have in the same vein, for Dr. Holmes was very fond of the Dufferins. His "Memoir of Motley" appeared in 1878. He had been a good while at it. Lack of information delayed him, and the heat of the summer interrupted his progress. "I am living in an oven," he wrote from Beverly Farms in July, "and writing is out of the question until it cools down a little."

In January, 1879, he wrote from Boston:

"I am glad that you like the Memoir of Motley. You do not tell me that you received one of the small quarto *memorial copies*, which I sent you. I hope it has reached you, and that you think it a handsome volume.

"Trübner published the Memoir by a special arrangement and under an English copyright. About the red-line edition of my poems, I have not asked or thought of it until your letter reminded me of it. I suppose it may come in time. But I am too much occupied to give myself any concern about the matter. This daily lecture, month after month, is like an omnibus horse's twelve or fourteen miles a day, not much to tell of, but 'tis enough, 'twill serve,' as Mercutio says, to keep one from doing and thinking of many things which he would attend to if he had nothing but literature to attend to.

"The Memoir has, so far, been very kindly spoken of. George William Curtis reviewed it very flatteringly in 'Harper's.' If your quarto

has not come since you wrote, please tell me; it ought to have reached you long ago."

The Holmes Breakfast, given by the "Atlantic Monthly," was an event in Boston long remembered. Writing about it, the guest of the day said:

"They all say we had a good time at the breakfast—a breakfast which broke up at 6.30 P.M. Everybody was amiable, and said all manner of pleasant things about me. I hardly knew myself in all the fine feathers of speech in which I was adorned. I wish you could have been with us."

Later I dined with him at the Saturday Club. James Freeman Clarke was there, and so were Fields and Francis Parkman. He wrote:

"The dinner at the Parker House is at half-past two, so you need take no trouble except to be there, where I can find you. *Morning* dress, of course; no white chokers or fixing up. Everybody comes in just as he is, without 'smarting up.'"

About the end of 1881 the illness of Whittier and Longfellow began to trouble their friends. In November Dr. Holmes sent a note to me, saying:

"Longfellow is far from well—vertigo, etc., so that he has been forbidden study and conversation of late, and does not see his friends. I am hoping to hear better news of him every day, but cannot help feeling anxious about him."

Longfellow grew better. He was able to go to Boston at Christmastide; but March came, and a chill gave him a shock from which he did not recover. On the 24th he died, and four days afterward Dr. Holmes sent me this sweet and touching letter:

"We all feel as you do. Never was mourning more profound and universal. Although Longfellow had been in failing health for some time, to feel that he was living among us, and that we could still look upon his noble and benignant countenance, and hear from him now and then, in strains sweet as always, was a privilege, a delight, that we could not bear to lose. It was a beautiful life, full of flower and fruit; and we could have prayed that it might not pass from us while it had a green leaf left. But he is gone; and the earth is less lovely to thousands and thousands to whose happiness his beautiful genius has contributed."

A sad letter reached me in November, 1884, after my visit to England:

"I do not know that I have told you of the loss we met with this last summer, that of our youngest son, Edward. It is a great disappointment, as well as a sorrowful bereavement,

for we had hoped a great deal of satisfaction from his future, which, if his health permitted, was likely to be useful and happy—at least, had all the elements of prospective happiness.

"Your letter pleased me much. You certainly had every reason to be abundantly contented with your reception; and it must have been a great delight to meet so many names of real distinction, and to be received by them so warmly.

"I have not been idle during these last months. I have had an illustrated edition of my poems; somebody has got up a 'Holmes Calendar' (that I had nothing to do with); the Emerson Memoir has kept me busy—I am now looking over the index; and I have just sent an article to the 'Atlantic.' So you see, I am pardonable for not at once answering my friends, and yourself in particular, so promptly as they may have expected. I hope to send you the Emerson Memoir in the course of a few days."

In September, 1885, Dean, then Archdeacon, Farrar paid a visit to Canada and the United States. A letter from Matthew Arnold made him my guest, and he spent some three days in Quebec. He captivated everybody by his brilliant conversation and charming manner. Of course he went to Boston, and, on the 2d of December Dr. Holmes wrote:

"We, too, have had a delightful visit from Archdeacon Farrar, who was very popular, and whom I found very agreeable. We have had also Mr. and Mrs. Haweis, interesting people, both of them, and Mr. Blackburn, with a great collection of water-colors, and Madame 'Henri Gréville,' and I don't know how many more visitors from foreign parts. Among others was the pianiste, Madame Helen Hopkirk, a Scotch lady whom I liked much.

"I am just beginning to get a little rest, and were it not for the innumerable letters I have to write should begin to wax fat in repose, but I can hardly keep up with my correspondence. You will find a cry of distress about it in the January 'Atlantic.'"

"My book is out. What will be thought or said of it I have not the least idea. I have as yet had no opinions except Whipple's, who of his own accord wrote me a very pleasing letter about it. I have suffered so much from having to read and praise other people's books that I never ask for any private judgment on my own. All I ask is that they cut any leaves that remain uncut, so that the book shall not stand condemned by its very aspect. I will send one in a day or two."

The book referred to was "A Mortal Antipathy."

Perhaps these extracts from a correspondence extending over nearly a quarter of a century may fittingly be drawn to a

close by this letter, written shortly after Dr. Holmes's and his daughter's (Mrs. Turner Sargent's) return from a visit to Europe. The story of that eventful tour is to be found in the enjoyable volume "Our Hundred Days in Europe," which the author dedicated to "A." The letter from Beverly Farms bears the date of October 13, 1886:

"My daughter and I have both completely recovered from our fatigue, and are as well as ever.

"Of course we enjoyed ourselves in London and at the great Universities. You ask me how I liked this and that noted personage. Of

course I liked them all, because they were very civil and kindly. I have very little to say about persons, though I saw a good deal that was noticeable. I received a great many impressions, some of which I may possibly reproduce by and by; but just now I am taken up with changing my country residence to another house in the same place, removing back to town for the season, and writing a poem for the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of Harvard University. I am grieved to have to add that my wife's health is much impaired and I am about to procure a housekeeper to relieve her of the cares she has so faithfully borne for nearly fifty years."

GEORGE STEWART.

QUEBEC.

A SKETCH OF THE PHILIPPINES—I

IN THE closing years of the fifteenth century a young Portuguese nobleman, Fernão de Magalhães, was being educated in the court of King John the Second of Portugal. In early manhood he attained distinction as a soldier and navigator in certain expeditions to the East Indies, in which he received a wound in the knee which made him permanently lame. Magalhães complained that he was poorly rewarded for his services; and his sovereign, giving credence to reports circulated by jealous rivals, accused him of feigning lameness. Stung by ingratitude for services he well knew to be highly meritorious, he renounced his allegiance to his mother country and became a citizen of Spain.

On the 4th of May, 1493, Pope Alexander the Sixth issued a bull which divided the world into two hemispheres, the line of demarcation running north and south 100 leagues southwest (by treaty negotiated between Spain and Portugal June 7, 1494, 370 leagues west) of the western limits of the Azores and Cape Verde Islands, and decreeing that all heathen lands thereafter discovered in the eastern of these hemispheres should belong to Portugal, and those in the western to Spain. Means of calculating longitude were then very imperfect, and a dispute arose as to where Spain's eastern boundary fell with reference to the Spice or Molucca Islands lying to the southeast of the Philippines in the East Indies. This dispute led to the conflicts above alluded to, in which Magalhães bore so prominent a part during the years 1505-12. Spain claimed the Spice Islands, and rightly, as was afterward shown,

though the dispute was settled by an agreement made in 1529 by which Charles the Fifth, then sovereign, relinquished his pretended rights in favor of Portugal for the sum of 350,000 ducats (about twice that many dollars).

Spain having given up those spice islands, Magalhães proposed to King Charles to undertake the discovery of others; and at all events to seek out a western route to the East Indies. He was seconded in this idea by an astronomer of note, Ruy Faleiro, another disaffected son of Portugal, and strongly backed by a wealthy merchant. The three offered to bear the expense of an expedition themselves, but King Charles, and the great Spanish ecclesiastic and administrator Fonseca, who so bitterly opposed Columbus, were both very favorably disposed toward the project, and a fleet was fitted out at government expense. It consisted of five vessels from 60 to 130 tons burden, manned by 234 men, and set sail from a point about fifteen miles north of Cadiz on the 10th of August, 1519, in the direction of the Canary Islands. On the 13th of December the fleet arrived at Rio Janeiro, where one captain and a priest, both mutinous, were sent ashore. Another captain was beheaded for trying to excite rebellion against Magalhães. The brave discoverer pushed on in spite of mutiny, the gravest doubt, and increasing cold, keeping close to the coast line until, on the 28th of October, 1520, he found himself in that tortuous channel or strait across the southern extremity of South America which has been called Magellan Strait in his honor. Emerging

thence nearly a month later, on the 26th of November, he found himself putting out on the broad expanse of the Pacific Ocean. The expedition arrived at the Marianne or Ladrone Islands March 16, 1521, having gone a long way too far north. Sailing thence on a southwesterly course they reached the north coast of Mindanao — the most southern and second in size of the Philippines — and traversed it for some distance, touching at length near the mouth of the Butnan River. From there a friendly chief piloted the fleet to certain of his relatives on the island of Cebú, about 150 miles northwest, reaching there on the 7th of April. A treaty was ratified between the great discoverer and his newly made friends by drinking blood from each others' breasts. Mass was celebrated in rude, hastily-constructed shrines, and the little colony was thus ceremoniously — and at the same time and in another sense quite unceremoniously — taken possession of, as was then and there hoped, for good and all, in the name of Spain and the Church. Cebú proved to be the first permanent settlement in the islands, and was called a city in 1570.

The inhabitants of Cebú were at war with a tribe on a little island (Matgan) close by, and thither Magellan went to aid them, but in an engagement on the 25th of April he was mortally wounded. The spot where he fell is marked by a monument to him. There is one also in Cebú near the point on the beach where the first landing was made, and a third in Manila on the left bank of the Pasig River, which divides old or "walled" Manila from the more modern business part. Twenty-six members of the expedition were killed shortly afterward at a feast; many others perished in various ways; and the survivors of the expedition, instead of returning the way they had come, went home by way of the Cape of Good Hope, the well-known Portuguese route to the Spice Islands, narrowly escaping starvation. The globe had thus been circumnavigated, and for the first time.

Mr. Jagros relates an interesting circumstance incident to this circumnavigation of the globe. He points out that every degree Magellan sailed westward added four minutes to his day, until, when he reached the Philippines, the difference in time amounted to about sixteen hours. Curiously enough this escaped the notice of all. Elcano, the only captain who

made the entire circuit, was not aware, "when he returned to the longitude of his departure, that his ship's log-book" was about a day behind "the time of the port his long-continued westward course had brought him back to. The error remained unnoticed also in the Philippines till 1844, when it was decided to pass over New Year's Day for once altogether." Thus it appeared that the Philippines instead of lying far to the west of Spain, the direction in which the discoverers had sailed, might more properly be spoken of as lying about eight hours east of Spain. When it is noon in Madrid it is about twenty minutes past eight in the evening in Manila, and about ten minutes past seven in the morning at Washington.

Several other expeditions were undertaken within the next thirty years, of which the last and most important was ordered by Philip the Second, of Armada fame, after whom the islands were named, and was launched from Mexico under Legaspi, landing at Cebú on the 27th of April, 1565. Legaspi was a strong man of good character, and he — and after him his grandson Salcedo — did much to establish peace and order. A spy sent out by the ruling prince to inspect this expedition reported that "the ships were manned by giants with long, pointed noses, who were dressed in magnificent robes, ate stones (hard biscuits), drank fire, and blew smoke out of their mouths."

About this time the Portuguese endeavored to get a foothold in the islands, but their efforts were thwarted. Several thousand Chinese also, under one Limahong, were only repulsed after a bloody conflict. Evidences are not wanting that both Chinese and Japanese visited the islands long before Magalhães found them.

Until Mexico threw off the yoke of Spain, early in the present century, all communication between the mother country and the Philippines was by way of Mexico. A limited commerce was opened early with America, and indirectly with Europe. The Filipinos were allowed to sell goods to the Americans, but to an amount not exceeding \$250,000 (afterward increased to \$300,000) per annum. They might buy of them in turn, but not to exceed \$500,000 worth. The Spanish-American merchants were forbidden to get their wares from the East. Thus a considerable trade was carried on, to and fro across the Pacific, by means of the Spanish galleons.

These vessels were often laden with silver as well as merchandise, and sometimes with more or less gold, making them most alluring objects of plunder. Early in the seventeenth century the devout and bigoted Philip was doing his best to root out the Reformation from the Netherlands, while the Dutch, on their part, attacking Spain wherever they could, often captured these richly laden galleons, and at last appeared with a formidable fleet off Manila, but were unable to effect a landing.

With one other exception Spain's foothold in the Philippines was never afterward molested until the eventful 1st of May last. In 1761 Spain joined France against Great Britain in the great contest by sea (part of the Seven Years' War). Great Britain successfully attacked Spain in the West Indies and in the Philippines, in which latter territory British occupation lasted from September 22, 1762, to February 10, 1763,—the date of the Peace of Paris.

The Philippines are only one group of what may be considered a great chain of islands extending along the Asiatic coast from Behring Sea, where the Eastern and Western Continents touch hands, to the southern extremity of Hindustan. Seen on the map this chain resembles a great leaning tower, capped by the Aleutian Islands, and having for its base the great Indian Archipelago. The most important of these islands at present are those composing the empire of Japan. Speaking somewhat roughly, Manila is equidistant from Washington and Madrid. The latitude of the Philippines corresponds with that of Central America and the most northern portion of South America; the centre of the little colony being about 2,000 miles south of the centre of the Spanish peninsula, and the entire group lying within the torrid zone. The islands are directly north of Western Australia. Manila, in the northern part, is about 650 miles from Hong Kong, and about 7,000 miles from San Francisco, the nearest point in the United States,—much more than twice as far as Hawaii, or nearly a third the circumference of the globe.

The group comprises about 114,000 square miles, an area more than twice as large as the State of Illinois, or a little over two thirds the size of Spain. It contains not over 1,200 islands, "even if every uninhabitable rock and sand spit that projects above sea-level," says Professor Worcester, "be counted in." The

majority of them are very small. Less than a dozen constitute over ninety per cent of the total area, which, however, is not accurately known, the east coast lines of some of the larger islands having been little explored. Luzon, the most northern and largest, and Mindanao, the most southern and second in size (about equal to Cuba), comprise over one-half the entire territory. It is said that about one third of the total area is suitable for cultivation.

The archipelago lies between $4^{\circ} 40'$ and 20° north latitude; and $116^{\circ} 40'$ and $126^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude,—extending, in round numbers, about 1,000 miles north and south, with an average breadth of 400 miles. After Luzon and Mindanao the principal islands are: Samar, Panay, Palawan, Mindoro, Leyte, Negro, Cebú, Masbate, Bohol, Catanduanes.

Most of those Asiatic coast islands are probably of volcanic origin. Two theories are advanced: one, that the islands were "thrown up," as is said; and the other, that they once formed a part of the mainland, and that a vast stretch of territory now covered by a series of shallow coast seas has been depressed. The similarity of the plants and animals of the islands nearest the mainland to those of the mainland itself is thought to support the latter theory. This similarity is wanting in the remoter islands.

Regarding the surface we should note that three great ranges—or ridges, for they are not very high even in their highest peaks—seem to start down in Malaysia on the southeast, running northwest and southeast. These appear again as continuations extending up through the Philippines, maintaining the same general direction, and constitute in the main the relief of the islands, which are hilly throughout. One island, Palawan, lying somewhat to the west of the general course of the archipelago, is singularly free from all signs of volcanic origin. With that exception, however, signs of volcanic activity at some time or other are everywhere manifest. The great majority of the volcanoes are now extinct, but some are still smouldering, and many terrible eruptions have occurred within recent times. Professor Worcester's account of these volcanoes is intensely interesting, and we subjoin a few sentences:

"Of the active peaks by far the most beautiful is Mayon. It is an absolutely perfect cone,

some 8,900 feet in height, and is in a state of constant activity, its last destructive eruption having taken place in 1888. . . . Taäl, one of the lowest volcanoes in the world [900 feet] holds the record for damage done within historic times."

Taäl rises from a small lake, and the whole top of it was —

—"blown off by a terrific explosion at the time of the last great eruption. . . . The crater is an immense cup-shaped depression, fully a mile in diameter and about 800 feet deep. Its almost perpendicular walls were seamed and gashed with gullies and crevices, and they stand guard over a scene of utter desolation, unrelieved by a green leaf or blade of grass. A second and more recent crater has been built up inside of the first; but half of it has disappeared, leaving a semicircular fragment of wall standing. At the southern end of this an active cone rises somewhat sharply, and from it rolled up the immense column of vapor which we had seen from the edge of the lake.

"Within the large crater were three lakelets of strange-colored water. One was dirty brown, one intensely yellow, and one a most brilliant emerald green. The yellow and green lakelets were boiling away steadily, with a sullen roar, while our ears were assailed by a pandemonium of other sounds, the sources of which we could not make out with certainty. The scarred and blackened walls with their hissing sulphur jets, the boiling lakes with their strange colors, and the immense column of vapor, combined to make a most extraordinary scene, grand in the extreme and wholly beyond my powers of description. . . .

"I wonder why one always wants to go into such places! Fifteen minutes later we were craning our necks over the brink of that entrance to the infernal regions, and looking on a sight that few men have seen. One moment nothing was visible but a sea of rolling, eddying vapor; the next, this was torn asunder by some unseen force, and we could gaze down, it seemed for miles, catching an occasional glimpse of the eternal fires below. Heavy stones lay thickly scattered about where they had fallen after being hurled out of the crater. We rolled some of them over the edge, but could not hear them strike. In fact, we could hardly hear each other when we shouted at the top of our voices."

As might be expected, earthquakes are frequent; not a year passes without at least many slight shocks. By the earthquake of 1863, the most destructive that has occurred recently, several hundred persons in Manila met their death, some thousands were wounded, and buildings were badly wrecked. Most buildings are constructed with reference to earthquakes—so as to yield considerably without serious dam-

age being done. For window-glass semi-transparent oyster-shells set in flexible sashes are generally substituted. These oyster-shells have somewhat the appearance of ground glass.

Many of the islands are of limestone formation and have very shallow soils. The lowlands and valleys of the larger ones, however, are very fertile and productive. The islands present a rich and beautiful aspect, "a diadem of island gems," says an enthusiastic writer, a native of Manila, "a rosary of glowing islands." The climate, of course, is tropical, and, travellers tell us, very trying if one is at all active. Undoubtedly much might be done to improve the climate by clearing and draining the land. Various types of malarial fever are prevalent, and where thorough clearings have been made these fevers have noticeably abated. If one can make it his chief business to take care of himself he may be fairly comfortable. If, however, one must toil and be exposed, the climate cannot be said to be attractive at present. The only records are those of the Jesuit Observatory at Manila. The average temperature there is 80° Fahrenheit. It is never above 100° in the shade, never lower than 60°, and rises as high as 91° in every month of the twelve. Of course there are no strongly marked seasons. Three "periods" are described as cool, very hot, and continuously wet, due to the alternation of the trade winds, the northeast polar current, and the southwest monsoon. The great variety of climate so far as wet and dry are concerned in contiguous localities is due to the interception of these trade winds by the mountains, which probably gives rise to that characterization of the climate by the Spaniards, "Six months of dust, six months of mud, and six months of everything." Variations in altitude are not sufficient to make much difference in temperature. The difference in latitude between the northern and southern regions of the archipelago gives indeed a very perceptible difference in climate. And it should be borne in mind that the figures given above are from observations made at a point considerably north of the centre of the colony. There are numerous lakes and rivers in the larger islands, but as yet they have been little explored.

GEORGE E. STANFORD.

EVANSTON, ILL.

(To be continued.)
Digitized by Google

A LEGEND-HAUNTED SUMMER LAND

SAID a lecturer at one of the great Boston art schools: "My young friends, you have come here from many States, and you will want to make historic pilgrimages. Go first to Plymouth Rock, and make high resolutions in the shadow of the Faith Monument."

Most travellers who visit Boston go to Plymouth,—Forefathers' Land. It is not my purpose here to describe the much-visited Pilgrim Hill, Pilgrim Hall, the Monument, Dighton Rock and its supposed Northmen inscription, or Taunton Green, where the first flag of independence was unfurled, but rather to picture some scenes—commonly unobserved—that a leisurely traveller through Pilgrimland might see. These unusual associations begin at Braintree and end at Onset Bay and Provincetown.

Famously as is the Pilgrim country, many people visit it without really seeing much that is interesting. Its legends, lakes, and the wonderful products of the bowery woods remain a sealed book to them. They see the green pines and sparkling waters from the light veranda of a summer hotel, have a few shell-fish dinners, read several novels, and come away.

The Old Colony woods and shores have been favorite places of summer retreat for many people of eminence during the last fifty years. In the old Winslow House, near the long, green salt-meadows of Marshfield, Webster made his country home, and the American queen of song, Adelaide Phillips, found a retreat in the same elm-shaded seclusion of glimmering distances, and is buried near the great statesman in the ancient Winslow burying-ground. Joseph Jefferson spends his summers at Buzzard's Bay, and Fanny Davenport enjoyed restful days at Duxbury.

At Scituate Woodworth wrote his immortal New England song, "The Old Oaken Bucket," and at Plymouth Jane G. Austin produced her realistic Pilgrim stories, and Professor Goodwin, Mrs. Austin's brother, found much of the material for his "Pilgrim Republic." Ex-President Cleveland returns annually to his charming residence, "Gray Gables," and to the woods and waters of Pilgrimland come many over-worked authors, editors, clergymen, and other public men.

But although many people know the charm of the coast scenery, few have studied the lake country, which is mapped by the arbutus; the land of cranberry meadows, gentian, holly, and ginseng. This green seclusion is said to be brightened with three hundred and sixty-five lakes and ponds, one for every day of the year. The region has perhaps more remarkable legends and interesting folk-lore tales than any other retreat in the woods of New England. It was famous in Indian days as a medicine land, and rustic doctors who prescribe in a botanical way, after the old Indian formulæ, have not wholly disappeared. The curious stories that have been written in regard to Cape Cod people present, as a whole, a somewhat false and exaggerated view of the worthy farmers of the Pilgrim country, but not a few odd characters are to be found in the provincial by-ways,—none more so, perhaps, than the rural doctor, whose medical school has been the neighboring woods. But the Pilgrim farms are rapidly changing their character. Strange as it may seem, Portuguese and Italians are largely possessing the legend-haunted estates of the Plymouth Precisioners near the factory towns.

The heart of this holiday country of evergreens, flowers, legends, traditions, and romantic history is Lakeville, Mass., a town that once formed a part of Middleboro. The pine-sheltered lakes here furnish the water supply for the cities of Taunton and New Bedford. Among these lakes the Assawomset, on whose shores lies "Betty's Neck," is a charm and enchantment. Here the arbutus carpets the pine groves, the royal laurels flame in the early summer, and the beneficent witch-hazels bloom in the fall. Here the loon cries like a child, and the water-witches, or "divers," stir the placid lakes with their wings. Thoreau has pictured the charm of the Cape Cod coast lands, but these Indian woods of the lake land have found no Thoreau.

I first met the fragrance of these secluded Old Colony woods in the decorations of the Boston churches on Christmas and Easter days. I afterward went there to arrange for the making of some evergreen festoons for a Christmas festival, and met a singular provincial family

on the border of the lake country, who described the old Indian ways of treating disease, which interested me in the botany of these woods. The woman of the family, who was a doctor, said to me, "You look *peak'd*!"

I began to feel a physical shrinkage—I hardly knew why—when the good woman added:

"You haven't been doctored right. What you need is wild-cherry-tree bark and wintergreen to straighten you up, and narrow dock root and pipsisway for your blood, and a life-everlasting pillar [pillow] for your nerves. I make that kind of medicine myself. Wait, and I'll get you a bottle."

I do not know the medicinal value of such roots and herbs as the benevolent doctress prescribed, but I am certain that the people who take such remedies live to be very old; the age of sixty is usually the youth of a very old age among the simple livers in the Old Colony woods. It is no strange thing there to find people hale at eighty, or going to "clam-bakes" at ninety, and not a few people there have passed their hundredth birthday in the last two generations. Still I cannot intelligently attribute such remarkable longevity to the virtues of wild-cherry-tree bark and yellow-dock root. Many people here use the mountain laurel for fevers, pokeberry, or dieberry-root for cancerous growths, and life-everlasting pillows for overstrained and weary nerves, the latter of which I can safely recommend.

The good woman put the medicine into the boot of the carriage, saying that it was "all put up in cider two years old."

An ideal summer outing from Boston to the Old Colony would be to take the electric cars for Quincy, passing the home of John Quincy Adams, and visiting the old homes of Presidents John Adams and John Quincy Adams, which are preserved as museums. Thence proceed to Braintree and the historical wharfares; to Scituate, of the curious Rebecca Bates legend, and to the farm of "The Old Oaken Bucket" amid the elms; to Marshfield by rail; to Duxbury and Plymouth; afterwards to Taunton and Plymouth, Dighton Rock, and Lakeville; thence to Provincetown, returning to Boston by boat. The trip can be made in two days, but better, if you can afford the time, in two weeks. One would then see the Northmen's Rock; the

family of Massasoit's descendants (at Lakeville); the Pilgrim country and Faith Monument; the Green at Taunton, the Winslow House and Webster farm; and the towns of the old merchant ships; and become familiar with the associations of two Presidents of the United States and the Hampden legend. In no other journey in America can so many fields of heroic and thrilling history be found. But to many the by-ways of woods, lakes, and colonial houses would give the pilgrimage its true charm and coloring.

At Braintree may be found traces of the early commerce of New England, for it was the ships of this coast that opened the door of trade between Boston and Canton. For this an herb of the region was largely responsible. Ginseng, a hundred years ago, being supposed by the Chinese to possess virtues which conferred immortality, was actually worth its weight in gold. Ships built at Braintree went to Canton with the magic ginseng and returned with tea, bringing large fortunes to the merchants, some of whom laid out beautiful estates on the Quincy Hills, and the South Shore. The view of this coast line from the Plymouth steamer on a summer afternoon is very delightful.

On the South Shore also was built the ship that discovered the Columbia River. But the ancient wharves and shipyards are gone; of the commerce nothing remains but tales told in the old houses of Braintree and Scituate.

Casewell Hall, the ancient home of the Winslows, may next claim attention. The genealogy of the Winslow family, which has been published in two ponderous volumes, can in itself furnish a good outline of the history of America. Governor Edward Winslow laid the foundations of Casewell Hall, and there were fine old times there in early Provincial days. Mrs. Penelope Pelham Winslow, the wife of Governor Josiah Winslow, was reputed to be the handsomest woman in the colony. The old Winslow House, still standing in Marshfield, is a typical colonial home. It has secret apartments hidden around the chimney, supposed to be places of refuge in the Indian wars. According to tradition there was born here the John Winslow who took part in the expulsion of the Acadians, as described in Longfellow's "Evangeline." "I shuddered to read the proclamation to the poor people," he is reported to have said, "but

I did it under orders." It has been stated that in less than a generation after him nearly every person of the Winslow blood became a refugee in Acadia. The tradition, however, will not bear analysis. Few American families have made so many records of worthy names. The Winslow graveyard, with the graves of Webster and Adelaide Phillips, will well repay a visit.

This is the land of legends, some of which I will relate as I have heard them told as household tales, and without any critical analysis. The Scituate story of Rebecca Bates and her sister, who repelled an invasion in Revolutionary times by marching up and down, with a drum and fife, under cover of the rocks and woods, is too well known to find place here. But the legend of John Sassamon is worth narrating. Inquiring about the tale, of an old man, he pointed toward the green shores of a gleaming pond over which wild duck were flying, and said:

"Well, stranger, you have got me now. Sassamon? Sassamon—he was the cause of the Indian war, as I have heard the old folks tell. His hat and gun were found on the ice. It was in this way: they accused three Indians of his murder and brought them to his dead body to see if it would bleed. Folks held in those days that if a murderer were brought to the dead body of a person whom he had murdered the body would bleed. Well, now, as I recall the tale, when they brought the three accused Indians to the body of Sassamon, the body bled, although it had been in the lake a month or more. Of course they hanged the three Indians after the spirit of Sassamon himself was allowed to testify. What wonders there used to be! Cotton Mather tells about them in his 'Wonders of the Invisible World.' That book is out of print now!"

I once rode along the old Indian road which formerly traversed the country from Plymouth to the Mount Hope Lands. The scenery was magnificent. The sun glimmered through the forest trees, and the mirrors of the lakes, framed in dark pines, gleamed brightly. Nearly all the roots, barks, and herbs used by my good doctress in her forest pharmacy appeared in the by-ways, now that the magic bottle directed my attention to these vegetable benefactions. Here the hamamelis was blooming, the native remedy for poisons. The savins, the local remedy for "kidney

complaints," were dotted with blue berries. The sumacs and red alders brightened the dwarf pines. The walnuts were falling, and the sassafras displayed its bead-like nuts. Teaberries lined the gulches, and the wintergreen, famous for "purifying the blood," mingled its black-green leaves with the feathery prince's pine. The limbs of the black cherry trees were full of dried berries, as were the bushes of wild plums, of whose fruit the finest of jellies are made. "Pussies" glimmered in the swale meadows, among the wild cranberries and purple gentians. Here and there were patches of Indian pipe, the old remedy for convulsions. The marsh-mallows, apple Peru, pigeon-berry or poke, deadly nightshade, osiers, laurels, blue flag,—all suggested the household names for old remedies whose virtues the patient people had tested in their homes.

On the east shore of Lake Assawomset, at a place called "Betty's Neck" (from Mercy Felix Tupaquin, an Indian princess, whose lodge was there), once lived Lydia Tupaquin, a famous Indian doctor. She lost her life by falling into the lake from one of the wooded bluffs while searching for herbs. Her manner of death is a folk-lore tale, as is also the tradition that some of the descendants of the Indian accusers of John Sassamon, whose daughter lived on "Betty's Neck," were doomed to be drowned in the lake.

Another folk-lore story of the lake road relates to Lydia Tupaquin, who caused two snakes to roll over and die by giving them a quid of tobacco apiece, which she did presumably from the point of a stick, or by causing tobacco juice to fall upon them.

The Hampden legend is associated with the old Indian trail from Plymouth to Sowams (now Warren, R. I.) and the Mount Hope Lands.

Governor Winslow, in his "Narrative," relates some of the traditions of this old road. One, the veracity of which has been criticised or denied, relates that John Hampden, the great Parliamentary leader, passed over the way with Edward Winslow and an Indian guide to visit Massasoit at Sowams. The great Commoner, according to the story, helped to nurse Massasoit back to health and received the forest king's gratitude. It is supposed that Hampden came secretly to Plymouth in 1621 to secure a place of

refuge for the English patriots in case their cause should fail. This accords with the local tradition. Lord Nugent, however, makes no mention of such an event in his "Memorials of Hampden," and yet the legend is a part of the remarkable lore of the old homes on the Indian road. We are told how astonished Phineas Pratt was to find Hampden at Plymouth, and how he exclaimed "Art thou here, O Hampden?" Bicknell, in his history of Barrington, R. I. accepts the legend, as do certain English writers.

The scene of Winslow and Hampden under the great oaks of Sowams, by the glimmering arm of the Narragansett, ministering to Massasoit, the friendly forest king, might tempt the pen of a poet or the pencil of an artist. I have often seen this scene so treated in my mental vision and have hoped that a monument near Hampden Meadows (near Warren and Barrington, R. I.) might be erected in honor of the chief who protected the Pilgrims.

Another great legend associated with this part of the bright waterways is the destruction of Tuspaquin, who married the daughter of Massasoit. He and his warriors made their last stand on that part of the shore of Assawomset Lake where "Sampson's Tavern" now stands, and near which place presumably John Sassamon was murdered. They were defeated by Church, and word was left with their families that Tuspaquin would be spared if he would surrender to the authorities at Plymouth. Tuspaquin repaired to Plymouth, was arrested, and executed. It would be interesting to know what became of his wife, the daughter of Massasoit. The battlefield, over which towers "King Philip's Lookout," is reached from Lakeville station on the Old Colony railroad, and is one of ideal beauty.

There still lives on the borders of the Assawomset a family of the royal blood of Massasoit and Tuspaquin. The family name is Mitchell, and their lodges are at Lakeville, in the primitive woods, some seven miles from Middleboro, and five miles from Lakeville station. They are people of excellent character, good education, and possessed of an extensive knowledge of Indian folk-lore. E. W. Pierce, of Freetown, Mass., has caused their family history to be published. One of its members, a worthy Christian woman of great vigor of character, recently died at the age of ninety-one years.

The traditions of this Indian family are very curious. I heard Mrs. Zeruah Gould Mitchell relate some of them when she was nearly ninety years old. I will give one of them, as far as I can recall it, in her own language:

"My father was a king. [She used to speak of her great ancestor, Massasoit, in this way, after her mind became a little unsettled by old age.] When King James heard that my father had protected the Pilgrims in the wilderness, his heart was moved towards him, and he sent to him a present of a silver pipe. Among all his treasures this present from his brother king over the sea was prized the most by my father. But Massasoit was a just and a generous man. He thought that the choicest of his treasures should be bestowed upon the noblest Indian in the tribe. Once upon a time a Pokonoket warrior did such a noble deed that my father, the forest king, thought that he should be given the silver pipe, the present from King James, the English king over the sea; so he gave the silver pipe to the warrior, who guarded it in his lodge. [This may have been at Sowams or in the Mount Hope Lands.] The warrior died, and it was the custom among the Wampanoags to bury the choicest treasures that a brave possessed with his body. But the wife of this great warrior coveted the silver pipe. She wished to keep it for herself, for it was the gift of two kings. So she concealed it and withheld it from the grave. She hid it under a rock in the woods near the cabin. To do this was to rob the soul of the dead. The spirit of the warrior could not rest while this treasure was wanting in his grave. One evening the squaw went out to the rock where she had hidden the silver pipe, uncovered the moss where she had laid it, and was about to put her hand upon it when it moved away. She reached out for it again, but it moved away. Again, but it moved away. Then her heart was stricken with terror and melted with fear. She made one more effort to recover the kings' pipe, when she beheld a dark hand in the moss. It was a spectre hand, and it was laid upon the pipe. She started up, and, looking upward, promised heaven that she would bury the pipe if she could be allowed to lay her hand upon it. Then the spectre hand vanished, and the pipe lay still, and she took it up and buried it in her dead warrior's grave."

The story of the "Copper Chain," a peace gift from the Pilgrim Fathers to Massasoit, belongs to this class of legends of the Pilgrim country.

Another story relates that once, when Edward Winslow visited Massasoit at the Mount Hope Lands, the forest king sent a runner to Plymouth to tell the people that Winslow was dead. The next day Massasoit and Winslow appeared on the hill overlooking the settlement. The people ran out to meet them.

"Why," they asked Massasoit, "did you send us word that Winslow was dead?"

"To make you more glad to see him!" said the king. "It is our custom."

We have spoken of the hidden flora of these enchanting woods, which are not to be seen from car windows. Let us speak of one of the birds that inhabited the giant trees of these solitudes in Indian days, and that have never left it. Its nests greatly excite the wonder of visitors who come from places remote from the coast.

Mrs. Hemans wrote in her "Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers"—

"The ocean eagle soared
From her nest by the white waves' foam."

Doubtless the "ocean eagle" of the poem is the osprey, or fishing eagle, a bird with dark wings and white breast, that seems like a spirit of the summer air, as it wheels and screams in the blue skies. It builds a nest of sticks in ancient trees near friendly houses, but goes south with its young in the fall, and its return to the old nest in the spring is hailed with delight by the farmer as he hears the wild, joyous scream at his barn door or at the well-sweep. The osprey is said to bring good luck, and the house near which it builds its nest is favored by the good spirit of the air. Under the influence of this tradition the farmers have come to protect it, and it has thus become as friendly as the bluebird. The osprey's nest grows with years until it may contain nearly half a cord of wood. The old birds go fishing daily, and their coming and going is watched with interest. It is said that when its nest is disturbed by strangers the bird flies to the farm house and screams for protection. The osprey is the stork of New England household tradition, and is as sacred as the glossy swallow that haunts the wide chimneys.

There is an old colonial home in Kings-

ton, near Plymouth, which has the true Forefathers' angles and coloring. Its withered shingles were covered with glowing vines when I saw it last. It was built about 1675, by the descendants of Elder Brewster, the Pilgrim. The house contains (or contained) Elder Brewster's Bible, and a looking-glass that came over in the "Mayflower," into which probably all the Pilgrims, and possibly John Robinson himself, have looked. What a vision we would have if that glass could give back all the faces it has reflected! A Hawthorne might have made of it a magic mirror. The house has many relics of Pilgrim days which recall the vicissitudes of those who left English luxury to face the hardships of the New England wilderness. "The Israelites murmured for the flesh pots of Egypt," said one of the old Precisioners of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, "but I never knew a New England Pilgrim who in his darkest day ever expressed a wish to return to England again." The view was true of even the children of the colonists.

An interesting character to be found in the Old Colony woods is the collector of Indian relics. He has the genius of reading ancient history in the sand and gravel-pits and along the tide-eaten reaches of the shore meadows. He sees arrow-heads and Indian axes and wampum that common eyes do not see. He finds Indian mills. He makes collections of these relics, and adorns his home with them, and goes behind history in fireside narratives. A Mr. Sanford in Lakeville has eight thousand arrows and Indian implements. Among them is a "stunner," an arrow dulled so as to render the victim senseless, but not to destroy life. Mr. Sanford's collection embraces arrows from all parts of the country.

As I have said, this country of the arbutus, laurel, and holly, of magic herbs, ancient traditions, and arrow-heads, is best reached from the railroad stations of Middleboro or of Lakeville, on the Old Colony railroad from Boston to Fall River and Newport, but the trip one way should include a journey on a Plymouth or Provincetown steamer along the South Shore. The Old Colony woods is a holiday land which the public will some day be sure to find, and its charm, once found, will never lose its spell.

HEZEKIAH BUTTERWORTH.

BOSTON.

THE MEN BEHIND THE GUNS

BEFORE me as I write lies a square of fine dark cloth decorated with three scarlet stripes under an anchor and an eagle, both beautifully worked in white silk. These symbols, which are worn on the left sleeve, are the insignia of the captain of a thirteen-inch gun; the three stripes signify three cruises. A new stripe is added for every cruise, which, as a rule, takes place only once in three years; therefore the gunner who is entitled to wear this particular bit of embroidered cloth must have served nine years in the navy.

"The men behind the guns, and the officers behind the men," said a gray-haired admiral when Cervera's fleet was annihilated. "The gunners did the trick," cried a young officer fresh from the memorable chase of the "Cristobal Colon." The brief victorious war with Spain has established the supremacy of the American gunner and proved the wisdom and foresight of the Navy Department in providing the torpedo station at Newport, R. I., and the gunnery school at Washington, D. C., for the special training of young men in the chemistry of high explosives, electricity, range-finding, and the construction and management of torpedoes. Lads from the training-ships who have had the experience of a couple of protracted cruises, and give promise of making good ordnance officers, are generally the ones who receive this course of instruction, which is covered by seventeen or eighteen weeks at the gunnery school and six months at Newport, though even a "chief gunner" is obliged to return to the torpedo station from time to time for further instruction in order to keep pace with the constant progress made in the manufacture of projectiles and electrical appliances.

The gunnery school originated on March 25, 1882, when a class of six young seamen were ordered to the Washington Navy Yard for instruction in ordnance and practical experience in the shops. Since that time the number has gradually increased until at present there is a class of fifty. The whole Navy Yard is practically used as a school, and there is no regular school building, but part of the seamen's quarters is set apart for a mess-room and dormitory. The first floor is used as a

gun-room, and is stored with piles of shells and rows of wicked muzzles, from the great thirteen-inch rifle to the spiteful automatic guns throwing four hundred shots a minute, like a geyser spouting lead. Upstairs is the dormitory, with polished floor, curtained windows, and long rows of neat beds.

The gun-shop is, however, the place where "Jack" learns his principal lessons in constructing a gun, beginning with the crude ore and following its conversion into iron and steel, its forging, tempering, annealing, and the processes which increase its tensile strength and reduce its brittleness. All this is done in a long iron structure which stands a little apart from the other buildings in the Yard, and shelters the expensive machinery required in the manufacture of ordnance.

It takes from six to eight months to complete a single gun of large calibre, and none but the best tools are used. The rough metal is first turned down to its proper dimensions, each piece is carefully measured after every cut, and if any flaws are discovered it is at once rejected. A thirteen-inch gun consists of thirteen pieces, the tube, the jacket, and eleven hoops. The combined weight is 136,000 pounds. Immense machines are needed to handle such an enormous mass of metal, and the tube, when finished, is lifted by a great crane with a capacity of 400 tons, and placed vertically in the shrinking-pit, which is nothing more than a large hole in the earth, containing the furnaces for heating the various parts. The jacket, which has been heated, is lifted from the furnace and lowered over the tube. When in position a cold spray is directed on it, and as it rapidly cools it takes a firm grip on the tube. When the jacket has cooled it receives the hoops by the same process. This is called "assembling the parts," and when finished the gun is rifled, fitted with a breech-plug, and is ready for the carriage, which meantime has been constructed in another shop near by with equal care; for the brackets supporting the gun must be braced without adding unnecessary weight, the cylinders that take up the recoil must be tested, and every part must undergo a tedious process before it passes the keen eyes of the inspectors.

Almost within stone's throw from the glowing furnaces where these mighty engines of destruction are forged stands the Museum, a favorite resort with the young sailors under instruction at the Yard, who find a limitless amount of fuel for their patriotism within its somewhat shabby walls, lighted by small, old-fashioned windows, and surrounded with guns of ancient pattern. Its interior is eloquent of historic deeds, for there are preserved the rusty sword that belonged to Paul Jones, the blade worn by Commodore Perry, fragments of the "Bon Homme Richard," and a great number of equally glorious naval relics.

There is also a shell house in the Yard, and a laboratory where the future chief gunners are taught the chemistry of explosives preparatory to the more ambitious course of experimental study awaiting them at Newport. When the young gunner has passed his final examination at Washington he is promoted to the rank of "seaman gunner," and after a few days' leave is ordered to Newport to take up practical electricity in all its branches, torpedo work, and diving.

The torpedo station has a very interesting history. It is situated on Goat Island, a narrow strip of land at the entrance of Newport Harbor, and its occupation by the Navy Department was authorized by the Secretary of War July 29, 1869. It was originally purchased from the Indians—who called it "Nanti-Sinonk"—May 22, 1658, and at a later date was sold to the colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations by Benedict Arnold. In 1701 the Assembly voted £150 for the building of a fort on the island, naming the work Fort Anne. Some years ago divers at the torpedo station discovered the remains of an old wreck half-buried in the mud at the bottom of the harbor, believed to have been a Spanish privateer sunk by the guns of Fort Anne during Queen Anne's War, 1702-1713. Vases, pike-heads, wine-bottles, a water-jar, and six cannon were recovered at different times from its decaying timbers.

In 1730 the little wave-washed fort became Fort George, and the year 1734 ushered in the legendary tragedy which still lends an air of romance to the place. Owing to its conspicuous position at the harbor mouth a lighthouse was erected on the island's highest point to guide incoming ships over the bar. Attached to the

beacon was a small stone dwelling in which the lighthouse-keeper, Tim Carr, lived with his daughter. Tradition pictures him as a powerful man, of great height, massive frame, and forbidding manners, extremely reticent about his past, discouraging the friendly advances of his Newport neighbors, and bearing upon his weather-beaten face several unsightly scars that had evidently been inflicted by a cutlass. Dark stories were whispered of a time when he sailed under the "Jolly Roger" and left many a scuttled ship to sink behind him with murdered crew and plundered cargo. These tales were strengthened by the fact that his pockets were always well lined with gold when he came to the mainland for his weekly supplies of provisions and New England rum, which he imbibed freely. After a convivial afternoon in the town his deep voice could be heard roaring over the water as he rowed back to the beacon:

"I lean my head on a cask of brandy,
And fancy leads me I know not where,
For while I'm drinking I'm always thinking
How I can win that sweet lady fair."

No man in Newport could drink deeper, swear harder, or sing louder than Tim Carr. About a year after his arrival as keeper of the light, a large full-rigged ship was seen rounding the point one clear summer morning. An incoming vessel was by no means rare, but the appearance of the stranger excited immediate curiosity. Her towering masts rose gracefully from a jet-black hull, along which a length of polished copper flashed like gold in the sun with every undulation of the waves, and while her rakish lines, snowy sails, and the dazzling whiteness of her paint-work indicated a man of war, no guns were visible, and she displayed no colors save a small dark-blue pennant at the fore truck. Three miles to the windward of Goat Island, and opposite the beacon, she furled sail and dropped anchor, an unusual proceeding, as it was customary for arriving ships to anchor well within the harbor and there await the coming of the harbor-master. A thrill of superstitious fear agitated the town, tales of phantom ships passed from lip to lip, and the nervous excitement became so great that a grizzled pilot who scoffed at ghostly conjectures volunteered to pay a visit to the mysterious stranger. He was seen to row out to the ship, hail her, mount the sea-ladder, and disappear

over the side. A boat containing four men visited the lighthouse, after which the ship weighed anchor, hoisted sail, and put to sea, and the ultimate fate of the old pilot could only be guessed in after years when the true character of the vessel became known. Tim Carr, when questioned, declared that he knew nothing of the stranger, and that the four sailors had merely visited him for information regarding shoals and dangerous places.

The night of January 13, 1739, was one of storm and terror along the Atlantic coast. Wind and water and freezing cold combined forces against the hapless seafarer. Anxious eyes on shore turned toward the beacon at nightfall, but it was burning steadily above the clouds of icy spray, though there were some who fancied that the yellow glare was a little astern of its usual place. Before morning deeper sounds were heard than the steady boom of the waves, and daybreak revealed a great vessel on her beam ends, pounding to pieces on the rocks of Goat Island. It was the mysterious stranger, the "black ship," as they had come to call her. She proved to be a pirate and the property of Tim Carr, whose greed for ill-gotten gold had led him to extinguish the light and erect another a mile away in the hope of luring a rich prize to destruction. Fifteen of the crew had perished, the rest were hung on the same gallows with him.

In 1774 the Assembly ordered that Fort George be dismantled and the guns sent to Providence for safety. During the Revolution the old fort was called Fort Liberty by the Americans, although the English, while occupying Newport, still retained the old name. In 1784 it became Fort Washington, and in 1798 Fort Wolcott, in honor of Governor Oliver Wolcott. While the Civil War lasted it was occupied by the Naval Academy.

The torpedo station was founded with the view of training a number of officers and men (the Torpedo Corps) in the use of all kinds of torpedoes and their accessories. It was also intended that to this place as headquarters should be confided the defence of the entire coast. Two years later an Act of Congress divided the general subject of torpedoes, and that part relating to stationary torpedoes (usually called submarine mines), was assigned to the Engineer Corps of the army.

It was through the torpedo station that electricity was introduced into the navy and became such an important factor in gunnery. Every gunner must now be an expert electrician, and be able not only to handle the complicated electrical gear of the new guns, but to repair the batteries as well. The apparatus for test and experiment at the station is very complete, including steam generators and engines, dynamos of various makes, and a well-equipped laboratory to which heavy currents are conveyed by underground conductors. Even the ferry launch "Wave" is lighted by a small turbo-electric generator making nine thousand revolutions to the minute.

The use of high explosives is also a constant subject of experiment, and nitroglycerine, dynamite, explosive gelatine, etc., are made and tested there. The long rows of finished torpedoes in the shops resemble an enormous catch of huge fish with double tails and great propellers in place of fins. Each individual performs the particular duty assigned him as quietly as possible, and voices are lower and footsteps lighter than elsewhere, for every man realizes that he is constantly surrounded by wholesale death. All the gun-cotton used in the navy is manufactured at the torpedo station, the plant for the purpose having been erected in 1881. On Rose Island, in the middle of Narragansett Bay, is kept a battery of light guns, where explosives for use in shells are tested in small quantities before passing to the proving-ground at Annapolis, and this gives the classes at the station plenty of practice. Two classes are trained each year, and from among their number are selected the specialists of the crew to care for the new appliances of warfare, the modern guns with their complicated carriages and gear, rapid-fire guns, gatlings, dynamos for ship-lighting, search-lights, electric motors for pointing the guns, etc. These were the gallant bluejackets who manned the batteries at Manila so successfully, and swept the mouth of Santiago harbor with such terrible precision.

Diving is also taught in all its branches, naval divers being unequalled in deep-sea work, and noted for their wonderful endurance under water.

The class of young seaman-gunners are instructed in high explosives and electricity in a picturesque little structure oddly

enough called the "Cottage," with a wide porch and daintily-curtained windows framed in a thick growth of ivy. Not all the gunners, though, who made notable shots in the war with Spain, were graduates of either the gunnery school or the torpedo station. In battle any intelligent marine or first-class seaman is likely to be called upon to man a gun. It is usually the duty of the marines to man the fighting-tops, and when Cervera's ships were destroyed the "Oregon" opened the battle with a shot from a six-pounder Hotchkiss operated by a marine named O'Shea. The first shot of the war came from the cruiser "Nashville," which was acting as a file-closer to Admiral Sampson's fleet, then on the way to Havana. It was fired by Michael Mallia, boatswain's mate and captain of the port battery on the upper deck, from a four-inch rapid-fire gun, on the morning of April 22, and brought down the prize, which was the Spanish steamer "Buena Ventura." Probably no better shot was fired during the whole war than that sent by Albert Morey, captain of the starboard after gun on the "New Orleans," when he dismounted a gun on Morro Castle, off Santiago, at a range of 6,000 yards. The cruiser "Marblehead" was in the thick of battle everywhere, and her executive officer, Lieutenant-Commander J. A. H. Nickels, is my authority for stating that her gunnery was exceptionally good.

"We were [said Commander Nickels] in a number of engagements at different times off Cienfuegos, Santiago de Cuba, and in Guantanamo Bay, when the guns were fired at ranges from 8,000 to 800 yards, and in every case the shooting was excellent. The shortest range of 800 yards was used while covering the parties in boats cutting cables at Cienfuegos, where large bodies of infantry were firing at them."

Patrick Hill, of Brooklyn, N. Y., was the star gunner of Dewey's fleet in the battle of Manila. For gallant conduct on board the "Concord" (of which he was chief gun-captain), that famous May morning, he was promoted, and at the same time was presented with a jeweled sword by the men of the fleet. The "Concord" was the first ship to answer the Spanish fire on entering Manila Bay, and with a well-directed six-inch shell rendered the shore battery at the harbor entrance *hors de combat*. Mr. Hill is now ordnance officer at the Manila Navy Yard, and lives in the quarters formerly occupied by a



JOSEPH HILL
(Chief Gunner of the "Maine")

Spanish general. He is also engaged in the work of raising Montojo's sunken ships and guns. Three brothers Hill, Joseph, Patrick, and Owen, are conspicuous in the navy,—an unusual quota of sons for one family to contribute to the service of the flag in times of peace, all three having entered the navy years before a war with Spain was considered even a remote possibility.

Joseph, the eldest, was noted as an expert diver when in training at the torpedo station. He was chief ordnance officer of the battleship "Maine" when she was destroyed in Havana Harbor, and was afterward one of the principal witnesses before the court of inquiry. Highly esteemed by his brother officers, and enjoying at all times the respect and confidence of his commanders, he may be regarded as the representative chief gunner of the navy, his rise to that responsible position having been unusually rapid, as he is now only twenty-eight.

Owen Hill, the youngest of the trio, and torpedoist of the "Iowa," was one of the first volunteers for Hobson's "Merrimac" venture, but missed being one of the famous seven. In the engagement

with Cervera's fleet no man in the American squadron came nearer death, and yet escaped without a scratch, than Owen Hill, who stood with his eye over the torpedo director waiting for the proper range, when an eight-inch shell from the Spaniards crashed through the "Iowa's" side a few feet away. The fragments flew in every direction but the lucky spot where he stood, and though the concussion was terrible he suffered only a slight momentary shock.

The last shot in the war was fired by the plucky little lighthouse tender "Mangrove," which, having failed to hear the news of peace, engaged a Spanish gunboat several times larger than herself some time after the armistice.

In addition to the gunnery school and torpedo station the old wooden ship "Lancaster" has also been fitted up as a gunnery training-ship. She was built in 1844, and gave an excellent account of herself in the Civil War. She is full-rigged, of 3,250 tons displacement, with a single screw, and engines of 1,000 indicated horse power, and is provided with a battery of ten five-inch rapid-fire guns, with a secondary battery of four six-pounder

Hotchkiss, two Armstrong six-pounders, two one-pound Driggs and Schroeder, and two Maxim automatic guns. She has a crew of ninety men besides those sent to her for instruction. These, of course, vary in number, and are generally apprentices and ex-apprentices from twenty to thirty years of age, who have not only shown themselves good shots, but whose records are excellent for good conduct. They are in charge of Instructor George W. Phillips, who is himself a graduate of the gunnery school and consequently very much in favor of this method of instructing men who are never likely to receive the higher training and scientific education of the school. "Here," he said, "we simply try to make perfect shots of them, with just enough knowledge of the mechanical part of the guns and mounts to enable them to handle and make slight repairs."

A few weeks' training on the "Lancaster" is much coveted by the men, being regarded as an advancement and reward of merit.

It is very interesting to watch the working of a thirteen-inch gun. The gunners are apportioned into divisions, and divisions into gun-crews, each man having his particular station and number, and performing the work called for by that number. Guns of five-inch calibre and above are entitled to a crew of twelve men, including two gun-captains. Those below that calibre get along with six men, counting one captain. Both captains superintend the loading and training, the second adjusting the sight and operating the breech-plug, while the first gun-captain sights and fires the piece. I have in mind the operation of a thirteen-inch turret gun one bright May morning. At the commanding officer's order, "Cast loose and provide!" the crew sprang to their various stations and buckled on their revolvers. The first gun-captain took his position, and though he issued his commands with the greatest rapidity they were as rapidly obeyed, all without either haste or confusion.

"Run out the battery,—open breech,—sponge,—up ammunition lift,—load shell,—load charge,—down ammunition lift,—close breech,—prime,—ready!"

The last order is given when the gun is loaded and the primer connected with the electric firing battery,—or, if percussion or practice primers are being used, with the



OWEN HILL

(First Torpedoist of the "Iowa")

lanyard,—and is the signal for all the crew to stand clear, as the gun recoils about fifty inches when fired. It is a curious fact that the shock of a small gun is much greater than that of a large one. The first gun-captain works the sights and levers controlling the motors for the horizontal and vertical training of the gun, and when he finds the proper range pulls the trigger which closes the electric circuit. A long tongue of red flame leaps from the muzzle, the deck trembles, and sky and sea seem to be splitting asunder with the roar of a thousand earthquakes rolled into one. Then the same operation is repeated until the bugle sounds "Cease firing."

It was an old-time custom for the gun-crews to strip to the waist in action, and this was revived in the stifling heat at Santiago. In any climate the crews invariably take off all superfluous clothing and bare their arms. The smoke and noise of the big guns have a narcotic effect when the firing is long continued, as in battle. In the several engagements in Cuba it was not unusual for the men to drop to the decks and instantly fall asleep as soon as the signal to cease firing was heard.

Some of the big guns are operated by steam, others by hydraulic power, a few of small calibre are fired by hand, but electricity is considered the most successful agent employed. The disappearing gun is not used in the navy, as it requires more space than can be spared aboard ship.

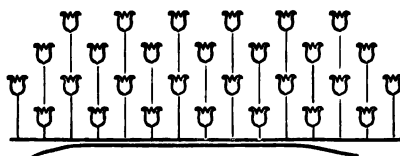
Contrary to popular supposition the chief gunner does no shooting at all, and I am acquainted with several of these officers who have never fired a shot in their lives except at a target. In time of war the chances of a chief gunner for history-making are very slight indeed, but he is nevertheless one of the most important officers on the ship. Before attaining the rank and excellent pay of a chief gunner

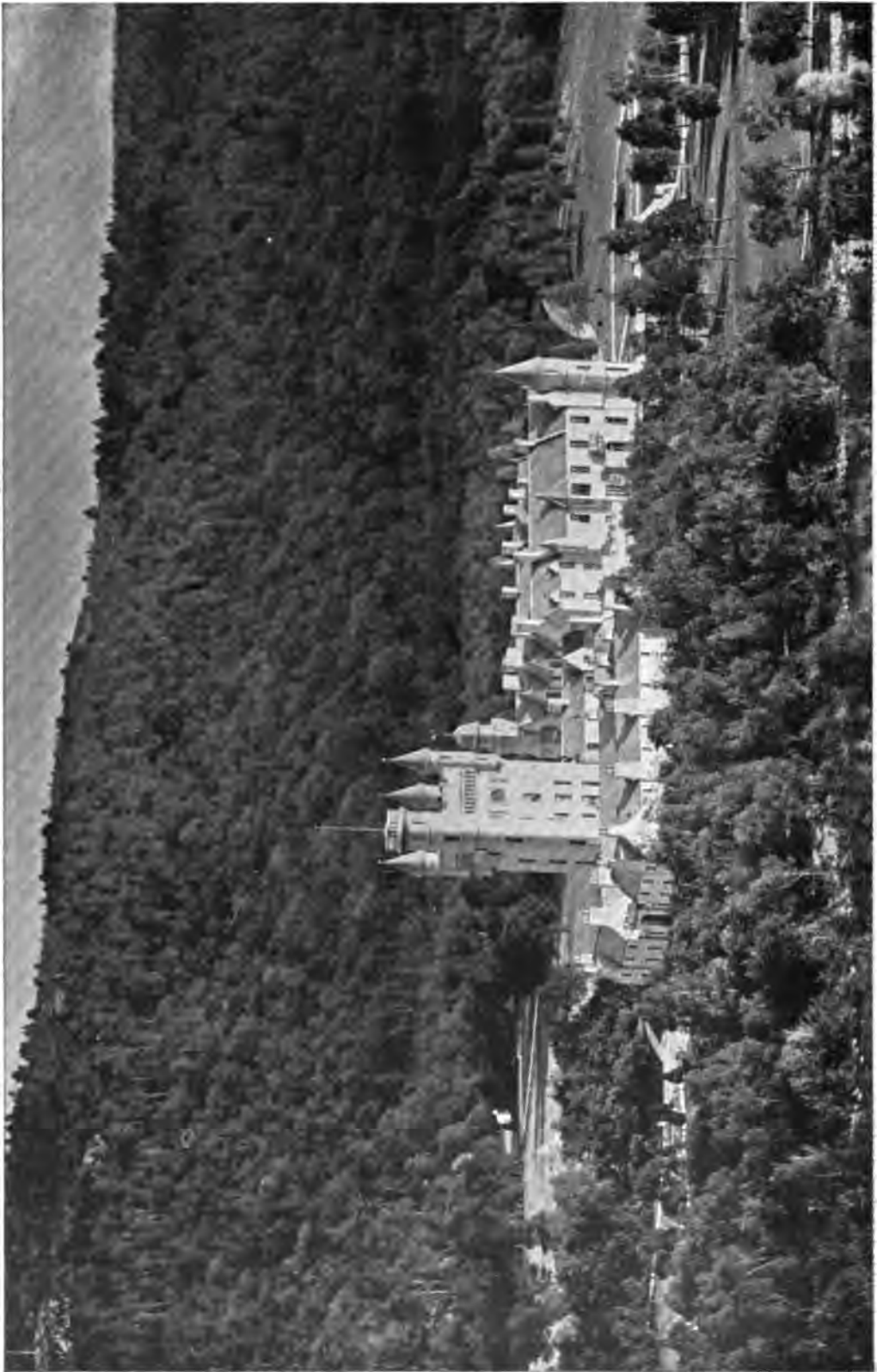
he must have a record for ability and proficiency above the average, and must pass a rigid examination in all branches of ordnance. He controls the "sinews of war," and is the head and brains of a system which must move with mechanical accuracy, and in which each man must work smoothly in concert with the rest, like part of a vast machine. His aids are the gunners' mates, each of whom has his particular duty: one or two in each turret; some in care of the rapid-fire battery; others to stand watch in the dynamo room and take care of the electric appliances; and a few in charge of those mechanical masterpieces, the automobile torpedoes. A chief gunner must be able to superintend the overhauling of the thirteen-inch turret gun and carriage, with its many hydraulic or electrical devices for handling ammunition; and it is part of his duty to see that the delicate adjustments of the torpedo are correctly made before launching. The receiving and proper storing of ammunition also comes under his supervision, and in action he has to see that the ammunition supply is working well. Besides this he must keep track of its expenditure, and all ordnance accounts and papers must be kept by him. This in itself means a considerable amount of labor, as weekly, monthly, and quarterly returns must be made out to the proper authorities. The chief gunner must also be able, should he be transferred to another ship, or should his ship be put out of commission, to turn over his books neatly kept and balanced up to date.

The passage of the Naval Personnel Bill has granted new and well-deserved privileges to our heroic seafaring defenders, and is the most acceptable reward they can receive from a grateful country for having so largely contributed to the success of a war which has placed our navy in the front rank of the navies of the world.

MINNA IRVING.

TARRYTOWN, N.Y.





BALMORAL (Scotland), THE FAVORITE RESIDENCE OF QUEEN VICTORIA

QUEEN VICTORIA AT EIGHTY

IN HIGH rank nothing can well be more fitting than observance of the old maxim, *Noblesse oblige*,—"Nobility binds to noble obligations." Few exalted personages have more truly and consistently governed their lives in obedience to this inspiring and elevating precept than has the gracious and now venerable lady who for two-and-sixty years has occupied, as she has graced and adorned, the British throne. Throughout the reign, though Queen Victoria has by no means been a lay figure in governing, it is but a commonplace to say that her people have had no quarrel with her on the ground of royal interference in the affairs of the nation; and naught have they known of that old-time regal bugbear, the assumption of divine right. On the contrary, to her subjects it has been the glorious distinction of her long and unparalleled reign—a reign that in a special degree has reflected the lustre of the sovereign's own stainless character—that the powers of the Crown have been deemed and acted upon as a trust for the people. Upon the truest principles of constitutional government has the Queen ruled, and this has



QUEEN VICTORIA (IN 1840)

borne rich fruit, not only in the large measure of peace and content which her people have long enjoyed, but in securing their loyal attachment to the throne and in inculcating reverence and affection for the person of the sovereign. What this changed attitude toward the monarchy in the past sixty years has done for the British nation, despite the increasing socialism of the age, and how it has deepened the sentiment of loyalty in the people, we do not need to look for evidence to such popular demonstrations, on a scale of colossal magnificence, as marked the two Jubilee years of 1887 and 1897. It is seen in the whole bearing of the populace, in the legislative reforms and the material prosperity of the nation, as well as in the pride of empire felt by every subject of the sovereign, whether imperialist or colonist. More emphatically, it is seen also in the patriotic spirit that infects every soldier, sailor, and volunteer in the empire, and inspires them to rally at all times to the call of duty, and to bleed, and if need be die, for queen and country. Nor is the influence of the sentiment of loyalty without trace of its effect in other fields than those of war. It has consolidated the nation, amplified liberty, and given solidarity to the race; and in politics, though



THE PRINCESS VICTORIA (AGED 10)

faction still menaces and contends, it has drawn the fangs of treason and made rebellion odious.

In the long record of Queen Victoria's reign there has, however, been more to take note of than loyalty to and reverence for the Crown. There has been affection

classes of the British people, and in this country have won for her the kindest interest, not unmingled with respect and even admiration. In our democratic Western world only historically are we concerned in the rule of kings and queens; yet toward the head of the British nation

— to the mass of our people the motherland of the race—we dutifully pay the respect which is the due at once of a queenly woman and a womanly queen.

Recent events, it is hardly necessary to say, have greatly increased the cordiality of this feeling in American breasts. But it is not only to-day that we have learned to revere England's queen and to be proud of the bonds of the heart that link together the two great English-speaking nations. We have an historic as well as a cousinly interest in the heritage of a Briton. Nor are we so much sundered in either sentiment or kinship that we may not shout, with the most patriotic "Britisher," *Vivat Regina!*



HER MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA (JUBILEE PORTRAIT, 1897)

for her Majesty's person and profound respect for her unblemished character and many and conspicuous virtues. Exalted as is her position and magnificent the extent and wealth resources of her imperial sway, her personal qualities and womanly virtues have been and are her chief glory. It is these characteristics that have in an exceptional measure endeared her to all

gina! and felicitate our cousins on the rule of a good and exemplary queen. Since the accession, in 1837, we remember the many beneficent legislative acts and reflect on the moral and material glories of her unexampled reign. We also remember the numberless eminent names, in every department of human thought and achievement, that have won for the

nation intellectual supremacy and given to English civilization its dignity and influence. Nor are we unmindful of other and nobler characteristics of the Queen's régime, especially of that feature of the reign that has caused the conscience and moral sense of the nation to respond to the cry of distress, no less than to the call of duty. This has found noble expression in the Victorian era both in the enactment of ameliorating laws and in the practical provisions of philanthropy. It has also found expression in caring for the rights of the people and, in countless ways, in contributing to their material and social well-being. To these acts of wise statesmanship, as well as to the redressing work of social and legislative reform, we on this side the Atlantic have not been indifferent. Still less are we, to-day at least, wanting in sympathy with that closer union of hearts which should knit nations that own a name-inheritance in common, and are, happily, twin factors in the work of civilization.

As the century draws to a close we are

reminded that there must come a time when the career of the Queen must also terminate. May the day be still distant when the Victorian era, with the records that belong to it, shall pass into the muniment-chamber of history! The years of the sovereign are, however, many, and a reign of over six lustrums is unique in the annals of a nation's governing. In celebrating her eightieth birthday, we, in common with all English-speaking peoples, extend our congratulations to Her Majesty and wish her many years yet of life and happiness, with continued peace and prosperity within her fair island kingdom and wherever the dominion extends under the ægis of Britain's flag and the benign influence of Victoria's rule.

Finally, when the shadows fall on that beautiful life and all the land is dark, mourning a nation's regal dead, then will the Laureate's apostrophe be fitting:

"Her court was pure; her life serene;
God gave her peace; her land reposed;
A thousand claims to reverence closed
In her as mother, wife, and Queen."

G. MERCER ADAM.

THE BOSTON SUBWAY

THE Subway of Boston is undoubtedly one of the most remarkable underground transit achievements in the world, not alone for the engineering difficulties successfully surmounted, but for the still more remarkable fact that this municipal undertaking, in these days of municipal construction scandals, was constructed for a sum less than that placed at the disposal of the Transit Commission by over two millions of dollars.

For many years strangers in Boston had gazed in astonishment at the bewildering blockades of traffic on Tremont and Washington streets, which seemed to paralyze business in those neighborhoods. The principal lines of street cars connecting the North and South Ends ran through those narrow thoroughfares, and the "jams" that hourly occurred in a distance of less than a mile delayed truck-drivers in delivering their freight, merchants in reaching their offices, travellers in catching trains, and messengers in the performance of their duties. Street cars and pedestrians, trucks and private carriages, herds and push-carts, were almost inextricably entangled, and it re-

quired the most patient endeavors of experienced policemen to unravel the tangle, only to repeat the process a few minutes later.

The consequences of such confusion were serious. Not only were some kinds of traffic entirely destroyed, but the hindrances to business actually drove trade from the city. Thus, about 1892, the people of Boston reached a point where they had to demand that which the more far-sighted among them had long realized must eventually be secured—some method of facilitating transit through this overcrowded section. But the engineering problems were tremendous. Careful calculation showed that any scheme for relief must solve the whole transit puzzle for the city. It must provide measures that would remedy the difficulty over a distance of one and two thirds miles, and take into consideration the facts that 32,000,000 passengers were yearly transported through the affected district, and that 5,600 street cars daily passed the corner of Tremont and Boylston streets, one of the centres of congestion. Whatever system should be



TEMPORARY TRACK OVER SUBWAY, SHOWING SOME OF THE
FORMER CONGESTED TRAFFIC

adopted must be capable of speedily and conveniently carrying 60,000,000 passengers per year under, over, or avoiding the narrow, tortuous streets in the centre of Boston. This meant that the process of building must not materially interfere with traffic, a necessity which became the most perplexing feature of the entire Subway project. Through a network of streets and alleys, often not more than twenty-five feet in width, thronged during the day with teams, cars, and pedestrians, and lined on either side with buildings, the work of excavating thousands of tons of earth, the placing of the requisite machinery, and the carting away of the excavated material, had to be prosecuted. A perfect maze of gas and water pipes, telegraph, telephone, and other electric wires was to be found. Three burial-grounds lay in the proposed course. Stat-

ues of noted persons stood at points directly in the line. There was the danger of disturbing the foundations of buildings, since in many cases the excavation must go within two feet of the walls. At first thought the creation of a four-track tunnel forty-eight feet wide, or even of a two-track tunnel of twenty-four feet, seemed, under the foregoing conditions, an impossibility.

The first action toward the construction of a subway occurred when, on the 1st of January, 1894, by authority of a legislative act passed in 1893, the mayor appointed three persons to constitute a "Subway Commission." These officials reported to the Assembly that the scope of the original act was not comprehensive enough. In consequence the Boston Transit Commission was established by chapter 548 of the Acts of 1894.

The Commission consisted of the three members of the Subway Commission and two others appointed by the governor of the Commonwealth, and it was organized on the 15th of August, 1894. George G. Crocker, a well-known lawyer, was made chairman, and Howard A. Carson, long identified with municipal building affairs, was selected as chief engineer. The Commission was authorized to expend \$7,000,000 in the construction of a subway under Boylston and Tremont streets, and under various short streets in the northern part of the city.

Prior to beginning actual excavations, some nine months had been devoted by a special board to the consideration of all possible avenues, courses, or systems looking to the relief of the congestion in the centre of the city. It was generally concluded that the route must extend from the vicinity of the new Union Station, on Causeway Street, on the north

side, southwesterly to the neighborhood of Tremont and Boylston streets, or near the old Public Library building. Among the various schemes proposed was the "alley plan," which advocated the running of an alley between Washington and Tremont streets. This was objected to on the ground that the value of the property to be condemned would amount to \$6,000,000, and that room for only two tracks would thus be provided, whereas four tracks were considered indispensable for a part of the way. Another idea contemplated the use, for car tracks, of a portion of the Common along Tremont and Boylston streets, but public sentiment was decidedly against this diversion of the public domain. In addition, the danger of accidents would be great, and the traffic in the crowded district about Scollay Square would not be relieved in the slightest. After fifty-one public hearings both public and expert opinion agreed that a subway would prove the most advantageous method of relief, notably in the following points:

The Subway would destroy but little property, while the widening of streets would render necessary the destruction of much. It would eliminate the dangers encountered by pedestrians in crossing tracks, a danger which would be increased in widened streets. It would increase traffic capacity by removing from the surface one important class of traffic. It would relieve the street from the posts and network of wires necessary to the overhead trolley system, thus removing a blemish, a danger to pedestrians, and obstacles to the work of the fire department. The rumble of wheels, the hum of motors, the clang of bells, and all other noises incident to the running of street cars, would be eliminated from the surface roads. The Subway would render it possible to run cars between stations at high speed with safety, a matter impossible on the surface, no matter how wide the street. By the use, at junction points, of a sub-subway, it would be possible to avoid the cross-

ing of one track by another at grade; thus avoiding delay and the danger of collision, and increasing the capacity of each track.

On the 28th of March, 1895, Chairman Crocker, in the presence of Governor Greenhalge, removed the first spadeful of earth at the site of the Public Garden entrance to the Subway, and the work of excavating proceeded without further formalities.

How to get rid of the dirt and gravel as it was taken out was a problem that kept engineers and contractors constantly worrying and scheming. To this end the "lap" system was employed. A bridge laid upon steel beams was erected before the entire volume of earth beneath had been removed. By the time this had been taken out, a new bridge had been pushed forward in the same manner as the first. Where practicable, derricks actuated by double-drum engines were located on either side of the trench, their booms covering the whole work for a distance of about 425 feet. The earth was shovelled into skips and loaded into carts. A great proportion of the excavated material was used in elevating grades on the Public Garden, in the building of sidewalks, and in other city undertakings. Much of the labor of bridging, propping, and setting of braces for the foundations of buildings had to be done at night, and it was often necessary to prohibit the running of cars on certain thoroughfares, especially



TWO-TRACK SUBWAY UNDER BOYLSTON STREET MALL,
BOSTON COMMON, LOOKING EAST

Tremont Street, for an entire night. The belated "rounder," on such occasions, had much difficulty in finding his usual "night-owl" conveyance, and frequently had to resort to a cab or to pedestrianism to reach his suburban home.

When the tunnelling had proceeded some 250 yards under the Public Garden,

was completed, the guardian of his progenitors was taken over to inspect this new repository.

"Now," said Dr. Green, "you can set a day, and the remains can be brought over and deposited here."

"What!" exclaimed the old gentleman. "Have that nice new tomb littered up with those old bones? Never! Close up the old tomb and let 'em be!"

Thus did he secure, without cost, a new family tomb.

The workmen experienced constant trouble with the gas mains, many of which broke at the slightest jarring. This was the cause of the terrible accident of March 4, 1897, when, at the corner of Tremont and Boylston streets, sparks from the wheels of a passing electric car, coming

in contact with the escaping gas, resulted in an explosion which caused the deaths of nine persons and the injury of several more.

When, during 1895 and 1896, a great bastion of earth extended along the Tremont Street Mall from Boylston Street to Park Street Church; a couple of puffing engines and a long tramway were established along the ridge; and a myriad of blue tip-carts and drays crowded the path of the proposed Subway in the vicinity of Scollay Square, Cornhill, Hanover Street, and Haymarket Square,—public opinion reached an uncertain stage. As one struggled through the throngs of Tremont and Washington streets, complaint was heard on all sides. Nor could it be wondered at. Tremont Street was almost impassable. In the neighborhood of Scollay and Adams squares several short streets had periodically to be closed to cars and teams. The constant clamor had some effect upon the more sober-minded, and helped to shake the faith of these latter that the Subway was to accomplish what was hoped for it. Suits were brought against the Transit Commission, and for a time the legal entanglements threatened to



EXITS AND ENTRANCES—PARK STREET STATION, LOOKING SOUTH

the old Common burial-ground, between Tremont and Charles streets, was encountered. A strong party of citizens had opposed the Subway plan because it would disturb this old graveyard, together with the Granary burial-ground, near Park Street Church, and that of King's Chapel at the corner of School and Tremont streets; as also certain statues and the foundations of memorable buildings. Many of the old tombs had to be destroyed, nevertheless, and Dr. Samuel A. Green, a former mayor, and Librarian of the Massachusetts Historical and Genealogical Society, was appointed to superintend the removal of the bodies. Under his direction the remains of 910 persons were transferred to new vaults erected in another part of the Common, but in the work he encountered many interesting experiences. One elderly man, of Scotch descent, made a great fuss over what he termed "the enormity of molesting the bones of his ancestors." After much argument, delay, and persuasion, the venerable Scot was induced to agree that if the city would construct a tomb according to his ideas, he would consent to the removal without causing further trouble. On the day the vault

stop the work of construction. It was during this trying period that the Commission displayed its innate merit. The plaintiffs were fought to a standstill, and the courts upheld the probity of the Commission. As carefully and judiciously as it could be done, explanations of the proceedings were promulgated, and every effort was put forth to convince the popular mind that affairs were going as well as could reasonably be expected.

Only the few who made a study of the work of construction as it gradually progressed could have an adequate appreciation of the trials that beset those who had this great undertaking in charge. In many localities scores of piles had to be driven to support the Subway floor. The walls were erected after a fashion calculated to make them endure for all time. Of an average width of four and a half to five feet, they consisted of: first, the back wall of concrete a foot or more in thickness, plastered and waterproof; then, two inches of ribbed tiling; next, four inches of solid brick backing; then, half an inch of cement mortar and half an inch of asphalt waterproofing; finally, three feet of concrete for the Subway wall, in which, at intervals of three feet, were placed the steel uprights, I beams fifteen inches in width. The roof was built twenty-four inches thick, and consisted of steel cross-beams twenty inches wide and three feet apart, the intervening spaces being brick arches. Wherever possible all steel and iron work was covered with cement, to render it as free as possible from danger of corrosion.

On the 1st of September, 1897, two sections of the Subway were far enough advanced to be thrown open to the public. On that day fully 200,000 persons went on a sight-seeing expedition. The majority was amazed at what it beheld. From that time until the entire Subway was opened, on the first of last September, no more fault-finding was heard. The public had come to realize that the most important work of the century, so far as Boston's traffic and transit facilities were concerned, was being brought to a successful completion.

The exterior evidences of the finished Subway are revealed in the eight entrance and exit stations situated along the Tremont Street Mall from Boylston Street to Park Street. Though considerable criticism has from time to time been passed on the architectural features of these structures, it hardly seems justified. Their walls of plain white granite, and severe roofs of glass and brass create, it is true, something of a mausoleum effect, if one vigorously attempts to exaggerate his view, yet, if the spectator stands upon the steps of Park Street Church and looks southward down Tremont Street, he can hardly say that the prospect is marred. The absence of the former string of stalled electric cars is gratifying in the extreme. At Scollay, Adams, and Haymarket squares the exit and entrance buildings are of unusually tasteful and ornamental design.

The interior displays everything that can operate for the safety and comfort of passengers. There is naught that suggests the dark, ill-smelling transit tunnels of London, Glasgow, or other European centres. In general appointments it is



SUB-SUBWAY UNDER TREMONT STREET, NEAR HOLLIS STREET, LOOKING SOUTH

believed that this tunnel is the most complete of its type in the world. Starting from the Public Garden entrance the car gradually descends a seventeen-foot grade for a distance of 318 feet to the tunnel mouth. The rails are of the heaviest pattern used for electric cars. The floor of the tunnel is covered with cement, as



TREMONT STREET, AT PARK STREET CHURCH, WITHOUT CAR TRACKS

are the side walls and roof. From this entrance to the corner of Boylston and Tremont streets, somewhat more than a quarter of a mile, the tunnel contains two tracks and is twenty-four feet in width and seventeen feet in height. Numerous niches in the side walls enable workmen to avoid passing cars. At Tremont and Boylston streets is a commodious station, the side walls here being faced with white glazed brick. The platforms will accommodate several hundred persons, and there are settees for waiting passengers and booths for the sale of magazines and newspapers. At this corner two tracks from the Shawmut Avenue or extreme southern end of the Subway debouch, but a grade crossing is avoided by a tunnel under the Subway, through which passes the track on which the southbound cars run. This is termed the "double barrel" plan. After going through the "barrel" the cars ascend an easy grade to the Subway floor. From this corner the tunnel (forty-eight feet in width) extends with four tracks to Park Street. From this point two tracks continue under Tremont Street to the Scollay Square station. Here there is a loop, one track passing down Cornhill and the other down Brattle Street to Adams Square. Thence the lines extend to Haymarket Square and on until they emerge from the Subway at Causeway Street in front of the Union Station. At Park Street station the tracks for cars that do not run north of

this point are connected by a loop. The same plan is followed for those tracks which do not extend south of Scollay Square.

The lighting service of the Subway is reinforced by connection with the mains of the Boston Edison Company, so that, if the street railway company's power is interfered with, a speedy substitute is available. The drainage system is thorough. Catch-basins at all the low points collect the water, which is thence drawn off into the regular sewers or into others specially constructed. At frequent intervals large fans, operating in commodious chambers, maintain a constant supply of pure air.

The estimates for the construction of the Subway provided for the expenditure of \$7,000,000, but the Boston Transit Commission has the proud distinction of turning over the work to the municipality (in whom the title is vested) for about \$4,800,000. The sum of \$3,800,000 was expended in construction, and \$1,000,000 in acquiring real estate. The necessary funds were raised principally by the sale of bonds. To the credit of the Commission let it be remembered that the undertaking was accomplished by men called out of busy professional and commercial fields, and in a period of three years and a half.

On the 7th of December, 1896, the Subway was leased to the Boston Elevated Railway Company, the successors of the West End Street Railway Company,

which controlled the street-car system of the city, for a term of twenty years. The annual rental was fixed at 4% per cent of the net cost of construction.

The Subway will undoubtedly prove as important in commercial inspiration and progress as it has already proved in practical transit advantages. This idea is now being illustrated. Because of the Subway an elevated railway system will

shortly be under construction. For several years this project has been discussed and advocated, but it required the building of the Subway to make possible the raising of sufficient capital and the securing of a franchise. Other municipal enterprises of lesser magnitude, yet none the less important, are also under consideration.

JOHN LIVINGSTON WRIGHT.

BOSTON.

THE BICYCLE AS AN EDUCATOR

DISREGARDING the influence of the bicycle on health, its most obvious advantage is the acquaintance which it affords with local geography. In units of time and exertion the bicycle has made three miles for its rider the equivalent of one for the pedestrian. Thus, the radius of accessibility has been lengthened so as to touch suburb and independent village instead of terminating in an immediate vicinity, uninteresting on account of its familiarity.

Ten years ago the geography of school days was promptly forgotten; travelling had become the art of killing time between cities of the first and second magnitude; "seeing the country" was beneath one's dignity, except as magnitude, grotesqueness, or prestige singled out some few mountains, rivers, and lakes; small towns were thought of only as circles on a railroad map, or as dividers of time and distance in a time-table. In the city, distance was measured by blocks of variable length; in the country, by miles of the most extraordinary elasticity. Through the general use of cyclometers, the sign-boards of clothing-stores and the numbers of houses have ceased to be the only available means of reckoning distance, and wherever one can find a wheelman he can be reasonably certain of a definite concept of distance and of a fair degree of familiarity with roads and streets, streams and railroads, hills and important buildings, of a considerable territory, urban and rural.

Geography and history are properly studied in association, and History has always had the annoyingly modest habit of locating her most important landmarks in out-of-the-way places. The bridge at Concord, the Common at Lexington, the old highway between the two villages, are

known to every schoolboy as marking the first open hostilities of the Revolution. Concord, too, is the nursery of a distinctively American literature and philosophy. But the monuments of that unique running battle; the homes of men and women whose names are still household words; Sleepy Hollow Cemetery, in which rest so many famous writers and thinkers of the early part of the century; and the still older burial-grounds of colonial days,—are accessible only by private conveyance, or, more conveniently, swiftly, and economically, by bicycle. It is no exaggeration to say that an afternoon's ride bounded by Concord and Lexington will afford topics for a year's study in patriotic history, American literature, statesmanship, and genealogy. A hundred such rides might be taken around Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and other historic American cities, each replete with suggestions for historic study.

Between Rochester and Syracuse is a stretch of the most beautiful and fertile farming land of the United States, but the through traveller is carried past it without the calling of a station. Note what one day's easy wheel ride in this *terra incognita* will yield to the student of history. He can visit the sites of two of the most important villages of the Iroquois confederacy: one destroyed by Denonville in 1687, when France was just beginning the attempt to force her way south of Lake Ontario; the other by Sullivan in 1779, when it became necessary for the rebellious colonies to check the inroads on their frontier by the savage allies of the British nation. He can see Genundewa, or Bare Hill, celebrated in the "Genesis" of the Senecas by a legend almost identical with that of Deucalion in the Greek mythology.

He can ride through the streets of Canandaigua, now "The Sleeping Beauty of the Lake," but formerly active enough as the place of treaty and arbitration between the early settlers of western New York and the last independent generation of the Senecas. He can see relics of Red Jacket, Corn Planter, and other Indians scarcely less notable. A few miles farther he can still trace earthworks thrown up by Sullivan, and old residents will point out the stumps of trees which only a few years ago showed the marks of bullets and cannon-balls. From this point he can turn to the old State road between Albany and Buffalo, along which General Scott retired from the Niagara campaign of the War of 1812, and see the house where the irascible young warrior tarried while his wound was healing. This road, along which the bicyclist is now almost the only through traveller, was once well worn by stage coaches and emigrants' wagons. Old as it is in the brief history of the State, it is but the broadened and straightened trail which the Indians had trodden for centuries before the advent of Caucasian civilization. In the same vicinity are several of the stopping-places of the party who conveyed Morgan, the traitor Freemason, on his last mysterious ride. Not far to the northward are the

meeting-houses of the orthodox and the Hicksite Quakers, both still in use, and one dating back almost to the beginning of the century. Turning eastward, still fresh for many miles, the wheelman can visit the house of Joseph Smith, and the hill from which he claimed to have dug the golden leaves of the Mormon Bible,—the starting-point of that remarkable religion which has so strongly influenced the political history of the West. Scarcely ten miles distant is the birthplace of another and still more modern cult, spiritualism, which has also become widely disseminated, though its influence has been shown rather in the lives of individuals than in the movements of an organized body. Most localities have their points of local historic interest, but there are not a few like the one described, bristling with suggestions to the student of general American history and which are reached most easily by means of the bicycle.

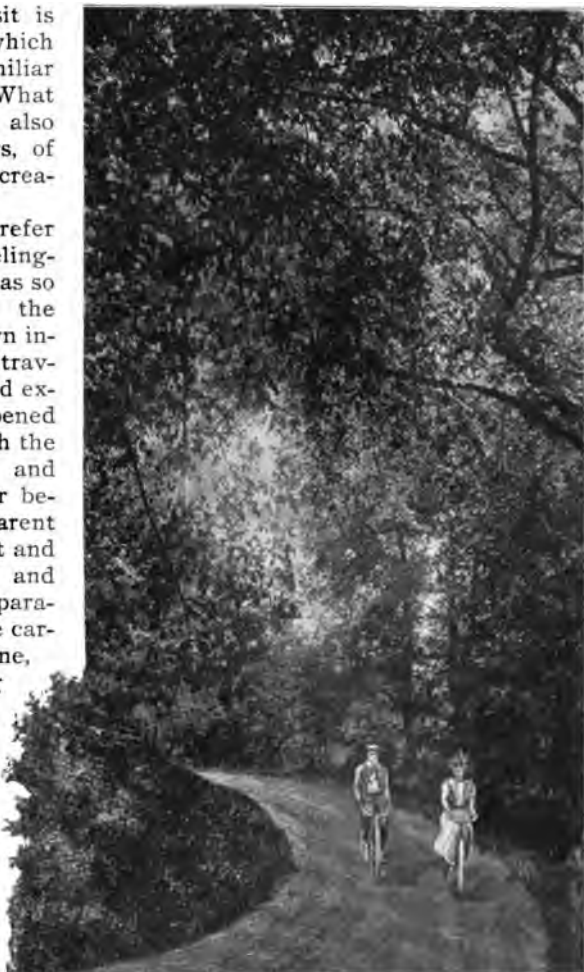
Accessibility is as important to the naturalist as to the historian. The botanist, wherever located, can scarcely expect a special dispensation of nature to place roadside, meadow, hill-top, forest, and swamp, with their varying flora, within walking distance of one another. His actual work must be done on foot or on hands and knees; but his appreciation of



BARE HILL

the bicycle as a means of transit is shown by the frequency with which one sees a wheelman with the familiar tin drum strapped on his back. What is true of the botanist holds good also for the student of birds and eggs, of serpents, insects, and other living creatures.

There is a strong temptation to refer to the Niagara frontier as a wheeling-ground for the historian, since it has so many landmarks connected with the extermination of the earliest known inhabitants by the Iroquois; with the travels of early French missionaries and explorers, including La Salle, who opened the Great Lakes to navigation; with the long contest between the French and English for supremacy, and later between the colonists and the parent country. But it is to the geologist and student of terrestrial mechanics and hydraulics that this region is of paramount interest. A short day's ride carries one from the Medina sandstone, almost the oldest of fossil-bearing rocks, through some ten or a dozen groups (according to the classification followed) of strata of varying consistencies and colors, and containing fossils as diverse as the ancient lobsters and crabs of the water-lime and the beginning of coal-plants in the more southern shales. A scorcher could easily prolong his ride to the true coal and oil bearing rocks, but the moderate rider can note in his shorter trip such developments of economic geology as quarries, cement-works, gas-wells, salt-wells, brick-works, and mineral springs. But most wonderful of all is the history of the Niagara, the river that existed in some form before the ice age, and whose old gorge can still be seen bearing off to the west from the whirlpool of the post-glacial river. Imagine a dam of ice and moraine rubbish strong enough to turn the stream at a right angle and to make it carve another channel through the solid rock. Imagine, too, the river, after many patient centuries of toil, wearing its falls back to the gorge of the pre-glacial stream, and then in a few years—or it may be months—tearing out the dirt, gravel, and boulders that had filled up this old gorge as far south as the falls of the pre-glacial river. Just where these pre-glacial falls were, no one



ARCH OF FOLIAGE—ROADWAY SKIRTING
CANANDAIGUA LAKE

knows, except that they must have been somewhere in the three miles separating the present falls from the old gorge at the whirlpool. Our modern natural geography is so largely the result of the tremendous changes of the age of ice, that it is like being permitted to view the handwriting of some ancient human hero to see and feel the markings of the glaciers on the rocks; to follow the natural highway, the "Ridge Road," along one of the old shelves of the beach of Lake Ontario; to note the submergence and emergence of beaches, due to oscillations in level of what we call *terra firma*; or to find a heap of gravel and boulders marking a spot where the glacier melted with unusual rapidity. About most of the Atlantic cities the wheelman can study the some-

what similar mechanics of ocean incursion or withdrawal, and the petty but no less instructive force of brook and creek is within the observation of almost every inland community.

On the bicycle itself might be based an elaborate course in natural philosophy. "Wheel and axle" are represented by the crank; the mathematics of bevel-gearing, in the new chainless safeties. The practical relations of sliding and rolling friction and the action of lubricants are illustrated in the bearings; the mechanical registration of motion and velocity, in the cyclometer and speed-indicator. The guidance of the bicycle depends on the development of a very delicate muscular sense of phenomena connected with unstable and neutral equilibrium. The pneumatic tire is superior to others, not because it is softer,—it really is not so yielding as the combination of cushion tire and spring frame formerly in vogue,—but because it makes a practical application of the perfect elasticity of a gas, and because it diminishes the weight of that part of the wheel which is in most rapid motion, and therefore most susceptible to inertia and most likely to present practical difficulties on account of momentum. In the construction of the wheel is exemplified the paradox of support by an arch under strain. Not until the bicycle came into use was there any general appreciation of the amount of energy consumed in faulty bearings or in opposing the resistance of the air. In the attempt to prevent punctures and to render their repair easy, various problems in mechanics, hydraulics, and chemistry have been placed in simple form before the unscientific person. True, the average wheelman does not appreciate, in using and repairing his machine, that he is studying natural philosophy; but his common sense, reasoning faculties, and mechanical ingenuity have all been increased, and he has become familiar with the use of such common tools as wrench, screwdriver, and hammer, which his grandfather could use very well, but which his father had almost forgotten. We must not forget that trade rivalry has led to the publication of various pamphlets containing information about the rubber and iron industries and the development of running-gear and of vehicles in general. Some of this literature has been crude and misleading, but the tendency has been toward accuracy

by reason of the sharp criticism of rivals; and many persons who would remain in ignorance but for the education due to the bicycle now understand the economic reason for calling our present civilization the "Age of Iron."

To the bicycle is also due a form of education difficult to express in words, but easily appreciated as of immense value in a country where there is much to fear from the extremes of sham aristocracy, of insolent democracy, and of lawless socialism. When bicycles were hard to buy and hard to ride, and wheelmen were correspondingly few, there existed an *esprit de corps* which was a modern repetition of mediæval chivalry. At that time two wheelmen meeting by chance were almost certain of friendly companionship, and there was a saying that "the man who could ride a wheel would not steal one, and the man who would steal one could not ride it." It is easy enough for the veteran rider to understand how the term and conception of chivalry should have their origin in the word for, and the pride and affection centring in, a steed. But this spirit, like its mediæval predecessor, had the great disadvantage of exclusiveness. To-day the wheelman is no longer sure of a knightly welcome from a stranger similarly mounted. The newspapers have repeatedly recorded acts of boorishness on the part of cyclists; and in many cases of accident the rider has sneaked away from responsibility, and left his victim without succor, in a cowardly fashion that cannot but arouse a regretful longing for the days when the cyclist was a gentleman in the best sense of the word. On the other hand, we must reflect that for every such example the wheel has broadened the life and experience of ten who without it would be limited to surroundings whose every association and suggestion has a downward tendency. Not long ago the average resident of the city knew nothing of the country except the melodramatic and antiquated notions derived from the "Third Reader" or the stage. The countryman, on his occasional visit to the city, was tempted to the lowest dens of iniquity, not so much from natural inclination as because vicious literature and descriptions had given him to understand that the wickedest part of the great city was at once the most attractive and the most characteristic. This mutual misconception did not, of course, extend to

those, either in city or country, who were free to travel, but it pervaded the very large class of society who are mainly dependent for locomotion on their feet, the street car, and the bicycle. Now that the city youth visits the country almost weekly, he has learned that the farmer is not a picturesque attachment to a scythe and a hand-rake, but that he is a progressive business man, watching the markets keenly, and quick to appreciate labor-saving machinery, including the machine *par excellence*,—the bicycle. On the other hand, the farmer, entering and traversing the city by wheel, has learned that the market-place toward which he was compelled to take the most direct route with his slowly moving wagon, and the slums which are usually convenient to the depot, are but minor factors in city life. Each finds, as the other becomes more accessible, that there are fewer essential points of difference on which to support a local prejudice, and already a decided check has been placed on the tendency to deplete the country in the interests of the city.

The breaking down of lines of prejudice is seen in another way. Ten years ago the indifference or malice of drivers of horses was a serious danger to cyclists; but to-day, in spite of the growth of all kinds of traffic in proportion to the natural increase in population and the unprecedented development of a new use for the streets, it is actually safer for a wheelman or a timid and inexperienced driver to pass through the throng of other vehicles than it was ten years ago. This is not

merely due to municipal legislation regarding the use of the streets, although such legislation is but an echo of popular sentiment, but to the fact that the bicycle has become the vehicle of the masses, and the recognition of the needs and rights of others has become instinctive to all but the most degraded drivers.

Before the advent of the wheel it was said with much truth that public parks, botanical gardens, zoölogical gardens, and similar institutions were accessible mainly to the class of society which did not need them. To-day, largely through the wide use of the bicycle, these municipal investments are bringing liberal returns to the great mass of the people. To appreciate the tremendous importance of this single fact, one must consider not only the positive benefits which such institutions confer, but the evil associations for which they have been substituted.

Finally, to the credit of cyclists it should be said that there has never been more than a personal and unsuccessful effort at dragging the bicycle into politics. Cyclists have long been organized for mutual protection and advancement, but they have never gone beyond the legitimate pursuit of constitutional rights; they have never sought a concession that was not just and in the interests of the general public; and they have never tried to take vengeance even on those who labored in the past to deprive wheelmen of the rights which the common law guarantees to every citizen. A. L. BENEDICT, M.D.

BUFFALO, N. Y.

MUNICIPAL FRANCHISES

THE term "municipal franchise," as popularly used, may be defined as a municipal grant to a public-service corporation of a power, license, or permit to engage in an enterprise of a public nature and to use public property or facilities in its execution. The enterprise must supply a want universal among the citizens, or so nearly so as to be of a general and public character; or it must require the employment of extraordinary powers and privileges beyond those pertaining to individuals or private corporations. The powers and privileges granted are such as the municipality must itself exercise or

delegate to a public-service corporation, as distinguished from those private rights and privileges which belong to all. Lawyers have preferred in this connection the term "license" as more accurate and definite in meaning than "franchise." A corporate franchise is, strictly speaking, the right of those who compose it to be and act as a corporation, or its right to exercise public or quasi-public functions and collect tolls or compensation therefor. A municipal license, on the other hand, is a grant by a municipality to a public-service corporation of a power or privilege to enter upon and use public property, without

conferring upon the corporation any estate or interest in such property, or even its exclusive use. This license, like a real-estate license, is generally regarded as revocable, unless it has been in part performed by an investment under its requirements. Thus, strictly speaking, corporate franchises are granted by the State, and municipal licenses are conferred by the municipality. However, in



EDWIN BURRITT SMITH

popular speech the term "municipal franchise" has come into general use as synonymous with "municipal license," and it is so used in this discussion.

Public enterprises are many and various. They include, with others, the post-office, lighthouses, life-saving stations, river and harbor improvements, canals, highways, bridges, asylums, hospitals, almshouses, universities, schools, streets, sewers, ferries, docks, markets, parks, museums, libraries, water-works, street railways, gas and electric lighting plants, power and heating plants, and police and fire departments. Most of these are undertaken and maintained by the government without the intervention of public-service corporations. Almost every municipality owns, maintains, and manages its streets. It paves, cleans, lights, and sewers them. It removes ashes and garbage. It owns and maintains parks, museums, libraries, schools, hospitals, almshouses, and police and fire departments. It often owns and

controls docks, ferries, markets, and water-works. More and more municipal corporations own and operate electric and gas plants. They now more than threaten to acquire, own, and even operate street railways and telephones.

The tendency has long been toward what is now called the municipalization of public utilities, or the public ownership and operation of public enterprises. This movement has so far progressed that it is too late effectively to raise the cry of socialism to prevent consideration of public ownership on its merits in any given case. There is, however, now in progress a sharp discussion as to whether a definite line may be drawn between public and corporate control and operation of these enterprises. This controversy is due to the great value of municipal franchises in rapidly growing cities, to the corruption as yet incident to the municipal employment of public-service corporations, and to the rising interest in public administration which is leading to a general attempt to recover representative government.

Those who favor the retention of the public-service corporation contend that a line can be drawn beyond which public ownership may not go. Thus Mr. Allen Ripley Foote* contends that the municipality exercises functions, while citizens and private corporations carry on industries. He says:

"Government occupies the domain of the functions: individuals occupy the domain of industry. Governments are supported by taxation; individuals, by industrial incomes or earnings. Services rendered by the government are paid for by taxation. Services rendered by individuals are paid for by those to whom the service is rendered. . . . A government is a political corporation. . . . [It] has no industrial capital. Its treasury is supplied, not by payments for services rendered in the industrial sense, but by involuntary contributions collected as taxes, [which are not to be capitalized and kept unimpaired but] are intended to be dissipated by paying for non-industrial service, such as the teaching of public schools and the protection of life and property by the police and fire departments. . . . A public-service corporation is an industrial organization [whose capital] is designed to be maintained unimpaired, to be augmented, and to earn dividends by supplying industrial services as commercial commodities, to be paid for by the users, such as a supply of gas or electricity for light, heat, and power, and the transportation of persons and property."

* *Municipal Affairs*, for June, 1897.

Mr. Foote also says:

"Members of a political corporation are citizens, not shareholders. The voting power is based on manhood, not money. Members of a business corporation are shareholders, not citizens. The voting power is based on money, not manhood."

From this he argues that those are in error who seek to have the municipality regarded as a mere business corporation in which the citizens are shareholders.

Mr. R. R. Bowker,* the well-known and able executive of the New York Edison Company, makes the test or "line of division between municipal and private enterprise" whether it exists to supply natural or manufactured products. He says:

"Water supply is the distribution of a natural product. . . . The production of gas or electricity is, on the contrary, a most complicated process of manufacture, especially requiring skilled labor and directive ability. Coöperative production has failed more than once where coöperative distribution has succeeded."

Mr. Bowker also tries to distinguish "between free and commercial service." On this he says:

"The streets are free. Sewerage is free. Water supply is partly free and partly paid for in water 'rates' or taxes. . . . Street lighting is free; commercial lighting is individually paid for; but each costs less to produce or distribute when combined with the other. Possibly the line of municipalization should be drawn at supplies which are wholly or chiefly free."

These quotations are sufficient to illustrate the difficulty of the attempt to draw any line between municipal and commercial service. There is a clear distinction between public enterprises and private corporations. No such distinction between enterprises conducted by municipalities and those committed to public-service corporations exists. The truth is that no line between municipal and commercial service, which should always and everywhere prevail, can be drawn. It settles nothing to say that the municipality occupies the domain of functions, and the public-service corporation the domain of industry. It is scarcely more decisive to say that municipal enterprise may supply natural products while manufactured products should be left to the public-service corporation. It does not follow that every service rendered by the municipality should be free because many are so. There are few, if any, public ser-

vices which are of equal utility to all the citizens. Many must be wholly supported by taxation because it is impracticable to collect rates of individuals for their use. But the municipality, as well as the public-service corporation, may collect rates or charges where special or unequal services are rendered to individuals.

Mr. Foote finally admits that—

—"whether a particular service shall be rendered as a government function, and supported by taxation without direct charges to individual users, or as a public-service industry, supported by private capital and direct charges to individual users, must be determined solely by the character of the service, and the inherent efficiency of political or industrial corporations, fitting them to perform the service to the best advantage for its users."

This conclusion, aside from the assumption that a service rendered by the municipality must be supported by taxation without direct charges to individual users, is entirely sound. Whether any given public enterprise should be conducted by the municipality or committed to a public-service corporation is solely a question of expediency as measured by results.

The municipalization of public enterprises, as we have seen, has already covered almost the entire field. Nearly, if not quite, all public enterprises of general utility without profit-earning possibilities under existing conditions, together with some having such possibilities, have been assumed and are now conducted by the modern municipality. This tendency to municipalization still continues, and already the desire for public ownership threatens to "take over" what still remains to the public-service corporations. These corporations are, however, still strongly intrenched, particularly in those public enterprises which require large capital and many employees, and whose main purpose it is to supply services to individual users. Thus, transportation, the telephone, gas, and electricity are still largely in their hands. While the municipality continues unable or unwilling to conduct all public enterprises it must employ the public-service corporation to supplement what it does undertake. It thus remains the function of the public-service corporation to conduct such public enterprises as the municipality, for whatever reason, is not yet ready to assume. This, for the present at least, assigns to the public-service corporation an important

* *Municipal Affairs*, for December, 1897.

place in municipal administration. It therefore becomes desirable to consider upon what conditions and subject to what public control it may be most advantageously employed.

We have until quite lately assumed competition to be the general and sufficient regulator of both individual and corporate enterprises. We have with reckless prodigality granted municipal franchises to all comers, in the belief that competition among them would result in good service at fair rates. In consequence we have seen in every considerable municipality an awful carnival of corruption and waste. The prolonged attempt to secure the regulation of public-service corporations by means of open competition has made every municipal legislative body the source of a moral contagion which has permeated all departments of public and private life. The corruption of public officials, the blackmail of existing corporations, the waste of duplication and double operation, the utter demoralization of municipal politics,—all these are the familiar and universal incidents of the effort to regulate and control public-service corporations by the principle of competition. In a word, the result has been the capture of American government, state and even national as well as municipal, by a sordid commercialism. We are but just coming to see that, if these corporations are still to be employed in the performance of public functions, we must wholly abandon the idea of mere competitive regulation and subject them to a rigid public control.

The truth must be kept in view that public enterprises exist to render public services, not to secure private gain or even public revenue. The quality and cheapness of the service, not the profit or revenue to be derived from it, are the controlling factors. The streets of a city are public highways. They belong to the people. They exist for the people's use. Whatever is permitted under, upon, or over them should have for its primary purpose the convenience of the people. That is a perversion which permits the use of the streets for the main, or other than merely incidental, purpose of private or corporate gain. It is also a perversion, at least in kind, to make use of the streets primarily for public revenue. The general need of gas of good quality at reasonable prices, electricity for its various uses on proper terms, and transportation sufficient

for the public convenience for low fares, alone justifies the occupation of the streets with pipes, wires, and tracks. The measure of any such occupation is the public convenience. The test of the intervention of a public-service corporation to supply the public need is whether it will result in the best service at the lowest rates. The question of public administration is not how much the public-service corporation may gain for its promoters, but how much can be saved to the people by its employment. How to secure the best service at the lowest practicable rates is the problem.

The test of public convenience limits the means to be employed to the requirements of the public. Enough pipes, tracks, and wires to render the required service is the limit of what should be permitted under, upon, and over the streets. The occupation of additional streets to establish a competing street railway, for example, always results in great inconvenience to the public, and criminal waste both of capital and in expense of operation. The duplication of a general telephone system which is adequate for the public convenience is perhaps the best illustration of the worse than folly of the old resort to competition for the regulation of public-service corporations. By no possibility can such duplication meet the primary test of public convenience. It is likewise impossible for it to result in the lowest obtainable rates. The waste of duplication, whatever the enterprise, is alike fatal to cheapness to the public and profit to the corporation.

We have finally come to see that public enterprises are natural monopolies, or at least that quality and cheapness of service require their treatment as monopolies. The choice in a given case should be between a monopoly conducted by the municipality and one conducted by a public-service corporation. The national government tolerates no competition with the post-office. The municipality which owns its water-works permits no rival plant. It is everywhere assumed that municipalization means the destruction of competition and the subsequent conduct of the enterprise as a public monopoly. Not only this, but capital seeks investment in municipal bonds at lower rates than in the bonds of public-service corporations. Municipal ownership means perpetual monopoly, low rates of interest on investment, and freedom from taxation. These are tremendous advantages.

Other things equal, they alone would lead to better service or lower rates, probably to both. If the private corporation is to be employed by the municipality to perform a public service, of which quality and cheapness are to be the tests, such corporation should be placed as nearly as may be practicable in the shoes of the municipality. The competition permitted, the blackmail exacted, the higher interest paid on investment, the taxes imposed, but so much impair the service or increase the rates, or both. Mr. Foote seriously urges, as a business proposition, that the terms of franchises be made "co-extensive with the want to be supplied common to all the citizens; that is, perpetual, all-inclusive and exclusive." He even says that — "the franchise should not only be perpetual, all-inclusive and exclusive; it should be granted untaxed in any way and without charge of any kind; and the property of the corporation, necessarily used in rendering the service, should be untaxed."

These startling demands are made in order that public services shall be rendered to the people in "the best manner known to the art and at the lowest profitable price." This position is to some extent sound. It would be entirely so if we might rely on such governmental control and regulation of public-service corporations as would ensure all the resulting advantages, beyond a fair return on the private capital invested, to the users in improved services and lower rates, and if we could admit that all these advantages should accrue to such users. In view, however, of the demoralization of municipal government, largely due to the influence of these corporations, we are yet unable to secure with certainty such control. Neither is it permissible to allow individual users of such public services to enjoy all the resulting benefits. Few public services, if any, are rendered to citizens equally. The streets used by public-service corporations are owned by all in common. Their use by such corporations to render unequal services to individual users, often causing considerable expense to the public treasury, without some return to the general public, is not now regarded favorably.

This leads to the topic of compensation for municipal franchises. What form or forms shall it take? Shall it be exacted in cash payments to the public treasury, in street improvements and services, in

reduced rates to the users, or in all these forms? These are now among the burning questions in municipal administration. That compensation shall be exacted is now generally conceded. There is as yet no such consensus of opinion in respect to the forms it shall take.

We have seen that the test whether a given public enterprise shall exist is the public need or convenience; that it is inadmissible to permit it chiefly for corporate gain or public revenue. First, then, good service must be had, and the necessary expenditures must be made to ensure it. Where the public-service corporation is employed, there are four distinct interests to be considered. These are: first, the private capital invested; second, the individual user of the service; third, the abutting property-owner; fourth, the general public. The capital should have security and fair return. The individual user must have good service at fair rates. The abutting property-owner is sometimes, for special damages suffered, entitled to compensation by way of street improvements and services. The general public should receive such cash payments as, in addition to other exactions, will leave to the corporation only sufficient income with which to pay proper operating expenses and such fair return on the capital invested. It is assumed in this analysis that the allowance for expense of operation will be sufficient for the proper treatment of the labor employed.

The rights of abutting property-owners are by no means clear or even uniform. A street railway, for example, is in some places an advantage, while in others it is a real damage. Much depends on the location and the character of improvements. In residence districts it is generally regarded by such owners most advantageous to have the road on some other convenient street. While there is some difference of opinion among students of the subject, there are many who regard street improvements and services, like paving, cleaning, and sprinkling, as desirable, especially as they tend to compensate abutting property-owners for damages due to the special use of the street.

There is a sharp controversy, which is likely to grow still sharper, whether the demand of individual users for the lowest possible rates for services, or that of the general public for a cash revenue from public-service corporations, should have

the preference. The fact that the enterprise exists primarily to render the service points to a reduction of fares rather than an increase of revenue by way of compensation. Then, too, we already rely too much on indirect taxation in America. Taxes, to be alike just to rich and poor, should be levied on property rather than on consumption at the point of expenditure. To make public enterprises a large source of public revenue is to aggravate the gross injustice of taxing expenditures rather than property. On the other hand, as we have seen, individual users of public services are not entitled to all the benefits arising from the use of property and facilities owned by the general public.

We may conclude, in respect to compensation for municipal franchises, that, while the primary considerations are quality and cheapness of service, the abutting property-owner and general public are, within reasonable limits, also to be regarded. The rights of all are to be considered and protected according to the special facts of each case. The general law should leave much to local authorities; but provision should be made for the protection of public interests and the exaction of full compensation for all municipal franchises.

The grave abuse known as over-capitalization of public-service corporations is due to reckless grants of municipal franchises. In but few of the States is there any effective control of the capitalization of these corporations. This, and the general failure to exact proper service and adequate compensation, have led to the capitalization of earning power instead of investment. Free gifts of the people's streets by public officials have been assumed to be grants in perpetuity. The capital of many public-service corporations to-day represents the entire investment from the beginning, with but little, if any, deductions for depreciation or waste, and the supposed value of a free franchise in perpetuity. This makes it difficult, without actual if not legal injustice, now to exact proper terms for extensions of franchises. This over-capitalization should at once cease. Further over-capitalization should be made impossible by law.

The question of the proper time limit for municipal franchises is one of great importance as well as of growing public interest. There are still those who contend on behalf of the public-service corporation that there should be no time

limit. Many bad precedents of grants for long terms, or without limitation, are now made to do duty in support of this claim. The truth is, however, that grants unlimited in time are usually subject to public regulation or even revocation. This has long been the law in Massachusetts. There the franchise is merely a revocable license, and the security of the corporation is found in the good faith and fair dealing of the public authorities. Under quite recent decisions by the supreme court of Illinois it seems that municipal authorities in that State may hereafter be held strictly to account, as trustees of the people, without authority to give away public property or property rights; also that such trustees are without authority to bind their successors and limit their power to regulate public-service corporations, and from time to time to fix reasonable rates for the services which they render. If these rulings are to be given full effect, the time limit for municipal franchises is somewhat less important than it has lately come to be regarded.

The treatment of municipal franchises as contracts, the obligation of which may not be impaired, has led to results prejudicial to public interests. In this view every grant to a public-service corporation, however unfavorable to the public or by what means obtained, confers upon it vested rights. No vote of a city council adverse to its demands concludes the matter, but any vote in its favor fixes its rights for the term of the grant. Under these conditions municipal legislation usually makes steadily for the public-service corporation. When public indignation is aroused, it bends to the storm. When the storm passes, it presses on with persistence and usually with success. Its defeats are but temporary checks. Its victories are permanent conquests. Every vote in its favor becomes a vested contract whose obligation may not be impaired even to correct a public wrong.

The objection to long terms for municipal franchises, when treated as irrevocable and fixed contracts, is, that increase of population and all gains from economy of management and the use of improved machinery and methods within the term enure to the public-service corporation. As Mr. Bowker says, "the social increment belongs to the public." The public—not private—interests should profit by increased values which are directly due to

the increase of population. The public is also entitled to at least a fair share of the gains which result from the progress of invention, improvements in methods, and economies of management. All these forces, in a growing city, constantly make for larger net returns, some of which the public should have, and the others of which it should at least share.

We may therefore conclude with Mr. Bowker that municipal "franchises should not go out of the people's hands without limits as to time, safeguards as to price, and adequate power of control."

The strength of the public position in regard to such grants lies in the power of the people to fix the terms upon which public-service corporations shall be permitted to engage in public enterprises. All grants should be upon terms that shall ensure the best practicable service at the lowest reasonable rates. To this end these corporations should be given definite grants for reasonable terms, exemption from competition, protection from blackmail, and all other desirable elements of security. Along with these elements of security for the capital invested must go, hand in hand, a public control that shall secure to the people good service and just compensation.

There is just now an increasing tendency to public ownership and operation of public enterprises. Of the fifty largest cities of the United States but nine now depend on private water-works, these being San Francisco, New Orleans, Omaha, Denver, Indianapolis, New Haven, Paterson, Scranton, and Memphis. While about 200 cities and villages have changed from private to public ownership, only about 20 have returned from public to private ownership. Over half the changes to public ownership have been made since 1890, and only about one third of the reverse changes within the same period. Gas-plants are owned and operated by 168 English cities, 338 German cities, by Brussels and Amsterdam and by 11 American cities. Electric-lighting plants are owned and operated by nearly 300 American municipalities, by many English and Austrian cities, and by 13 German cities. Fully one third of the English street railways are publicly owned and operated, notably in Glasgow, Leeds, Sheffield, and London, and but few expiring franchises are renewed.

The advantages claimed for public own-

ership are, in part, improved service, lower rates, diffusion of use, stimulation of industry, and purification of politics. The last of these is of fundamental importance. The fear is widely expressed that the further municipalization of public enterprises will lead to state socialism; also that it will dangerously increase the raw material of spoils politics. On the other hand it is contended that the municipalization of public utilities has gone too far with success to be now checked for fear of state socialism; also that the public-service corporation is really at the bottom of municipal misrule in America.

The dangerous influence of political spoilsmen is obvious everywhere. It may well be doubted whether this influence is as great, as far-reaching, or as dangerous as that of the public-service corporation. The one and its methods are known; the merit system, its adequate remedy, is also known, and its general application in time is certain. The other is hidden and its methods are secret; its remedy, as many believe, cannot be found short of the annihilation of the offender. The public-service corporation is everywhere in politics. It is a potent, often a controlling, factor. It does not always or even generally directly bribe public officials. Its methods are various and insidious. As the spoilsmen are driven to the wall by the merit system, they are more and more allowed to name the employees of the public-service corporation. If its employment is to be continued, some form of the merit system will yet have to be applied to its service. A further large increase in the public service is not free from objection; but it is a less evil than a corporate service secretly controlled by political bosses. At whatever cost the secret political influence of the public-service corporation must be destroyed. This almost certainly means that this form of corporation must in time give way to municipal ownership and operation.

The struggle for the public order which involves just government is everywhere and always against special privileges. Democracy aspires to secure government under which legalized special privilege shall yield to equal opportunity before the law. The time has fully come to refuse public grants to special favorites of the laws. The public-service corporation must go, or submit to strict legal control.

CHICAGO.

EDWIN BURRITT SMITH.

Digitized by Google

IMPERIALISM—ENGLAND AS A MODEL

THIS sudden development of imperialistic tendencies and disposition for tropical annexation on the part of the people of the United States, which takes the world and probably most Americans by surprise, has naturally turned attention to the British Empire as a precedent and a possible model for imperial administration. It is little to the discredit of the Americans if they have failed distinctly to understand that which is by no means distinctly understood by many of the British themselves. For a quarter of a century there has been going on among us a movement in favor of what is called Imperial Confederation. Nothing has yet come of it but talk combined with disparagement of dissentients as "Little Englanders" incapable of entering into grand and glorious aspirations. The projectors have been asked again and again to produce a working plan; to tell us how the federal government is to be formed; what relation it is to bear to the British Crown and Foreign Office; how the federal constitution is to be conserved and interpreted, how its edicts and requisitions are to be enforced; above all, what is to be done with India, which contains 290,000,000 of the 360,000,000 of the imperial population. They can give no answer. They bid you propagate the sentiment and assure you that in time it will take a practical form; though in fact the current of events is carrying things the other way, and the Australasian Confederation over which they exult is destructive of their project both as it tends to colonial independence and because it would be practically impossible to work such a political machine as a confederation of confederations.

The terms "colony" and "empire," "colonial" and "imperial," promiscuously used, fill the whole subject with confusion. The Indian Empire is not a colony, nor are the colonies an empire. Empire implies autocratic dominion, whatever the internal constitution of the imperial power may be. The Athenian Republic was an autocrat, and a tyrannical autocrat (as a democracy is apt to be), in relation to its insular dependencies. The Roman aristocracy was an autocrat in relation to the conquered world. Great Britain herself, practically a republic in the guise of a constitutional monarchy, is an autocrat in

relation to India. In India the Queen of Great Britain is an empress. In Great Britain she is a constitutional queen, but her representative in India, the Viceroy, governs the Hindus with autocratic sway. The civil service of India is a bureaucracy under an autocrat entirely separate from the civil service of Great Britain. On the entire separation of the two fields of government, the two services and the two systems, depend on the one hand the possibility of governing India, which would otherwise be fatally involved in the party politics of the imperial country, and on the other hand the immunity of the politics of constitutional England from the contagion of an unconstitutional rule.

Crown colonies—that is, colonies over which the Crown still has full power, such as Hong Kong or Honduras, which are rather factories than colonies—may be ranged under the head of empire. So may the fortresses, such as Gibraltar and Malta, and the coaling-stations which are essential to British command of the seas and therefore to the safety of the widespread empire. England once was sea-girt and safe against invasion behind her watery wall. She almost fancies that she is so still, though on this continent alone she has a perfectly open frontier of something like four thousand miles.

In Egypt Great Britain has a protectorate as yet barely avowed and undetermined in its character and destination. The results to the Egyptian peasant, as well as to the British holders of the Egyptian government debt, have been very good. But some Englishmen shuddered when on the glorious field of Omdurman ten thousand Dervishes lay dead, and sixteen thousand more lay agonizing with untended wounds and without water to slake their burning thirst. This seemed a strange prelude to civilization, still more to Christianity.

"Spheres of influence," like the "white man's burden" and "duty laying hold of destiny," are a convenient addition to the vocabulary of aggrandizement. China, a country with 300,000,000 people, at least half civilized, highly industrial and intensely national, is being "pegged out" into "spheres of influence" by the great predatory Powers; and if the Chinese presume to resist, they will be shot

down by tens of thousands as "rebels." Spheres of influence may be placed under the head of "Empire."

The principal colonies of Great Britain, on the contrary,—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa,—are really almost independent communities. Every substantial element of self-government has been conceded to them past recall. They have even been allowed to wage commercial war against the imperial country by laying protective duties on her goods. Each of them receives an imperial governor, but, like the nominal sovereign of Great Britain herself, he has been stripped, under decorous forms, of all power, which has passed into the hands of his ministers, his constitutional advisers as they are politely called, who are practically elected by the people of the colony; the result of a general election, which decides the premiership, being nearly equivalent to a presidential election here. The imperial privy council is the colonial court of ultimate appeal, but the scope of its action has been reduced.

Australasian democracy has shown its independence of the mother country by running far beyond that of England. It has run into nationalization of land, female suffrage, state ownership of franchises, and what the comparative conservatism of the old country would still think extremely radical legislation of other kinds.

The West Indies may be said to occupy a position midway between that of colonies proper and imperial dependencies. They have constitutions with elective assemblies, but the Crown reserves to itself more power than it has in Canada or in Australasia, its control being necessary to keep the peace between the white and black races, which would otherwise be flying at each other's throats. This has just been seen in the collision between the representative of the Crown and the majority of the elective assembly in Jamaica.

From British India no lesson is really to be learned unless it be that in Lord Elgin's memorable words: "It is a terrible thing this dwelling among subject races." The history of that great dependency is peculiar and can never be repeated, nor can a system which has sprung out of that history be reproduced. Three companies of commercial adventurers, English, French, and Dutch, armed, as all commercial companies needed to be in

those buccaneering days, had planted their factories on the coasts of the Mogul Empire of Hindustan, then tottering to its fall. In the midst of the wreck of the Mogul Empire they struggled with each other for supremacy; and victory was given to the English by their superior command of a sea base and by the extraordinary genius of Clive. The commercial Company, or rather its Indian service, now became a political power with a wide and expanding domain, though under the nominal sovereignty of the puppet emperor at Delhi. The consequences of this unnatural combination of the trader with the conqueror and ruler at first were very bad, though they are wildly exaggerated by Macaulay in his essay on Warren Hastings, where he makes the legal malpractices of Sir Elijah Impey, whom he has recklessly libelled, worse than the terrible raids of the Mahrattas. A limit was put to the reign of intrigue, rapacity, and corruption by Clive, who laid the foundation of a regular civil service. Still political dominion held by a commercial company and continually growing in extent was an anomaly, and was not only liable to abuse, but fraught with danger, since the Company might involve the national government in war. Moreover, the serpent of corruption, though scotched by Clive, had not been killed. The result was the subjection of the Company to a British board of control, which practically assumed the supreme power, though all the subordinate departments, the native army, and the general administration were left in the hands of the Company. At last came the mutiny of the Company's army: mutiny it was called, though it was rather an insurrection of caste, which had been unwittingly violated, combined with a popular insurrection in favor of the native dynasty of Oude, which for misgovernment had just been dethroned by the ruling power. This was the end of the Company's rule. India was then transferred to the Crown, and the Queen was proclaimed Empress in a grand durbar. There is apparently nothing in this history or in the system developed by it which throws light on the problem at present before the American people.

An Englishman of distinction the other day, writing in an American magazine, commended the empire for its effects on nationality. The Indian Empire, he said, had been to England a grand nursery of

men. Some British generals, no doubt, have been formed in Indian war; among them was Wellington; though in most cases they have rather carried their generalship to India than found it there. But the idea that the Indian Empire has been to England a nursery of civil ability is baseless. When a man has spent his best years in a tropical climate under heavy strain of work, he is not likely to be fit for much on his return, in the decline of life, to his own country, nor are his ways or ideas likely to be suited to the public life of England. A few old Indians find seats in the advisory council of the Indian Office. This is about all the tribute that England draws from India in the way of men. Lord Wellesley, the Duke of Wellington's brother, is about the only returned Governor-General who has played an important part in home politics, and even he had been somewhat unfitted by India for English public life.

The British government of India is probably the highest mark of beneficence as well as ability ever attained by conquest. The civil service is not more remarkable for its administrative capacity than it is in its unimpeachable integrity. I believe I may say that in the whole course of my long life not a suspicion has been breathed against it. It is effectually withdrawn from the influence of political parties in the imperial country. Yet what are the results? Three hundred millions of human sheep multiplying in abject dependence on an alien government,—great numbers of them, it is to be feared, in misery—and swept by periodical plague and famine, without national leadership or self-help; a government always on the point of sinking under its immense responsibilities, always in financial jeopardy, compelled to keep itself afloat by its unholy monopoly of the opium trade. There is no political outlook. It is vaguely assumed that the natives are being trained for ultimate self-government. They are admitted to the utmost practicable extent to subordinate office; to admit them to real power would be abdication. Union of the races is hopeless, since British children cannot be reared in India. Nothing seems certain but that so unnatural a state of things must some day come to an end.

The relation between the races in Hindustan, instead of improving, has grown worse. In the days when it was a five months' sail from England to India and

there was no electric telegraph, the Anglo-Indian, severed from his country, identified himself with the natives more than he does now and regarded them with more sympathy and respect. He never called them "niggers." He looked upon Hindu gentlemen as his peers, in spite of the difference of race and religion. The government being thoroughly just and faithful in all its engagements, as well as able and powerful, the Hindu cannot help respecting and trusting as well as fearing it, but he does not love it or the ruling race. The natives have been so long disarmed that outbreaks are easily suppressed, but outbreaks are frequent, especially in the chief seats of Hindu religion; and the native press, to which the conqueror allows an astonishing amount of freedom, is childishly seditious. The highest races are not those which most easily sympathize and unite with an inferior race. If there is one less fitted than the Englishman to sympathize and unite with inferior races, it is the American. Already he calls the Filipinos "niggers," though they have shown some high qualities in the defence of their own land; and we know too well what "nigger" means.

The writer to whom I have referred admits that England has reaped no great profit from her political dominion in India. His opinion on this point would probably be borne out if we could estimate the cost of defending the approaches to India, to which account the Crimean war might in a large measure be charged. The Indian trade England might have had by holding, as she did in the early days, fortified factories on the coast. It was in the Tory days of Pitt that an act of Parliament was passed repudiating the acquisition of territorial dominion in India as opposed to the policy of Great Britain. The fact probably is that no dependencies have paid. Take the West Indies. The cost of their conquest was heavy enough to swallow up many years of the profits of their trade. They supported a set of West Indian proprietors who, subsisting by a system which was an outrage on humanity, and having no territorial duties like those of the British squire, were politically and socially the worst element of British plutocracy, always opposed to reform because they knew that the first abuses to feel its axe must be slavery and the slave trade. These men reaped the profit while the nation shared the guilt.

At last, the national conscience being awakened, twenty millions sterling were paid to the slave-owners as the cost of abolition. Since that time the West Indies have been emphatically what Disraeli said all colonies were, millstones around the neck of England, who has had to provide for their defence without deriving any benefit from them, while the antagonism of the races has been a continual source of trouble, culminating in the horrible butchery of the blacks by the infuriated and panic-stricken whites of Jamaica in the governorship of Eyre.

The colonial dependencies are not, any more than the imperial dependencies, or even so much, a source of profit to the mother country. Great Britain has to undertake their defence without gaining any more by their trade than she would gain if they were independent; for the theory that commerce follows the flag, or follows anything but the price list, has been again and again confuted, though it is very long in dying. The contributions of one or two of the colonies to imperial defence, though kindly meant and graciously accepted, are but doles, and it is doubtful whether the fiscal preference recently accorded by Canada to the mother country is of much real value; while a great deal of British money has been drawn by the connection into unprofitable or worse than unprofitable investments. The object in retaining the connection is merely sentimental, however strong and however exceptionally fervent at this moment the sentiment may be.

There appears to be a notion that the perfection of the civil service in India and the improvement in the system of the colonial office have had something to do with civil-service reform and administrative reform generally in Great Britain. For this belief there is no ground. The Indian civil service has grown up and been regulated in absolute independence of the civil service of Great Britain, neither of them in any way affecting the other. The reform of the civil service in England by the substitution of competitive examination for patronage was brought about partly by the general current of reform, but largely also by the desire of ministers to be rid of a mass of petty patronage which caused them constant trouble and annoyance without adding much to their influence; while they retain the really valuable and influential patronage, the peer-

ages, baronetcies, and knighthoods, the imperial and colonial appointments, military and civil, the bishoprics, deaneries, canonries, and Crown livings, as well as the social position and access to the Court to which a minister can open the door. As to the colonies proper, reform has been simply an abdication of power on the part of the Colonial Office and a concession of self-government in compliance with colonial demands. Complete self-government was conceded to the two Canadas after the insurrection of 1837, which in British Canada was directed against the ascendancy of a group of Tory houses, called the Family Compact, backed by the power of the governor; in French Canada against the ascendancy of the British element backed by the same power. Nothing in the colonial administration has produced any appreciable effect upon the home government or service. Even the American Revolution produced far less effect on the home government than is commonly assumed. Though it gave a temporary blow to prerogative, the Crown soon recovered its influence and excluded from power for the rest of their lives the Whigs, who had sympathized with the revolution.

The system of competitive examination for appointment to the Indian civil service has apparently been a success. Lord Lawrence told me that he thought it was; and this is the more remarkable because in that service vigor of character and practical capacity are at least as much required as intellectual cultivation. Otherwise it would seem that there is no lesson to be learned by Americans from British experience except that of the folly of imperialism and of the wisdom as well as the righteousness of resting content with that which is your own.

The end will probably come. This British tower of Babel will probably in time fall and point once more the moral pointed by the fall of many an imperial tower of Babel before it. The Anglo-Indian government will reach the limit of possibility in providing by its paternal care for so many myriads of Hindus. The West Indian "millstone" will weary the neck that bears it and perhaps be transferred to the neck of the expansionist United States. The military force which England is creating in Egypt will some day set up for itself and cast off foreign control. The Mediterranean powers will combine to set free their waters

from an intrusive domination. The unprofitableness of political dependencies will be recognized. Fallacies, such as a belief that trade follows the flag and not the price list, though they are long in dying, will at last die. The mechanic and peasant will find out that empire is the game of the mansion and the music-hall, and that while the bread is being taken out of their mouths for the stakes no ray of glory penetrates the cottage. The dream of imperial confederation will vanish through the ivory gate. Nature will have her way and colonial independence will become complete. Perhaps the Tsar's prognostication may be fulfilled, and some new invention in the shape of an explosive or a ram may turn

all the ironclads into scrap iron. England will be taught by experience that the true source of her greatness and her happiness are in herself, and perhaps other dupes of the imperial delusion will profit by her example. The pretext of philanthropy, civilization, and religion which hypocritical ambition fabricates to sanctify rapine, will be found unavailing against the forces of nature and morality. It is not to any exclusive race, self-glorified and self-crowned, but to the community of nations, emulating, enlightening, stimulating, and supporting each other in the march of progress, that nature and Providence have entrusted the future of humanity.

TORONTO.

GOLDWIN SMITH.

DANTE AND HIS AGE—IV

"THE DIVINE COMEDY"

THE great achievement of Dante's genius was by him entitled simply "*La Commedia*"; but an early editor prefixed the word "*Divina*," and it has, by universal consent, remained a part of the designation of the poem. The significance of the word "*Comedy*" is explained by the author in his dedication of the "*Paradiso*" to Can Grande. "*Comedy*," he says, "is a certain kind of poetic narration, different from every other. As to the matter, it differs from tragedy, because the latter is in the beginning admirable and quiet; at the end or close, foul and horrible; whereas comedy begins with adversity in something, but its matter ends prosperously. . . . Similarly, tragedy and comedy differ in style; the one being lofty and sublime, the other unstudied and ordinary. [Here we have a sample of the proud humility of Dante.] Whence it is plain why this work is called a comedy. For if we look at the matter, in the beginning it is horrible and foul, because it is hell; and in the end it is prosperous, desirable, and grateful, because it is Paradise. If we look at the style, it is unstudied and ordinary, because it is in the vulgar tongue, in which even ordinary women speak to each other."

The original conception of the "*Divina Commedia*" was of a poem that should do honor to Beatrice, as we may learn from the closing words of the "*Vita Nuova*." But

we soon discover that there is here much more than a memorial of the angelic child and peerless woman of Florence. The historical Beatrice falls into the background, and she becomes the representative of divine mercy and grace. The higher significance of the story will be more or less apparent to the reader as he has received the requisite discipline for the perception of spiritual truth. It is to the honor of Dante and his work that they have been ignored or slighted by shallow ages and shallow men, and that they have been regarded with a veneration approaching idolatry by some of the greatest and noblest thinkers of mankind.

The "*Comedy*" was not the first work of its kind, although most of its predecessors on the same subject are now forgotten, and Dante owed little to them except perhaps the suggestion. His work represents the whole learning of the time, and there is little difficulty in ascertaining the sources from which he drew. Chief among these are the sacred Scriptures, the Fathers, the Schoolmen, and first of them the great St. Thomas Aquinas, the Christian mystical writers, and the Latin poets, especially Virgil. Reference should be made, in particular, to the sixth book of the *Æneid*, which contains the account of the visit paid by *Æneas* to Tartarus and Elysium. It is probable that Dante was also acquainted with Homer in a Latin trans-

lation, Greek being unknown to him and to his age.

The poem is in form a vision, or a series of visions. According to Boccaccio it was originally planned and actually begun in Latin, and the first line ran as follows:

"Ultima regna canamus, fluido contermina mundo."

We can imagine what such a poem might have been, and how much we should have lost had the poet stuck to his original purpose. So much scepticism, however, has arisen in recent times regarding the Dante traditions, and in particular respecting the testimony of Boccaccio, that the whole of this story is now doubted.

The verse in which the "Commedia" is composed is known as the *terza rima*, which Dante may have invented, and which he certainly made his own. Of this verse it has been said that "it is not only good metre for Dante's purpose, but it is the very best metre which human ingenuity and research could have selected. Its only plausible rival would be blank verse." The metre runs as follows: Three lines make a stanza; each line consists of eleven syllables. Lines one and three rhyme, while line two gives the rhyme for lines one and three of the following stanza. Some notion of its structure may be gained from the first eight lines of Dean Plumptre's translation, which is a very correct reproduction of the original, except that his lines are usually only of ten syllables, instead of eleven.

"When our life's course with me had half-way sped,
I found myself in gloomy forest dell,
Where the straight path beyond all search had fled.
Ah me! hard task it were in me to tell
What was that wood, wild, drear, and tangled o'er
Which e'en in thought renews that terror fell,
So bitter 'tis—death's self were little more."*

The poem consists of three parts (*cantiche*), each containing thirty-three cantos, with the exception of the "Inferno," which has thirty-four; so that the whole number amounts to one hundred. With respect to the date of composition widely different opinions exist; and the question is of interest chiefly in reference to the development of Dante's character and genius. The material must have been collected through many years of study and observation, and was probably worked up at dif-

ferent times until it received its final revision and form. The idea of the poem, as its first line tells us, was conceived not later than 1300, when the author was thirty-five years of age.

Boccaccio says that Dante had completed seven cantos before he was banished from Florence in 1302, and there is a tradition that the "Inferno" was finished in 1308. But there is an allusion (Inf. xix: 80) to the death of Clement V, which took place in 1314, so that it must have been completed later than the date assigned. We may determine with considerable probability that the "Inferno" was finished in what we have called the second period of Dante's history (1302–1313); and that the "Purgatorio" and "Paradiso" were written after the death of Henry VII (1313), and completed at Verona and Ravenna shortly before the poet's death.

If the "Divine Comedy" is a great poem, it is also a theology, and the work of a great theologian. It shows man always as the creature of God and in relation to Him. To Dante, as to all deep thinkers, this world is but the "time-vesture of the Eternal." Thus he represents St. Thomas Aquinas as telling that the source of all excellence is in God. Whatever virtue was in the side of Adam, from which Eve was taken, or in the side of Christ, pierced for our salvation, was in God. (Parad. xiii: 34 ff.)

As we are in relation to God so we truly are. All evil consists in separation from God. All blessedness and good are in union with Him and in knowledge of Him; and only as our hearts and eyes are purged is that knowledge possible to us. The creature can find satisfaction only in the Creator, who is the source of light and blessedness. Of man's thirst for truth and of its satisfaction in God, he speaks in Parad. iv: 119; of his mistakes in seeking for blessedness, in Purg. xvi: 86. Because of these mistakes we must be led and guided until we find our good in God. (Parad. xxvi: 19.)

Dante's expressions with reference to the arduousness of the work which he had undertaken remind us of the splendid opening of Milton's "Paradise Lost." Thus, speaking of the "Inferno," he says (xxxii: 1):

"Could I command rough rhymes and hoarse, to suit
That hole of sorrow o'er which every rock
His firm abutment rears, then might the vein
Of fancy rise full springing: but not mine
Such measures, and with faltering awe I touch

* Of the translations of Dante, Cary's is still regarded as giving the best idea of the original. Longfellow's is remarkably accurate and literal and has very full and useful notes. Other good translations are Wright's, Cayley's, Carlyle's ("Inferno" in English prose), and Butler's ("Purgatorio" and "Paradiso" in prose).

The mighty theme; for to describe the depth
Of all the universe is no emprise
To jest with, and demands a tongue not used
To infant babbling. But let them assist
My song, the tuneful maidens, by whose aid
Amphion walled in Thebes, so with the truth
My speech will best accord."

Compare with this the lines in *Parad. ii*:
1 ff.

The poem may be said to have both a literal and a figurative meaning. Dante, indeed, following early Christian writers, speaks of four meanings,—a literal, a moral, an allegorical, and an anagogical or mystical; but these need not concern us here.

The "*Commedia*" may be said to be literal in the sense of representing the current theological opinions of the day which were probably accepted by Dante. But it certainly meant far more than this. It sets before us the reality of God's government of men and of the world, the reign of law, the spiritual education of man under the Divine economy of grace. First comes the "*Inferno*," with its awful pictures of the consequences of unrepented sin; next the "*Purgatorio*," showing the process by which men are cleansed from sin and made meet for communion with God; and finally, the "*Paradiso*" brings before us the blessed in light and glory. In the last two we are shown, as the theologians would say, the purgative life, the illuminative, and the unitive.

As regards the meaning of the chief personages introduced into the poem there is a fairly general agreement. Thus, Beatrice represents divine revelation and coöperating grace. Virgil is human reason in its legitimate action. Lucia (St. Lucy) is illuminating grace. Cato represents the highest form of merely human righteousness. The Centaurs represent the union of the bestial and the spiritual. The four stars are the four moral virtues of Plato, and the three the theological virtues, making up the seven cardinal virtues of the mediæval theologians. The application of the poem is wide and varied. It refers to the moral, the religious, the social, and the political condition of Italy and generally of the age. Thus the three beasts by which the poet was confronted at the beginning of the poem have a double reference. The panther represents pleasure, but also Florence; the lion, pride and France; the she-wolf, avarice and also the papal court. The poem is not an easy one to read, whether in the original or in any of the

translations, and it has been charged with obscurity. But its obscurity is not that of a confused mind: it arises from the author's use of imagery and the remarkable terseness of his language. "The style of Dante," says Macaulay, "is, if not his highest, his most peculiar, excellence. The noblest forms of Greek composition must yield to it. His words are the fewest and the best which it is possible to use."

If we would understand the plan of the poem, we should put ourselves under the guidance of the author, especially in the first two cantos of the "*Inferno*." Dante tells us that at the age of thirty-five he found himself in a rough and savage wood, having lost the path. This represents the condition of Dante himself at a certain period of his history; it may refer also to the state of mankind at large. Reaching the foot of the mountain, he sees the rays of the sun gilding the heights, and attempts the ascent. Here we see the effort of the soul to escape from sin and ignorance and to reach the heights of truth and holiness.

The three beasts just named oppose his ascent. Whether taken as representing special vices, or the governments exhibiting those vices, they are regarded by Dante as the three great impediments to righteous imperial government. We see this in what Virgil says to Dante concerning the greyhound; for whether the direct reference be here to the emperor or another, it is almost certain that the power that is to drive the she-wolf back to hell is the legitimate imperial authority, with perhaps a reference to Can Grande (great dog).

While Dante is in this state of terror and obstruction, there appears to him one whose voice is weak and hoarse. This is Virgil, the representative of human reason and conscience, but not like the "gentle lady" of the "*Vita Nuova*," who was human philosophy in its self-sufficiency, an influence from which Dante had now turned away. Here, on the contrary, is human wisdom doing its proper work under the guidance of divine grace.

Dante's joy at the appearance of Virgil is great. He tells him that to him he owes whatever excellence he may have attained as a writer, and asks for help and protection against the she-wolf. Virgil tells him of the future destruction of this beast by a greyhound which will send

her to hell. Then he informs Dante that he is to be guided in a way that will bring him knowledge of the true characters and destinies of men. Virgil himself will conduct him first through the abodes of the lost, and then through those who are undergoing purification by fire, and preparing for the abodes of the blest. To these "a spirit worthier than" Virgil must guide him. When Dante expresses his doubts of his fitness to enter the invisible world as Æneas and Paul, the "chosen vessel," had done, Virgil explains to him how he had been sent. A lady appears to him in Limbus, says she is Beatrice, and explains why she makes the appeal to him to go to the assistance of Dante. A blessed dame, she says, in high heaven had bidden St. Lucy see to the needs of Dante; and she, coming to Beatrice, almost reproached her for the neglect of one who had so great a devotion to her. Beatrice, therefore, had made her appeal to Virgil. Some commentators (as Cary and Longfellow) explain the dame in high heaven to mean the divine mercy, while others (as Hettinger, Plumptre, and Scartazzini) believe that, in the first intention, the Blessed Virgin is referred to. There is no necessary contradiction between these views. The lady may mean the Blessed Virgin, and may also signify the divine mercy and prevenient grace.

Dante at first hesitates and trembles at the prospect set before him of visiting in succession the terrible abodes of the lost, the cleansing fires of those undergoing purification, and the abodes of bliss. At last he takes courage and they go forth on their way and come to the gate of hell.

For the present a mere sketch of the outline of the poem must suffice. Its three parts have been sufficiently distinguished; and it will at once be seen that that there is profound thought and insight in the arrangement of the different forms of evil as they are presented to us in the first two parts of the poem. In the "Inferno" Dante begins with the commoner and, so to speak, the less heinous sins, embracing vast multitudes of the human race. As he advances, the sins are more heinous and the sinners less numerous, until he reaches the worst forms of evil, where the offenders are small in number. In the "Purgatorio," on the contrary, where the question is not of punishment, but of the purification of the soul from sin, he begins

with the principle of evil and from that traces its various forms.

In the "Inferno," after leaving Limbus, Virgil and Dante enter the second circle of hell, where the carnal are punished by being tossed in a great tempest. Thence he passes to the third circle, where the gluttonous lie in the mire under a great storm of hail and snow. At the entrance of the fourth circle he meets Plutus, and here the prodigal and avaricious are found rolling great weights against each other. In the fifth circle they find the wrathful and gloomy tormented in the Stygian Lake. The sixth circle contains heretics, who are punished in tombs burning with intense fire. In the seventh circle the violent are punished, being tormented in a river of blood. It will be observed that, as we pass on, the treatment of the sins becomes more diffuse, since the sins are in their own nature less simple. The eighth circle is divided into no fewer than ten gulfs, which contain as many different descriptions of fraudulent sinners, who suffer different kinds of punishment in accordance with the nature of their offences. At last they come to the ninth circle, which has four rounds, containing as many sorts of traitors. In the fourth and deepest of all, those who have betrayed their benefactors are wholly covered with ice, and in the midst is found Lucifer. Hell is described by Dante as an inverted cone, around which the various circles run, of course diminishing in the descent.

As Hell is an inverted cone, so Purgatory is a conical mountain, around which a spiral path ascends, being divided into a number of terraces or cornices, in which the particular sins are cleansed away. And here the number of sins is seven, and they begin with Pride, which was regarded by the mediæval theologians as the principle and source of all sin. In the first cornice the proud are found bent down by the weight of heavy stones. As they ascend, the sins become of a less spiritual character. In the second cornice are the envious, in the third the choleric. The fourth sin is that known by the theologians as *acedia*, by some translated sadness, by others indifference. It is described by Virgil as a defect of love, and is followed by the sins of (5) avarice, (6) gluttony, (7) incontinence.

The "Paradiso" introduces Dante, under the guidance of Beatrice, to nine spheres in which different manifestations of divine

love are found: (1) The Moon, inhabited by religious who had been compelled to violate their vows; (2) Mercury; (3) Venus; (4) the Sun, in which are found great theologians, as St. Thomas Aquinas; (5) Mars, the sphere of soldiers; (6) Jupiter, the abode of those who have administered

justice rightly; (7) Saturn, of those who have spent their life in contemplation; (8) the fixed stars, in which is seen Christ triumphing with His Church; (9) the sphere of the Divine Essence.

WILLIAM CLARK.

TRINITY UNIVERSITY,
TORONTO, CAN.

THE MARBLE QUARRIES OF CARRARA

THE chain of mountains called "Alpi Apuane" is situated in the centre of Italy, and bends toward the sea between Leghorn and Spezia. This chain is historically, geographically, and geologically distinct from the Apennines and the Alps themselves. The mountains are all of marble from base to summit, and twenty centuries of work have scarcely left a trace of the hand of man in them. Of the valleys which are scattered confusedly between the ridges of the mountains, some are inhabited and soft in aspect, others deserted and savage.

The valley of the Arno, which is the queen of all, is still untouched by the hand of man; it is like a vast crater with an indented brim; torrents from the surrounding rocks run roaring and foaming down, but before they arrive at the bottom of the basin they are lost to sight. In place of a river or lake there is nothing but a dry bed, with blocks of white marble scattered over it, which, like an enormous sponge, sucks in all these waters by a thousand apertures. At some points there are caverns and grottoes, not a few of which were the dwellings of men in the prehistoric period. Among the most remarkable are the Grotto of Eolus, the Buca d'Equi, and that of Canone. The latter contains an immense number of water stones, and shows the nature and variety of the strata of which the mountain is itself composed. To surmount the dangers that meet one here, it is frequently necessary to be tied with a rope, and in this way to be transported over abysses and precipices. If the sight of these threatening crags and sharp-pointed pinnacles raises the mind to the poetic contemplation of nature on the one hand, on the other, the thought of the inexhaustible treasure of which she is here so prodigal awakens calculations of profitable industrial undertakings.

The Apuan marble excels the Parian, Pentelican, and Hymettian marble for fineness of the grain, ease in working, and for the size of its monoliths, and was substituted for Greek marble at the time when the Greeks ceased and the Italians began to produce their masterpieces of sculpture. In this way Providence, in transferring the primacy of the arts from the country of Phidias to that of Michelangelo, planted also near at hand the material for the new artist's use.

Mr. F. W. Rudler, Curator of the Museum of Practical Geology, London, says:

"Carrara marble is better known than any of the Greek marbles, inasmuch as it constitutes the stone invariably employed by the best sculptors of the present day. This marble occurs abundantly in the Apuan Alps, an offshoot of the Apennines, and is largely worked in the neighborhood of Carrara, Massa, and Serravezza. Stone from this district was employed in Rome for architectural purposes in the time of Augustus, but the finer varieties, adapted to the needs of the sculptor, were not discovered until some time later. It is in Carrara marble that the finest works of Michelangelo and of Canova are executed."

Authors backed by the authority of Pliny—who, in the thirty-sixth book of his "Natural History," speaks of the marble of Luni as recently discovered—have stated the period at which our marble began to be excavated as the latter days of the Roman Republic; but the date is now carried much further back. The bas-relief which is at present in the Carrara museum and was originally executed on the very wall of the quarry, and the capital found in the ruins of Etruscan Luni, would seem to carry the primitive excavations back to a remote era. The epoch in which the trade reached its greatest prosperity was during the reigns of Trajan and of Marcus Aurelius, and these emperors issued several edicts relating to the quarries. From the

valleys the huge blocks were carried to the port of Luni; thence the marble was shipped to Ostia, and, after ascending the Tiber, was deposited at the Marmorata, near where the Basilica of Saint Paul now stands. Every piece had the consul's name and its proper number engraved upon it, just as to-day the price and the initials of the vendor are marked in red on the blocks. After this time we look in vain for memorials of the quarries until the eleventh century. When the Pisans had increased in power and extended the lordship of their republic along the Lunian coast, they were the first to resume the working of marble in order to raise temples to religion. Marble was taken from here for the Duomo of Pisa in 1067, and afterward for those of Modena, Assisi, Orvieto, and Lucca.

The Emperor Frederic Barbarossa, master of a part of Italy, ceded Carrara with its quarries to his faithful friend, the Bishop of Luni, and sculptures with the "berretta" of the bishops were found in some quarry. In the following centuries Carrara had for its lords the Visconti, the Malaspina, the Campo-fregosa, and the Fieschi, till in 1520 it fell into the hands of Cybo. In this age Carrara received many celebrated artists, among them the greatest, Michelangelo Buonarroti. The traveller stops with interest before the house where the author of the "David" and the "Moses" dwelt.

In the sixteenth century trade reached its highest pitch, and the Italian marble was sent even to France, as we gather from a letter addressed to Prince Alberic I, of the Cybo family, by King Charles IX, some days after the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

After a long inactive period the work of the quarries assumed new vigor in the eighteenth century, and in September, 1769, the Academy of Fine Arts was founded by the Empress Maria Theresa, who reigned over the dukedom of Tuscany through her relatives, the princes of Lorena. From this academy issued many eminent men. At the breaking out of the Napoleonic wars the industry suffered very considerably, but it revived in 1832, and from that year has been always in the ascendant; and the small town of Carrara has been the cradle of many eminent men, of whom the most illustrious was the sculptor Pietro Tenerani.

The number of quarries is about 700, but more than 300 have not yet been subjected to mining operations. In all the country called the Versilia, there are moreover 300 other quarries still untouched. From this we may conjecture what enormous wealth lies buried in these rugged Alps.

The mountains contain different kinds of marble, but they are not arranged in layers; on the contrary, they blend with one another. A light, sandy coating covers the blocks and divides them; it is noticed that where marble is exposed to the sun it becomes harder; where it is placed in the shade it becomes finer and softer. From the mixture of metallic and heterogeneous substances the stone is sometimes marked,—speckled, veined, and spotted,—and these defects make it less valuable to sculptors. Though the marbles are of great variety in composition, grain, color, and hardness, they may all be reduced to the threefold classification of *brecciati*, *cardigli*, and *bianchi*. *Breccia* is a kind of marble that seems to be formed by a conglomeration of small stones; it is used for ornaments; *cardiglio* is a white marble with dark-blue veins or streaks; the *bianco* is of the greatest value, particularly the white statuary marble. Its freedom from impurity is an important factor in its value. The sculptor Dupré, in his recent Memoirs, states that while he was sculpturing the Giotto likeness for the Uffizi palace, he found a hair which split the marble right through, and he had to make a reproduction of the statue. To the great Canova it was a torture to see black or livid spots, and accordingly, by the advice of chemists, and especially of the celebrated Sir Humphry Davy, he made use of various preparations for taking them out. One day, while he was making this experiment, the chemicals took fire and exploded like a volcanic eruption. He was thrown to the ground and had a narrow escape from death.

Our statuary marble, like the Parian of old, may well be called splendid and shining. It is so delicate that it shows an antipathy for everything that is not also white. Touch it with quicklime and it will be tinged with blood-colored spots; with red wine, and it turns violet; with oil, and it becomes dull. By its means the "Graces," the "Psyche," the "Abel" assumed their divine forms and have immortalized Canova, Tenerani, and Dupré. Nor

is it only into statues that it is wrought; it also lends itself to the fashioning of sweet instruments, spinets, guitars, and violins; the last, fashioned by Michelangelo's hands, were so light as to be capable of being slung across the shoulder.

Polvaccio is the quarry which produces the biggest marble monoliths, some being of the size of sixteen cubic metres. It supplied the "David" of Buonarroti and the "Wellington" of Canova. The most colossal monuments, however, the loftiest columns, and the most sumptuous vestibules, are made of *bianco chiaro*. This is the material of the "Dying Napoleon" of Vela in Paris. The best *bianco chiaro* of Torano was the material for the colossal monument erected by order of the United States government on the battle-field of Gettysburg. It is a column of granite raised on a pedestal with four allegorical statues at the corners. On the top is a gigantic figure of Victory.

The struggle of man with nature is keen on the slopes of the Apuan Alps, and the echo of the titanic labor is given back from mountain to mountain. Here are blocks which appear to have been hurled down from dizzy heights, terrible explosions at which the earth seems cleft in twain and tottering to its base; gangs of men occupied in loosening great slabs between the enormous rocks, in taking off the superfluities of the marble, rough-hewing, sanding, rubbing it with pumice stone, or carrying it away. Forty-two sawing establishments rise on the banks of the river Carrione, and there are 115 laboratories of sculpture and ornaments in the industrious little town. The transport is carried on by 450 persons; 300 pair of oxen, 425 four-wheeled, and 300 two-wheeled carts being employed in the labor. Three thousand people work at the quarries; about 100 women are told off merely to carry water for the use of the quarrymen. These workpeople know the marble and scent it out by instinct, as it were, better than any mineralogist. The exportation to all the countries of Europe and America together amounts to 100,000 tons a year. If at the foot of the Apuans there were a handful of enterprising English or Americans, numerous lines of rail would soon wind up those delightful valleys. The waters of the Carrione, of the Frigido, of the Versilia, would turn countless machines, and 1,000,000 instead of 100,000 tons would be taken out every year, so that there would

be some ground for the fear of Pliny, Ovid, and Juvenal, that the mountains would be destroyed. The sides of the walls are encumbered by the broken bits from the quarries; all this refuse represents the labor of many generations; they are the crumbs from the great table of work.

The blasting in the quarries still makes many victims. It is easy to imagine what prodigious effects are produced when one knows that 2,000 pounds of powder are lodged at a depth of 20 metres. What enormous rifts must be made! What a storm of rocks must be hailed down! Sometimes masses of stone come rolling down on passers-by. Gervis, in his book upon the mineral resources of central Italy (London, 1868), relates:

"Some years ago a prodigious block of marble was blasted from a very elevated spot in the mountain. Descending along the ravine and crushing the smaller stones to powder, thereby raising a cloud of dust like a cannon when fired, it took fabulous leaps, like a titanic football, rushing up the opposite slope with the impetus it had acquired, whilst a torrent of stones displaced by it danced about and tumbled over and over with rattling noise, dashing with violence against the ledges of rock. Meanwhile the huge swaying mass again continued its headlong course, until, having proceeded half a mile, it broke in two, but not before killing some poor quarrymen, who could not tell where to run. Those who have not witnessed such scenes can scarcely picture to themselves their grandeur and occasionally their horror."

Once it was the custom to sound a bell inviting to prayer, as the Catholics do, every time that there was a dead or dying man at the quarries. Not a day passed without its mournful notes being heard; and as it spread unspeakable terror and anguish among hundreds of aged fathers and mothers, young wives, and all the inhabitants of the town in short (since all had some relation at the quarry), its tolling was at last forbidden.

It cannot be doubted that there is much to be improved, both in the instruments and the methods of taking out the marble and for its transport. Some excellent means have lately been proposed, and we trust they will prove successful.

T. VENUTI.

ROME, ITALY.

THE WORLD AND ITS DOINGS : EDITORIAL COMMENT

*Our Attitude
toward Ger-
many*

German sensibilities, it would appear, have of late been subjected to much and wanton irritation, both in this country and in England. The rivalry of German commerce and the colonial exploitation of the Fatherland have, with the Kaiser's brusque self-assertiveness, now and then ruffled England and brought upon Germany and her militant emperor the gibes of the London jingo press. On this side and in the far East where America and Germany have met in somewhat the character of joint aggressors, there has been more or less international friction, and notoriously so at Manila and Samoa. This is part of the price which nations have to pay when they enter the race against each other for empire. But though international rivalry be keen, there is no reason why the people of one country should lampoon and revile those of another. The oceans that separate nations may be estranging ones, but there is little wisdom in perversely converting them into seas of gall. In entering the race for territory and trade with other countries, if we cannot do so without engendering bad blood and setting at naught the comity of nations, there is the alternative of staying at home and isolating ourselves when we are either in a sullen or an envious mood, or are suffering nationally from a fit of the megrims. The hint may be worth heeding by our legislators of the fire-eating type, though we admit it is often useless to look for suavity and dignity in the speech or bearing of a tail-twisting politician. Nor is it easy to bridle the pens of chauvinistic newspaper correspondents or stop the mouths of boastful naval and military officers who are full alike of their own achievements and of conceit. The Coghlan affair, which was a flagrant breach of good manners, and naturally must have been exasperating to Germany, is a case in point. Fortunately the Kaiser took a sensible and good-natured view of the matter, and there was no rash and incon-

siderate resort to the sword. But for the Emperor's complacency, the affair might have taken an uglier turn; and, if we do not take care, we may yet see more serious results of our imperial policy in bringing the nation, as Washington warned us, into hostile collision with other Powers. The natural result of conquest is a bumpitious and boastful spirit; and in these days of rival military crusading it follows that the acts and language of a single indiscreet official are often taken by foreigners as the acts and language of the nation. Hence the need of diplomatic and official discretion, and of bridling the tongue and pen, especially those of public servants, when foreign governments or their citizens become the theme of either censure or complaint.

In the case of Germany, as we have said, there has seemed of late a disposition, both in the United States and in England, to condemn her people, and to deride her ruler as an unfriendly and envious rival. The injustice of this, we may here note, has been ably protested against by an intelligent writer in the pages of a recent English review.* In the course of the article its author makes an ardent defence—addressed particularly to the English people—of the great Teutonic nation, and throws a flood of light upon the qualities, discipline, and training of the masses which have elevated the empire to its high eminence among the Powers of the modern world and made it a heritage of humanity. He applauds German industry and education, and even commends its paternal government and militarism, since in the discipline of the latter it has, he conceives, conferred a boon upon the people, inculcating the "spirit of obedience, docility, reverence, and laboriousness." Much, undoubtedly, may be said for this view of Germany, though it may be questioned whether these virtues in the people are

* See "Germany as an Object-Lesson," by Charles Copland Perry, in "The Nineteenth Century" for April, 1899.

not in large measure qualified by the restraint which the German system puts upon free and independent individual action and that power of self-government and initiative which, to American and English eyes, are the beneficent fruits of a less autocratic and paternal mode of governing. But our object is not to controvert, but to call attention to, Mr. Perry's thoughtful paper, which is well worthy of consideration just now, both in this country and in England, where a contrary view of Germany so widely prevails, and the disposition is manifest in many quarters to depreciate and even quarrel with her and her able and forceful ruler. Ignorance and prejudice are not the qualifications for doing justice to any nation; still less do they enable us to view with intelligent apprehension the intellectual, disciplinary, and industrial qualities that have given Germany her commanding position. We may mistakenly flout her, and even in our headiness pay her a slight; but we cannot with reason or from policy court her anger; and if we merely refrain from that, we can hardly expect her to be effusively friendly, still less to requite our petulance with love.

★

The Disarmament Proposals

By the time the present issue of SELF CULTURE is in the hands of our readers the Tsar's Peace Conference will have been convened at The Hague. Since we last dealt with the subject, the United States has practically answered Russia's invitation by naming and accrediting its delegation to the Conference. The delegation is a strong and representative one, and likely not only to do credit to the nation, but to give strenuous aid in restraining the increasing waste of national resources upon war establishments, and, if practicable, in encouraging general disarmament. The American representatives embrace the Hon. Andrew D. White, our ambassador at Berlin; Hon. Stanford Newel, the United States minister to Holland; President Seth Low, of Columbia University; Capt. A. T. Mahan, historian of the navy and well-known writer on sea power; Capt. Wm. Crozier, of the army, a practical authority on ordnance; and the Hon. F. W. Holls (secretary), an expert in constitutional law and a member of the New York bar. This is a distinguished representation, and if the Conference bears fruit at all in the mo-

mentous discussion on the evils of militarism, it can hardly fail to leave its mark in council at The Hague. If, however, we look at the rivalries among the great war Powers of the Old World, and consider the rigid hold that militarism and the war caste has upon the nations of Europe, the question is still an open one, whether it is possible to accomplish anything by a merely deliberating and consultative body, however influential the Power at whose bidding it has been convened. On the other hand, we must remember the weight and urgency of the motives, economical and industrial, that counsel, if not disarmament, at least the minimizing of the burdens of war establishments. If we think of these and of the tragedies of a state of actual war, with all its hideous modern machinery of destruction, we cannot but be convinced that some practical good will come of the Conference, and that it will not end in a futile though noble dream. As we have before remarked in commenting upon this matter, no little effect would result from the pacific deliberations did Russia—of all nations the most heavily armed in proportion to her resources and population—herself set the practical example of trenchantly cutting down her war establishment and thus reduce the menace to Europe and the incitement to heavy armaments on the part of the other great States. But will she do this, grievous as war's grim burdens are, as the Tsar frankly admits? If she does not, can there be any real truce or mitigation of the evils which are now deemed to be well-nigh insupportable by the nations?

Another qualifying circumstance that restrains one's hopes of practical result from the gathering of the Peace Parliament is the doubt that the Tsar is the real ruler of Russia. The dominant power in the country seems rather to be the iron-heeled bureaucracy installed at St. Petersburg, with the astute Count Muravieff at its head. It is this body, apparently, which wholly controls the affairs of State, and shapes, after well-known Slavic methods, the war policy and foreign relations of the Empire. M. de Witte, Russia's able finance minister, no doubt would throw the weight of his judgment, with that of the young Emperor, into the scale of peace; but if the initiative in Russian diplomacy is in the stern hands of a remorseless military

junto, opposed to the Peace Rescript and to all sentimental interference with the national administration, what is to be hoped for from that quarter but the old autocratic attitude and demeanor, under the polite disguises of statecraft, which have hitherto been the immemorial sources of international suspicion and distrust?

One encouraging sign there is, which is assuring to peace-lovers, namely, the perceptible general decline among the nations of the methods of war. The resort to it, nowadays, is taken with increasing repugnance, and, by peaceful industry at least, its abolition is earnestly called for. We have happily gone far from the days of unrestrained lust of battle, when war was a trade, and murder and rapine deluged the land in blood. Yet the murderous instinct in nations is not yet wholly eradicated, nor is the thirst for carnage entirely slaked. Civilization, as Lowell used to say, still moves forward on the powder cart. Our hope, nevertheless, is in the humane spirit of the age, and in the destructive character of modern war missiles. Even if human ingenuity should make no further advance in the mechanical construction of the latter, their present appalling destructiveness must in itself tend to abolish or make less frequent the outbreak of war.

★

The Cromwellian Commemoration There are reasoning and unreasoning worshippers of Cromwell, the three-hundredth anniversary of whose birth has just been celebrated in England. But whether he is to-day worshipped or not, there can be little question of the importance of the Protector's place in history, or of the merit of his ideas in regard to parliamentary reform and religious toleration. England at least has much reason to cherish his memory, for in addition to his work in the political and ecclesiastical movements of his age, it is to him and his vigorous foreign policy, aided by Blake, the Commonwealth admiral, and the traditions he inherited from the adventurous Elizabethan seamen, that she to-day owes her eminence in sea power and her unrivalled influence as a Protestant nation. Nor in this country is it little that we owe to Puritan England, however evanescent—even before Puritanism laid down the sword—were the spiritual results achieved by material force. But not in a period of

national turmoil, still less in the reaction that followed it, ought we to look for the lasting effects of a great movement; and it was a great movement, both in Church and in State, that engaged Cromwell's powers. The controversies of the time still cling to the discussion of the historic incidents of the Great Rebellion, and cloud the merits of the work done by the "uncrowned king of England." This we significantly saw, not long ago, when the Irish at Westminster successfully resisted the proposal to erect a national statue to Cromwell's memory. Ecclesiastical prejudice, as well as sympathy with monarchy, also still prevent justice being done to the commanding figure of the Commonwealth era. Prejudice even refuses to admit that his bones ever had the honor of burial in Westminster Abbey, and delights in the story that, if they were ever interred there, they were soon ignominiously exhumed, to be suspended on a gibbet and then flung with curses out of sight under the gallows at Tyburn. These things, it is true, were done in a profligate time; yet it took the nation a long while after the Restoration to become ashamed of the indignities that had been paid to Cromwell's memory, as well as to the memories of Pym, Ireton, Blake, and the other staunch Englishmen of the era of the Protectorate. The Irish still curse his memory for the rigors of Drogheda and Wexford; and even the Scotch, despite Carlyle's apotheosis of Oliver in his monumental biography, do not forget the memories of Dunbar and Worcester, or that the king was a Stuart whom Cromwell's sectaries and the Rump Parliament sent to the block.

When the blow fell on the monarchy, and horror of the deed seemed to paralyze national action, it was Cromwell who stood staunchly in the breach, for righteous government, civil liberty, and the development of popular power. It was his misfortune, when Parliament failed him, that he could secure these only by the sword. In falling back upon the army he was, however, clear-sighted enough to see how little the English people would brook its domination. But in this, whatever practical sagacity and restraint he personally showed, he was the victim of the forces and accidents of the time. Notwithstanding all, the nation, in its contest with the king, owed much to Cromwell's Ironsides; and, as Marston

Moor and Naseby proved, it owed much also to Cromwell's generalship. Nor has justice been done to the Protector himself, in his own attitude toward both king and Parliament. In his relations with both he was no mere zealot or revolutionary firebrand, for, while he conscientiously could, he was passively loyal to established institutions. Even his religious zeal was usually held in check by tolerance, while his largeness of mind and practical wisdom restrained his dominant will and intensity of purpose. When he was confronted by seemingly insuperable difficulties, he found ready means to overcome them, for to his masterful mind "political knots were easier cut than untied." As a constructive statesman, in a great crisis in the history of the nation, Cromwell has been deemed a failure. He was nevertheless a great Englishman; and in his era he stood as the representative of the conscience as well as the force and, in a large measure, of the mind of the nation.

★

Robespierre on the Stage M. Sardou's play of "Robespierre," written for Sir Henry Irving, the cable informs us, has nightly been delighting lovers of the historical drama in London since its first triumphant presentation at the Lyceum Theatre on the 15th of April last. The mounting of the piece is said to be a marvel of spectacular art, while the acting of Sir Henry and his talented assistant players, including Miss Ellen Terry in the rôle of Clarisse, a royalist widow, evokes passionate enthusiasm. In his new enterprise Sir Henry Irving, we doubt not, merits all the praise the dramatic critics are lavishing upon him, while personally he deserves the plaudits of theatre-goers, since he is the most gifted and cultured actor of the age, with a genius for theatrical management and stage-setting, and has done much to elevate and refine the modern drama. But History may well open her eyes questioningly when she learns that dramatic art has made a stage hero of Robespierre. Cruel and vindictive as Richelieu was, we can accept and even pay homage to him as a hero on the boards, for he was not only a commanding figure in French statecraft, but a man of magnificent courage. If the times in which he lived demanded the rule of the iron hand, there was personally nothing contemptible about him, and

we can even admire him for acting on the maxim that "it is safer to be feared than to be loved." But what a contrast do we find in the mean-souled pedant and pitiless "sea-green" monster, Robespierre, whose *diablerie* did much to create the reign of terror, and whose vanity and cowardice deluged France in seas of blood.

To endow this relentless master of the shambles, and pitiful sentimental fop, with the qualities that lend grace to romance, is surely to insult art and do violence to history. Yet the play, it would seem from the cable accounts, is a great one, and no doubt it is immensely aided by the genius of Irving. Much, we understand, is made of the frenzy and tumult of the time, and the spectacular scenes, where the frowzy and maniacal Jacobin crew enact their hideous part in the Revolution amid a welter of blood, are said to be powerfully realistic and thrilling. Only, however, as a drama improvised to exhibit the human ferocity and riot of the era against the pathetic background of dignified royalist and Girondist suffering, or suffering passionately incited to vengeance, can we understand the play. This, it may be said, it is, and not a piece of dramatic whitewash or a sop to socialism. Of its real nature we shall, however, know more when we have fuller details of the play than those that the cable brings. Whatever its character, it cannot be that History, in her judgments, has done a wrong to Robespierre or to any of his bloodthirsty and volatile fanatics. Nor can it be that humanity has in our time lost its sense of outrage, or of the meaning of devilry and impious carnage, and condones in Robespierre what it condemns in Danton, Desmoulins, and Marat. We know what Carlyle, in his rugged phrase, thought and said of him, and with what lurid pigments he has pictured the ensanguined era of the Terror. Nor, taking the would-be statesman at his best, do we forget another emphatic though restrained literary judgment on Robespierre—that "he has not left the legacy to mankind of a single grand thought, nor the example of one generous and exalted action!" This is the Robespierre we know, and not the travesty, which, from all accounts, has been given us by the author of "La Tosca" and "Thermidor." The length to which these variants from history,

dramatic and fictional, are now proceeding, to tickle the idle novel-reader and theatre-goer, is, we submit, alarming.

★

*Speaker Reed's
Rumored
Retirement*

Usually we do not care to comment on mere hearsay, but there would seem so much that is circumstantial about the reported withdrawal from public life of Speaker Reed, and unfortunately, from a pecuniary point of view, so much justification for the act, that we can readily believe its truth, much though we may regret the now looked-for occurrence. If true, the withdrawal of the honorable gentleman from his responsible post in Congress is a disconcerting one, since he has not only filled the office with exceptional ability, but with that vigor and scrupulous regard for the nation's best interests that Congress will be hard put to it to find a fitting successor. It is one of the drawbacks of public life that unless a man has independent means he has no excuse for taking office to the detriment of his own fortunes. In Mr. Reed's case it is well known that he is not a man of private wealth, and that the exacting duties of the Speakership, with those of the membership for Maine, held continuously for the long period of twenty years, has left him little leisure to add to his modest public income. There are men in office, it is true, who have used their official position to enrich themselves, and to whom malfeasance, in our state of political turpitude, is no crime. Mr. Reed is by no means, however, of this unscrupulous type: in Congress his probity is as well known as are his independence and strength of will. To a man of his high character, ability, and experience, it is only natural, therefore, that he should look in more profitable quarters for an income commensurate with his worth, and that while some good working years are still left to him, in the interest of himself and his family. There is more reason for taking this course if he has ambitions in the direction of the Presidency, and especially if it be true that an advantageous offer has been made to him to join an influential legal firm in the metropolis. In his retirement from Congress legislation will suffer a notable loss, and that in a far wider sense than in the sphere, large and important as it is, of his special and lengthened service in the House.

*The Pope and
the Sacred
College*

The factions in the Sacred College of Cardinals in the pontifical palace at Rome are, it is reported, preparing to exercise their solemn duties in making choice of a successor to Leo XIII. From all accounts it would seem that a period of quasi-interregnum has set in, the Pontiff being himself so aged and feeble as to have all but abdicated his functions, which are meantime performed by Cardinal Rampolla, the papal secretary of state. It will be with unfeigned regret that all religious communities will learn of the departure of Leo XIII, now in his ninetyeth year, for to his Holiness the world owes much for an unperturbed and pacific reign, though he has unflinchingly maintained the rights of the Roman Church and been personally loyal to its doctrines. Nor will peace-lovers fail to commend him for the restrained and dignified attitude he has always maintained toward the Italian State, Leo during his régime having suffered nothing to add to the bitterness of the feud over the temporal power of the Church. Under a new pontiff what renewed demand may arise for the restoration by Italy of the Papal estates, no one, of course, can say. Much in that respect will depend on the character and temper of Leo XIII's successor. It would be pleasing to think that the Papacy has now changed its nature, and that we may fear no encroachment upon the civil power. Among the present members of the Sacred College, in each of the groups that will put forward representatives for the Papal office, there are men likely to aggress and take strong attitude in the affairs of both Church and State. There would seem to be no doubt that the new pontiff will be an Italian; but whether with Jesuit or with Dominican and Benedictine leanings, it is as yet difficult to say. Much even will depend on whether the "apostolics" or the "diplomats" win,—that is, whether the next Pope will be a merely religious or a political head of the Church. It is said that the rivalry among the cardinalate is keen; so keen, indeed, that if any one of the more powerful factions in the electing conclave cannot elect the man of its choice, then a mere transition Pope will be fixed upon,—an old man not likely to live many years, and so give occasion ere long to reopen the contest. But speculation of this sort is profitless as well as premature; and were it otherwise it is not always the part of wisdom to forecast the issues.

The Dreyfus Case Once More

The latest phase of the Dreyfus case, which we have already amply discussed in SELF CULTURE, even, we fear, to the wearying of our readers, is the publication in the Paris "Figaro" of the depositions made before the criminal chamber of the Court of Cassation. How the journal named obtained a copy of these depositions is so far a mystery; but their genuineness is not doubted, since the journal in question has been fined 500 francs by the Paris courts for giving them publicity without authority. The evidence produced is of great and tedious length, but in spite of that fact it appears to have been eagerly read by the French people, and, on the whole, to have done not a little to turn the tide of public opinion against the army staff responsible for the iniquitous trial and condemnation of Dreyfus, though not in favor of the greatly wronged officer, who is still suffered to languish, a broken and discredited man, in a cruel exile. That this has been the effect of the surreptitious publication of the depositions is warranted by the common talk now heard in unprejudiced circles in Paris, to the effect that the court will yet recommend revision and retrial; while the government is understood to be preparing a plan for the reorganization, especially of the intelligence department of the general army staff, with perhaps some measure looking to the rehabilitation of the incriminated officer and of his daring quasi-defender, the still imprisoned Colonel Picquart. One substantial result, so far, of the "Figaro's" disclosures, is to make plain to all sane readers of the depositions that there is nothing in them to incriminate Captain Dreyfus, while part of the evidence of one of the witnesses (a Major Hartmann, of the 22d Regiment of Artillery) affirms that the famous *bordereau*, which was held to prove Dreyfus's guilt, was *not* the work of an artillery officer. The latter deposition tends strongly to exonerate the exile on Devil's Island, since Dreyfus was an artillery officer; while it points to an infantry officer, like the long-suspected Major Esterhazy, who belongs to the infantry branch of the French army, and has already been publicly accused of the crime for which Dreyfus still suffers, though acquitted by the courts on grounds which have been morally impeached.

Though this now is the aspect of the case, there can be little expectation that

justice will yet be done to the greatly injured officer, unless there is one man of influence in the French nation strong enough to withstand the corrupt army staff, which, to shield the real criminal, has scandalously wronged an evidently innocent person. Such a man, if prominent in France, of high character, and of determined will, as well as above the pettinesses of prejudice, racial and social, could do much in coming forward now to redeem his country from a great scandal and awaken it to a proper sense of right and justice. M. Zola, we remember, attempted the rôle, but failed in it, though the chances now are more favorable for success. What such a man might do would be to compel the government to issue a trusted and independent commission to retry the case, giving power to the court to compel witnesses to give evidence under oath, without shielding themselves by abusing the privilege of withholding testimony for so-called state or military reasons; and governed in its proceedings by proper rules of evidence, as well as by the undeviating purpose to get at the whole truth. This is the want of the hour: is the man forthcoming?

★

The Peril of Intercourse with China

The commercial expansion of European countries in Asia, however unpolitical in character, has always been attended with grave risk. Since the grabbing process in China began and decay set in, the peril of commercial intercourse with the people of the unwieldy moribund Empire has greatly increased. This is partly accounted for by the inveterate conservatism of the country, and partly by the corrupt intrigues of the official mandarins and local viceroys of provinces contiguous to the seaboard. Whatever concessions diplomacy may secure at Peking, it is never safe to assume that local effect will be given to them or to any imperial acts without, at some stage or other, having to use force. This was exemplified the other day when England, to which had been ceded the territory of Kau-lung, in rear of Hong Kong, proceeded to take possession of it only to meet with active Chinese resistance, which had evidently been incited by the native governor. The resistance, it is needless to say, was at once put down, but only after a British gunboat had opened fire and a hundred Sikhs of the Hong Kong regiment had charged upon

the Chinese militia. The incident is of minor moment, no doubt, but it is one of many constantly occurring, which proves how inept the Peking government is in failing to carry out the treaty provisions or to keep faith with negotiating and friendly foreign Powers. Irresponsible fanaticism is at times the cause of these treacherous attacks, but more often they are prompted by corrupt members of the Tsung-li-Yamen, or instigated, as we have said, by the unscrupulousness of local governors. When brought to book for such breaches of faith, the Chinese government, it may be said, is always ready to give satisfaction by flogging or executing the offending parties. But no humane government cares to be ever demanding redress at such cost, and yet it were folly to be complaisant with the Peking authorities, since forbearance is always misunderstood, and the lesson of good faith is never learned except by having it thrashed into the nation. International dealings with China have not, it is true, been always creditable to European morality; but what line can diplomacy take with so corrupt and invertebrate a government?

★

South African Affairs In our last issue we had something to say of Mr. Rhodes and the agreement the Kaiser's government had made with him to enable him to construct through German territory his telegraph and railway line in the interior of Africa. This concession by Germany was good as far as it went, in furthering Mr. Rhodes's imperial project of a "Cape to Cairo" railroad, designed to open up the whole continent from south to north. But this was only part of the South African statesman's aims in paying his flying visit to Germany and Britain, for he also sought financial aid in England on behalf of the sections of the great steam highway still to be constructed from Rhodesia northward to the Great Lakes. This, we understand, he has at length secured, partly from the British government and partly from London capitalists—the former guaranteeing the interest on the line through the Bechuana-land protectorate, under British control, from Vryburg to Bulawayo; while the latter provides some \$8,500,000, at three per cent interest, to construct the section from Bulawayo to the Zambesi. The success Mr. Rhodes has thus met with in his mission is gratifying mainly as it secures

in English hands a right of way through immense tracts of the great continent, already the scenes of British activity and industry, and gives increasing preponderance to British influence, long thwarted and repressed by the Afrikaner element in the Transvaal and Cape Colony.

Mr. Rhodes's triumph, moreover, must bring hope to the heart of the Uitlanders (chiefly English) in the South African Republic, whose lot has for years been an unhappy one, owing to Boer tyranny and the unjust withholding from them of the rights of citizenship by Mr. Kruger and the Pretorian government. The wrongs suffered by the Uitlanders at the hands of the South African Republic have recently been the subject of appeal to England as the paramount Power by 21,000 British residents. The appeal has greatly exercised the mother country, and Mr. Chamberlain, the English colonial secretary, is understood to have made strong representation in the matter to the Transvaal authorities, through the usual channel of the Cape government. That Mr. Kruger will yield to this representation without a fight is hardly expected; but it is hoped that he will not continue to be contumacious, for the feeling of irritation among the Uitlanders is now intense, and is not only inimical to industrial progress but provocative of civil disorder and possibly of bloodshed. That Mr. Chamberlain will move carefully in the matter there is little doubt, but there is as little doubt that when he does so he will move effectively, particularly as there is talk of a federation of the Afrikaner element in the various South African colonies in a united Dutch Republic, only nominally in alliance with Great Britain. The move is an astute one from the Boer point of view; but it is not one from which the progressive British have much to hope. It is to this element that the country owes almost its entire development; for the mines, commerce, railways, wealth and enterprise of South Africa are British; and the British population chiefly pays the taxes in the Transvaal, though well-nigh wholly debarred by the Boer oligarchy from political and civil rights. President Kruger has again and again pledged himself to relax the rigidity of these disabilities in favor of aliens, but so far he has not given effect to his promised word. He may not, therefore, be surprised should there be intervention by the paramount Power.

Recent Operations in the Philippines

The arduous work of conquest continues in the Philippines, and arduous and trying it has been if we consider the many engagements with the enemy, the capture of so many places, and especially the difficulty of carrying on effective military operations in a country thick set with swamps and jungles and in a prostrating tropical climate. Since Malabon, Calocan, and Malolos fell, our forces have captured—besides Calumpit, the latest seat of the Filipino government—Balinag, San Tomas, Sosmoan, and other insurgent villages and entrenched positions, driving the enemy northward to the new capital of San Fernando, about which our troops, under Generals MacArthur and Lawton, are concentrating, both directly from Manila by way of Bacolor, and from the northeast, by the Novaliches and Novzagaray highway, via Arayto. That these operations and those immediately pending may end the struggle, all must heartily wish; but we remember what General Lawton, despite what has been accomplished, has himself said, that "it would take 100,000 men to pacify the islands," allowing, no doubt as he intended, for the difficulty of following the enemy into their retreats, in mountain, ravine, and bush, and for the garrisoning and holding the towns and chief entrenched positions as they are captured. With this weighty statement in mind, and recalling also the disadvantage under which our forces are placed in the approach of the rainy season, we are not so sanguine of soon seeing the end of the rebellion in the islands, notwithstanding the overtures of the emissaries of Aguinaldo for a cessation of hostilities, which may merely mean a ruse to gain time rather than imply weariness with the conflict. In this view of the matter it may be we are mistaken, and that the end may come more speedily than we think.

A commendable feature of the situation—since the insurgents must first be subdued and made to feel our power before we can confidently rely on their future good behavior—is the decision of General Otis vigorously to prosecute the campaign. Another favoring circumstance is the effective use which may be made of the shallow-draft extemporized gunboats on the Rio Grande, in the neighborhood of San Fernando, toward which the Filipinos have withdrawn. Still another hope

lies in the success which may be looked for from the sound tactics of Generals MacArthur and Lawton, in drawing a cordon round San Fernando, and so compel the insurgents to stand a siege in their new capital, without hope of escape from it on the approach of our fighting line. But the prospect may brighten from an altogether unexpected quarter, and as the result of circumstances at present unforeseen. Aguinaldo's army may itself fall apart; the northern tribes of Luzon—probably not liking him and his methods, and fearing his retreat into their domain and carrying the war with him—may themselves fall upon him, either independently or in conjunction with our own forces; or, as seems not improbable at the present writing, the bitter rivalries of his generals may lead to a seditious outbreak and revolt among his own followers. Any or all of these contingencies may happen, with probably disastrous results at this juncture to Aguinaldo.

Our own troops, most of whom have been sorely tried in the campaign and have exhibited splendid fighting qualities, would, no doubt, however, prefer any but an accidental issue to the conflict. Their valor merits a close of the struggle by subjugation, and that in a decisive and fairly fought out battle.

Since the foregoing was in type, cable dispatches from Manila to the authorities at Washington announce the taking of San Fernando by General MacArthur's division. The resistance, it appears, was slight, its rebel occupants having withdrawn from the town after firing it, and just before it was occupied by our troops. The evacuation, and the fact that the insurgents are sending their women and children for safety to the Biacnabetto Mountains, are additional signs of rebel weakness, and, we would like to think, of collapse. Small contingents of the enemy are in the vicinity of the town and give more or less trouble by their irritating attacks. A large force—some six thousand it is said in number—under the rebel general Mascardo, is strongly entrenched at Bacolor, about five miles southwest of San Fernando, and the place is being invested by General Lawton's division. Here, it is expected, the enemy will make a stand, since they must know that escape from the town will not be easy with MacArthur's force at San Fernando to cut off retreat to the north. Hemmed in by the

two divisions of American troops, news of deadly work or a wholesale surrender may be presently expected. In the attack upon San Fernando there was a repetition of the heroic example set the army by Colonel (now Brigadier-General) Funston of the Kansas Volunteers: two battalions of the Fifty-first Iowa regiment swam the river north of the city, to gain an early entrance to it, and were briskly fired upon the while by the rebels. Pluck and daring of this sort, together with the uncomplaining acceptance of the rough experiences of the campaign that duty daily and nightly brings, are indications of what the end must be, whether it come quickly or is unhappily prolonged. Heroism such as this, alike among regulars and volunteers, makes one long that the enemy—and we had almost said the cause—were more worthy the example and the sacrifice.

★

The "Machine" and City Government We have of late rejoiced to see in several cities a remarkable awakening of the public mind and conscience to combat municipal corruption and the conscienceless scramble of unworthy men for office and the spoils of office. There is crying need for the awakening, if our civic, state, and national affairs are to be saved from ruin and redeemed to better things. The disease is infecting the whole body politic, and unless a remedy is instantly, efficiently, and persistently applied, moral death—and that on a colossal scale—must ensue. The party system, it is hardly necessary to point out, is the source of the evil, for to it we owe the "machine" in politics, with its bosses and their henchmen, and all the tyranny and unblushing effrontery of their sinister rule. With these things as blights upon our civic life, we cannot, of course, have pure government. The peril is increased by the growth of ignoble and ostentatious wealth and its power to bribe and corrupt as well as to debauch the community. Under its evil influence, independence shrinks from asserting itself, and even good men are, by their silence, made to acquiesce in the nefarious game.

It is an old and notorious story this of municipal misgovernment in this country, and we hardly needed another investigation, such as that of the Mazet Commission in New York, with its sickening disclosures of Tammany infamy, to open the people's eyes to the extent and unscrupulousness of machine domination

and the nefarious character of "boss" and "ring" rule. If there is a single honest citizen ignorant of the methods of the gang that manipulates civic affairs in the metropolitan city of the country, let him read the newspaper accounts of Mr. Moss's examination of Mr. Richard Croker before the Mazet Investigation Commission in New York in April last, and learn of the incredible things that go on under the plundering rule of Tammany's brigand spoilsmen. Hardly ever before were such civic turpitude and scoundrelism so frankly admitted, and with such shameless moral obtuseness as characterized that examination. Under even the burgher oligarchies of the Middle Ages history tells us of nothing more infamous than the proudly related admissions of Mr. Croker as to the methods of his outside and unofficial rule. It is not to the point to tell us that under a Republican régime "Plattism" is no whit more pure. Alas! we know it only too well, and yet public indifference looks calmly on, and reform but trifles with the remedies suggested.

Fortunately, in a few notable towns, public alarm is beginning to do its work, and that in a more or less effective and we yet trust drastic fashion. In the larger cities, especially, giant are the evils that have to be grappled with, and encouraging must be even the beginnings of an earnest and well-directed reform. Something, manifestly, is accomplished when the better citizens rouse themselves from their apathy and patriotically seek to assert their influence for good in the administration of our cities and towns. The first step to that desired end is to cut loose from political parties and elect men of assured probity, intelligence, and independence to the offices of civic trust. Demagogism, with its jobbery and Satanism, has had its long day; let there be now the innings of a more moral element in our civic affairs, with the coöperative effort of practical as well as honest men, seeking only and always the good of the community. This once secured, there will then be hope for our little commonwealths, and citizenship will be an honor instead of a reproach to all who have interests in common at stake and feel pride in our country's good name.

★

A New Municipal Era To purge our civic administrations of rascals and the "bosses" of rascals is one thing; it is

another and happier thing to take counsel together to devise, in the public interest, the most efficient as well as economical systems of municipal government. It is to this task that public-spirited zeal is, in many cities of the Union, now addressing itself, and with results so beneficent as to foreshadow and even to usher in what we may legitimately call a new municipal era. The form in which these commendable activities are in many quarters manifesting themselves is that of ardent and enthusiastic interest in municipal affairs, taken by men of honorable and independent character, whom the better class at least of their fellow citizens have reason to regard with confidence and respect. The object of their interest and solicitude is to take the government of our cities out of the hands of those who make a trade of politics and are responsible for the abuses and evils of civic administration. Nothing can well be more praiseworthy than attempts of this kind to improve our municipal systems, and in our cities and towns to raise the standard of public purity and efficiency in all branches of the public service. Much and disinterested aid toward this desirable end is at present being given by students of our social and municipal systems, and practically by men who have come forward to fill our civic chairs, and who are full of zeal for the work of municipal reform.

An interesting and instructive paper by one of the former class appears in the present issue of *SELF CULTURE*, dealing thoughtfully and helpfully with the subject of Municipal Franchises. The writer makes a strong plea on behalf of public ownership, control, and operation of those utilities of our civic life, such as street railroads, gas, and electric-lighting plants, water-works, telephone service, power and heating plants, and other enterprises of a public nature designed for the use and convenience of the citizen, and urges also the abolition of the private contract system of doing city work. The public control of these utilities is, of course, no new or untried idea; but it finds a powerful and intelligent advocate in Mr. Burritt Smith; while he has lucidly set forth the disadvantages and even perils of the other system hitherto in vogue, namely, that by means of public-service corporations, whether taxed or untaxed.

To us, perhaps Mr. Smith's most convincing arguments for the public owner-

ship idea is that, if these various enterprises are in the hands of honest and capable administrators, the public secures the whole advantages of city ownership and operation; while it rids the municipal system of corrupting temptations, in the way of bribery, jobbery, and sinister wire-pulling, which are the peculiar adjuncts of the corporation-licensing and privilege-renting system. That such men of character and position can be had, under this new and favorable departure, for the government of our cities, there is little doubt, especially if the reforming zeal, which is at present manifesting itself in many important centres, can be kept alive and active. That it may be so kept alive we earnestly trust, since there is no greater need of the time; while the scope is wide for such voluntary energies, reforming ardors, and legitimate ambitions in men who have the leisure and gifts for the demands of the work. Nothing can be more gratifying than to see men of this stamp come forward, to form councils of weight and dignity in our municipalities, whose influence must redeem the character of our towns and cities and put a heavy hand upon the infamies that besmirch the administration and working machinery of civic government.

Examples of such men giving themselves to the noble work are here and there happily to be seen, proving that municipal reform is neither a neglected nor a hopeless issue. Already on both sides of the continent—in Boston and in San Francisco—has the note been sounded summoning the watchmen to the tower; while in scattered points, such as Detroit, Cleveland, Toledo, Chicago, and St. Louis, impetus has been given to the movement by the instituting of reforms of a beneficent character, and, in some instances, by the triumphant election of mayors of the worthiest type. This progress, thankful though we are for it, leaves much yet to be done in the war now entered upon against civic maladministration and government by the "machine." Great things have meantime been gained in the direction of independent voting, and in the freeing of the electorate from the thralldom of party. Emancipation from this tyranny, with its corrupting and caballing influences, will, we are persuaded, do more for good civic government and public morality than any other reform we wot of.

WOMAN AND THE HOME

THE Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones has made a suggestion which mothers will recognize as excellent. He proposes that one teacher shall accompany a class of children through the primary and grammar grades of school. Every mother knows with what trepidation sensitive children regard the passing from a familiar teacher to a strange one, and the unjustifiable aversion which children often feel toward their teachers, merely because they confuse the teacher with the general bewilderment and dismay of their minds in going from one grade to another and assuming a new set of studies. As it is now, a teacher has not much more than become acquainted with the personality of her fifty or sixty pupils, and made herself mistress of the way to manage them, than she is forced to take up another class. Both she and the children suffer at parting, providing she is a good teacher and a kind woman. Every one will recall the pain of separation between a class of devoted pupils and a teacher interested in the development of that class. Nor is it to be denied that many a sensitive child has left his first teacher to suffer at the hands of women who never appreciated or understood him as did the one who led his first tottering steps along the rugged path of learning. Moreover, an inefficient and unkind teacher would, under this system of continuing instruction, be more easily detected and condemned than she is now. At present parents counsel their children to endure in patience the stupid teaching and rude manners of a poor teacher, saying that it is but for a little while. Under the other system such a woman would be displaced. The public school harbors many very poor teachers,—women of broken nerves, of bad manners, of a poor quality of speech, of narrow outlook, and a graceless, perfunctory execution of duty. What the children endure at the hands of such women, what bad mental and social habits they acquire, it is impossible to estimate; but mothers know how quickly children coarsen and harden under such influence, and what seeds of bitterness and sullen pride are implanted in their hearts as they find themselves misinterpreted and forced to submit absolutely, for five or six hours of the day, to the dictates and directions of a person whom they feel to be their inferior.

★

How cruel is the lack of appreciation from which the young often suffer! It is in the course of things, and a part of God's divine law of evolution, that children shall often be finer human creatures than the parents who bore them. They have more capacity for learning, a

keener instinct for the beautiful, and more charity and generosity in their mental compositions. Yet they must go at the pace which their elders set; must talk about the things which their elders enjoy; be fed on ancient neighborhood scandals; taught to exercise a pusillanimous surveillance over their acquaintances, and doomed to regard the world from a provincial point of view. How many noble natures have been shriveled up in these adverse winds of prejudice and ignorance no one can guess. The stronger natures escape, of course, because those who are captains of their souls, as Henley puts it, can never yield the command. Parents very often have a burdensome sense of the responsibility which rests upon them in providing for the temporal wants of their children, and little or no consciousness of their accountability for the tender souls they have sent upon their world-journeys. They let these young apprentices in life struggle along without tuition, and find fault with them for their blunders—among which, indeed, may be reckoned their sins. Every mother should remember that the little child who rests upon her lap, who comes crying to her with his hunger and his hurts, who seems so like a little animal, or even, at times, like a sensitive vegetable, may be a rare creature, a daring and lofty soul, a liberator, a poet, or a philosopher. When each child is considered with the respect and awe due to a soul fresh from the hand of God, what results may not be expected! How much greater literature and handicraft are likely to become, how much closer will the "bundle of life" be tied!

★

THE Nebraska Federation of Women's Clubs, which was organized in 1894, began in the second year of its existence to send books among its members. Many of the clubs belonging to the Federation are poor, and have been able to make only small contributions to the library fund, yet, in spite of a meagre treasury, over two hundred of the best books in English literature are now circulating among the cities, villages, and farms of Nebraska. No woman is so remote, so poor, so ignorant, or so forgotten of sister woman that she may not belong to some club and enjoy these books at her home if she wishes to do so. In addition to this circulating library there is the excellent feature of circulating portfolios of photographs of masterpieces. A list of these may be interesting. There are at present fifteen portfolios: (1) Greek and Roman Sculpture; (2 and 3) Early Italian Painters; (4) Michael Angelo; (5) Da Vinci and Correggio; (6 and 7) Raphael;

(8) Later Italian Masters; (9) Murillo; (10) Miscellaneous Spanish Painters; (11) Flemish Masters; (12) Rembrandt; (13) Miscellaneous Dutch Masters; (14) German Masters; (15) The Venetians. The latest activity of the Nebraska State Federation is the organization of a "Reciprocity Bureau," formed for the exchange of written papers of special interest to clubs, and the interchange of thoughts and ideas. Papers of varying lengths and of a great variety of subjects have been secured, and all represent the best work of the club contributing the paper. Aside from these manuscripts kept for exchange, parlor talks are arranged for, certain women agreeing to go to any part of the State to give talks upon subjects of which they make a specialty. Some of them give this service without remuneration, others set a price upon their labor. The whole thing means that the woman in the remote and isolated neighborhood can keep in touch with the women in her State, can read good books and club papers, and hear good talks.

★

THE late constitutional convention in Louisiana gave taxpaying women the right to vote upon all questions submitted to the taxpayers, and it also added a unique clause in the suffrage laws of the country. This law provides that any woman who does not wish to go to the polls herself may give a proxy to some one else to cast her vote for her. This was done, it is said, out of chivalrous regard for those women who might shrink from coming publicly to the polls, but it does not seem, on its face, to be a very desirable law. It would be difficult to frame an election law more liable to be abused, or, indeed, more tempting to those dishonestly inclined than this one. New Orleans is preparing to hold her first election under the new law to decide upon a tax levy for sewerage and drainage. An examination of the tax-books shows that there are more than 10,000 taxpaying women in the city. The law of Louisiana is based upon that of France, and is not, in many respects, as just to women as the law of most of the other States. For example, a woman is not a valid witness to a legal document, as the women are soon to find out when they call upon two witnesses, as the law directs, to sign the certificate to a proxy to vote. However, now that Louisiana women have been placed ahead of most of their sisters in being allowed to vote upon questions affecting their property, it is to be hoped and expected that they will be treated with justice in other respects.

★

ONE of the great benefits of the disenfranchisement of women is the enforced disinterestedness of all civic labors on their part. It is impossible for the normal human soul to escape the emotion of patriotism, but, unfortunately, too often the ambitions of the patriot become submerged in those of the politician. So frequently is this the case with men that

even those who are disinterested have not the credit for so being, and the noblest benevolence of a public character is often sneered at because men are unable to accredit one another with any save selfish motives. But women, who are debarred from holding any save a few unimportant public offices, are not tempted, as men are, to work with the expectation of personal return. They are able to take an objective view of their civic duties, and some of them have so keen a sense of their obligations to the commonwealth that their lives become associated with some large public movement, which movement wins the confidence of the whole world because the public recognizes the fact that nothing is to be gained by the laborer save the spiritual reward of good work well done.

It is often the case that a woman of large mind will neglect her more immediate duties to attend to the wider benevolence that calls to her outside the walls of her home. She grows impatient with the tyranny of her daily duties, and, like Sir Launfal, rides far and rides wide in her search for the Holy Grail. These women, high as they are in intention, are often, by their very virtues, betrayed into forgetting their most immediate and God-appointed duties, and thus bring discredit upon themselves and upon the cause for which they work. Society condemns them severely—more severely than their motives warrant, surely.

But it is fortunate that some women set themselves apart to serve many men instead of one. To such, and to those who have performed woman's specific tasks and finished with them, falls the responsibility of caring for those public benefactions which are as important to a commonwealth as statesmanship itself. In fact, these careful benevolent labors may be looked upon as the kitchen work of statesmanship, for they occupy the same relation to it that domestic economy does to the institution of a family.

★

MISS SADIE AMERICAN, a Jewess of Chicago, is identified with a work singularly fit for the performance of a woman, and one which she considers to be—and which probably is—of inestimable benefit to her city. She is the chief advocate, among a company of enthusiasts, of the Vacation School. The first vacation school in Chicago was held in 1896, through the generosity of a few persons, at the Joseph Medill school, and had an attendance of 360 children, while 4,000 who "fairly begged for admission" were turned away. Hundreds applied for admission in 1897. Such a school was held at the Seward school, in the stock yards district, that year, through the munificence of one woman. In 1898 the women's clubs took up the work as their especial responsibility, and \$10,000 was contributed by citizens. As a result five schools were maintained with 2,000 pupils—and four times that number were turned away. This summer the clubs are at

work endeavoring to add several more schools to those already established, and hoping, moreover, to secure the adoption of the vacation schools into the public-school system. The Board of Education freely grants the use of the school buildings; but the support of the schools depends upon public generosity. It is estimated that it costs three dollars a summer for each child.

★

THE peculiarity of the vacation school is that it is not a school. If it is a school for anything it is a school for happiness. Its purpose is to amuse, to divert, and to employ the children who, when vacation comes, have no choice but to swarm about the hot and hurried streets, poke in the garbage-barrel, torment stray dogs, and run after the patrol wagon — in which vehicle many of them are destined later to take enforced rides. It is a fact that the police records show an increase of sixty per cent in juvenile arrests during the summer months. The vacation schools are open during six weeks of July and August, and organized play, manual training, reading and story-telling, and excursions into the country with nature-study as a definite object, form their curriculum of diversion. Those who are acquainted with the slums of great cities and the idiosyncrasies of the children raised in them know how little capacity those children have for play, save in the way of games of chance. As one walks the teeming, ill-smelling streets, one hears cries of excitement and anger, but seldom a shout of joy; one's ears are greeted with sardonic and derisive laughter, but almost never with a laugh of infectious glee. These unfortunate creatures are reduced to waiting for the extraordinary to provide them with amusement, since that which is usual in their lives is not in the least conducive to happiness. Thus, since the extraordinary in their lives is apt to take the form of a catastrophe, they are converted, unknowingly, into pathetic birds of prey, who must sit about waiting for life's hideous battle to provide them with mental food. When the vacation school does what it is designed to do, it teaches them how to occupy themselves, introduces them to the pleasures of sport, cultivates their hands, makes them acquainted with the delights of construction, and gives them ideas, sentiments, and emotions. In short, it cultivates them, making the body more capable, the mind more sentient, the spirit more aspiring. The school-room, with its coolness, its flowers, its refreshing drinks, its cleanliness and order, its stirring ideas, its play and sociability, seems a fair place indeed compared with the untidy, crowded tenements, the hot and dirty streets, and the impatient words and vicious jests to which they are accustomed.

★

IT WOULD be unfair, however, to the women whose lot is cast in the slums, to insinuate that all of them permit their children to run wild

upon the streets. There was once a woman born in Scotland, who came to this country with six small children and lived wherever it was cheapest to live, or where her husband, who was a machinist, found it most convenient. This was often over his machine-shop in a grimy neighborhood near the coal-bunkers and in the midst of manufactories and mills. Yet somehow her children were not contaminated. They were born to a heritage of cleanliness, and they naturally avoided that which was dirty and repulsive and low. The Bible was the first book in their home, but there were other books, — Burns and Dickens, Allan Cunningham, Moore, Scott, and Campbell. This excellent family was never addicted to the buying of finery, but, instead, had plain, durable clothes, often ugly, but always adapted to the use to which they were put and in keeping with their circumstances. Without being much given to church-going, they were naturally religious in thought and given to silent prayer. The mother retained her simple, contented ways, to which she was born in her thatched lowland cottage by the Firth of Forth. She never acquired the "gadding" habit which is so common among poor women in large cities in their effort to find away from home the brightness which they cannot get within. She stayed by her fireside, learned to cook well, insisted upon having good food for her family, and was firm in her determination to have them educated. Each and every one went through the grammar school; two of them passed through the high school; and the others entered it, but left to go into business or to marry. So, in the midst of confusion and ignorant prodigality and filth and noise, they grew up with a quiet and self-respecting demeanor, all of them book-lovers, all fond of good music and of sociability in the better sense of the word. This is extraordinary, but it shows the wisdom of selecting one's grandfathers, but more especially one's grandmothers, with discrimination. These Scotch Presbyterians, with their antecedents of Westminster Confession, soap, and education, were not to be dismayed even by the powers of darkness which are abroad by noon and night in the downtown districts of Chicago.

★

As a general thing lynchings in the United States are the result of a crime committed against woman, and it is woman who could, if she would, persuade the men to abide the course of law. But woman is not in the habit of making an argument for the law. She is apt to find interest only in things which are concrete. The abstractions of the law appear too remote to her to enforce her respect, and whenever they oppose themselves to her inherent sense of equity, she leaps to revolt. The hot and angry words spoken by women are to blame, in nine cases out of ten, for murderous law-breaking on the part of men, and women will very openly justify such law-breaking. Now and then a

woman like Ida Wells is to be found, who can bravely and persistently take a stand in favor of the law, recognizing the ultimate justice of it in spite of all temporary shortcomings, realizing that a nation must rise or fall by its laws; but such women appear to be few. It is the destiny of the greater part of them forever to miss justice,—the world will not treat them with justice, nor will they make a return of justice. Not only do they see all things through the medium of their emotions, but the world, unemotional enough in other matters, persists in regarding them as they regard it. It avenges insults to womanhood with frenzied counter-crime; it places woman on a pedestal or in the gutter; though neither pedestal nor gutter are her deserts. The studious, industrious, quiet-spoken women whom it is the fashion to refer to as "new" women are making an attempt to overcome the childish excesses of their own natures and the equally childish view which the world takes of them. To an extent they have succeeded. Can they not add to these successes by arousing a public detestation of violent law-breaking? Can they not cure the nation of the lynching habit?

★

TO TURN to pleasanter subjects: Is not one of the least understood and most essential phases of social economy, mere sociability? Are there not many neighborhoods in which personal charm and the accumulations of individual knowledge and experiences are allowed to go to waste from fixed habits of insularity? Think of the numberless fine men and women whose fineness is recognized only by their own families, or, perhaps, not even by them, but who shut within themselves treasures of originality and sweetness because they have grown up in neighborhoods where sociability is not cultivated. It is not an unusual thing for *ennui* to seize upon a whole town. The denizens spend their energies in trying to get away from the place. They suspect their neighbors of faults which do not exist in them; and they bring to the surface every disagreeable trait in themselves and in others. The thing that has caused this unhappy condition is nothing more or less than lack of sociability. The people may have drudged or they may have idled, but in either event they have allowed monotony to eat into their souls like dry-rot; it has consumed their powers of conversation, destroyed their kindliness, sapped their sense of justice, killed their idealism. But they must be far gone indeed before it is too late for a remedy. There is hardly a community so sunken in local hate and meanness, selfishness and cross-grainedness, that it cannot be rescued from its plight. Nor does it need more than one St. George to slay the dragon of life-disgust and weariness of spirit. Let one person summon back her geniality from the cave of selfishness in which it has been hiding, and call in her friends to enjoy her hospitality. Persisting in

that course, regardless of unjust criticisms and misinterpretation, she can restore the neighborhood to its better self. The man who used to be interesting, but who has almost forgotten it, will find his lost social graces. The woman who is still beautiful, but whom her friends have forgotten to compliment, will remember that her face is fair, and that flowers and beautiful colors are her heritage—are in harmony with her. The young man or woman, full of fancies, aspirations, and originalities, will come out of the sullen maze in which he or she has moved, and begin to see clearly, to speak well, and to feel that there is a use for the thoughts and visions implanted within his or her mind. Even the meanest man in town may unearth some interesting trait—for it takes a certain amount of force to win the reputation for superlative disagreeableness. The silliest woman may develop some grace; very likely she can dance well though she thinks poorly; or it may be that she sings like a bird though her tongue is that of a serpent. There are those who are entitled to some admiration if not to respect, and those who may be respected though they cannot be admired. But is it not a part of the highest human economy to utilize and cultivate whatever is good in man or woman? And may not the good grain of the soul, by reason of this cultivation, grow so thick that the tares will be crowded out?

★

WHAT is your vacation to be this year? You are not expecting to take any? What folly! You cannot afford it—or you cannot take all the children, and will not leave them—or there is some one in the household who must be cared for at home—or it is too much trouble to get ready? Dismiss the reasons, unless they be really vital. Do not regard the obstacles: most obstacles are superstitions and amount to nothing. It is not necessary to watch the house. Houses do not need watching. Other people can do your business for you for a week or two. Someone else will look after the store and the stock and the general routine. As for new clothes—which you are thinking you cannot afford—you do not need those either. What you want to do is to go out into the woods, down beside some river, and try to find out "what the warter is a' talkin' of." You need to play with the children and shout with them, and not worry about regulations, and get up when you please, and go to bed when the moon sets, and sing because the crickets sing, and eat what you can find, as the squirrels do, and be generally disorganized and natural and care-free. There is nothing that so strengthens one for the year's work, or that so heartens one for the battle (if one chances to be fighting battles), as a rest, an irresponsible, complete, and exultant rest, during which one bids civilization keep to the confines of her weary towns, and out of one's road, that one may have room to play.

ELIA W. PRATTIE.

ART AND MUSIC

MEASURED MUSIC

*If I could dwell
Where Israfel
Hath dwelt, and he where I,
He might not sing so wildly well
A mortal melody,
While a bolder note than this might swell
From my lyre within the sky.*

SO SANG one of America's most gifted poets, and one of the most unfortunate,—ever reaching upward to an unattained ideal, yet through his own weakness ever falling downward till, his fair fame overshadowed, he filled a dishonored grave: yet not unwept, unhonored, or unsung.

Since the morning stars sang together and the sons of God shouted for joy, earth has pulsed with music: no people, however sunken in the grossest barbarism or rejoicing in the highest civilization, but have felt its charm.

Among the records of the most ancient nations, yielding their buried treasures to the persistent pickaxe of the eager archaeologist, both musical instruments and sacred and national songs are found graven on the imperishable rock.

Rhythm, as shown both by historical records and by existing conditions of savage nations, antedates all other musical development. It seems as intimately associated with everything that a man can see or hear as is the beating of his own heart with his own life.

All movements in nature are regular and rhythmical. The leaves and limbs of a tree, when struck by a blow, vibrate as regularly as does a pendulum. The dash of waves on beach or rocky shore; the murmur of mighty forests; the patter of rain on leaf or roof; the undulations of earthquakes; the incoming and outgoing tides, steadily beating time to the music of a worn-out world; the regular inspiration and respiration necessary to life itself; the rhythmic contraction and expansion of arterial walls and nerve centres, while our hearts are beating time with a sort of mystic rhyme,—all bear witness to this truth. Even the stars speed onward in paths ever repeated.

The unwritten music of the spheres,

"Forever singing as they shine,
'The hand that made us is divine,'"

is no idle myth, "no dream of bard or seer."

Long before the age of poetry, music, or dancing, or even of fences and schoolboys, primitive man sat on a log and kicked his heels or clapped his hands in a rhythm of time and tune as perfect in its way as that of his posterity at the present day, who take delight in similar accompaniments to the rhythm of dance or song.

Having its foundation in nature, rhythm climbs through speech and poetry to its highest development in music.

"Speech is composed of syllables, each uttered with an individual stress which separates it from all others, and we find that every second or third syllable is invariably accented, and, because this is so, it is prolonged more than the others."

"Speech is also divided into groups composed of combined accented and unaccented syllables, and where it is necessary to pause in order to breathe, one group or series of groups must necessarily be separated from another."

Prominence or stress is given to the accented syllables, and subordination to the unaccented ones, in such a way that they balance each other.

"When the speaker, literate or illiterate, is thoroughly aroused, his tendency is to enunciate his words in measured cadences or sing-song; and the finished orator who does not wish to speak in measured sentences is obliged to throw in words to break the rhythm."

Orations were anciently chanted, and we find Cicero employing a slave to stand behind him with a pitch-pipe, to recall him to a proper inflection if his voice sank too low or rose too high.

One not unknown in musical circles says:

"We laugh and cry and speak in music. Everybody is more or less a musician, though he knows it not. A laugh is produced by repeating in quick succession two sounds which differ from each other by a single whole tone. A cry arising from pain, etc., is the utterance of two sounds differing a half a tone. A yawn runs down the whole octave before it ceases. A question cannot be asked without the change of tone which musicians call a fifth, a sixth, or an eighth. This is the music of nature. There is not a man who speaks five minutes without gliding through the whole gamut. Every sound of the human lips is loaded with music. So much is this the case that one man will pronounce your name, let it be the most plebeian one you can specify, with such exquisite beauty and musical tones that the commonest title will sound grander than a duke's, an earl's, or a lord's."

An essential element of good poetry is that accented syllables should in all cases be separated by exactly the same number of unaccented syllables, and exactly the same number of both should be placed in each line. Then each accented syllable, with one or more unaccented ones, constitutes a group, and a certain number of groups a line. As a result the line can be regularly measured by the groups into which it is divided. For this reason they are called measures, and, owing to the supposed correspondence of one measure after another to the movement of the feet in walking, they are also called feet.

Verse has been from the first the poet's medium of expression; and the most ancient examples of song fulfil the requirements of rhythm. This is especially true in the classical metres, which are musical in themselves; yet, though the Greeks and Romans had the advantage of us in the easy transposition of their language to meet the requirements of rhythm, their metrical arrangement is utterly lost by a change into another tongue.

The rhythmical structure of Hebrew—a language destined to be translated into all the languages of the earth—on the contrary, is unimpaired by translation; the most literal rendering of the words preserving best the beauty of their poetic arrangement.

Though the Hebrew language was capable of but few ornaments of expression, yet, on account of this peculiar characteristic, its thought-rhythm, it could, as has been aptly said, "compass a billowy, wide-sweeping ocean of music and roll out rhymeless verse like the sound of the thunders of Sinai."

Wordsworth has said:

"How much the requirements of poetry depend on the nice inflections of rhythm alone may be proved by taking the finest passages of Milton or Shakespeare and putting them into prose with the least possible variation of the words themselves. The attempt would be like gathering up dew-drops, which appear jewels and pearls on the grass, but run into water in your hands: the essence and the elements remain, but the grace and sparkle and the form are gone."

Every now and then the effort is made to prove that poetry is independent of rhyme, that it is a worn-out ornament, no longer capable of giving pleasure to æsthetic minds; yet the immortal lyrics of our language are of simple metres and perfectly rhymed, and the greatest poets of all time have used "this prime element of song, which endures through the ages without appreciable wear." It has been well said that "a butterfly might as well shed his wings as for English lyrics to cast off rhyme." There are lines and even phrases in Sappho's poetry that have such an indescribable charm that even one able only to pronounce the words, but entirely unacquainted with the language, cannot fail to be thrilled with their music. Sappho's poetry is not alone in this. The most ignorant listener to the careless schoolboy scanning his "*Arma virumque cano*," cannot fail to be fascinated by its rhythm.

"Milton could write ten-syllabled lines of ponderous grandeur, gloom, and glory, and Shakespeare could reproduce life in incomparable blank verse; but these great masters felt the indomitable need of rhyme when they came to write their splendid lyrics."

Metre will not answer the purpose of rhythm and rhyme, as seen in Longfellow's use of a Scandinavian metre in "*Hiawatha*," and Tennyson's labored attempts to imitate Greek odes; or even in the poems of Browning, the incomprehensible, the incomparable, the immaculate.

It is a characteristic of rhyming words to emphasize strongly the idea expressed in them. They convey the impression that something im-

portant has been said, and, if they occur frequently, that many important things have been said, and said in a short time, indicating rapid movement of thought. This produces instantly a definite effect, more pleasing to the average mind and more effective than any other.

What but this holds the senseless jingles of "Mother Goose" so long in memory? What but this and the feeling expressed gives the songs of the cotton plantations their humorous or pathetic power? the songs of the Civil War and other national lyrics their inspiration? What but this and the themes of which they treat give the "Gospel Hymns" their power to thrill the heart and lift to a higher life? or the exquisite hymns of the ages, their never-failing charm, introducing us to the land of Beulah, from which the towers and palaces of the New Jerusalem may be seen?

Everyone will recall the story of Douglas Jerrold, who, when recovering from a severe illness, was presented with a copy of Browning's "*Sordello*." After reading line after line without getting any intelligible idea of the mystic production, the thought struck him that he had lost his mind during his illness, and was so imbecile as not to know it. In a frenzy of despair, with the perspiration oozing from his brow, he thrust the book into the hand of his wife, crying, "Read this, my dear." After several attempts to make sense of the first few pages she gave back the book. "Bother the gibberish," said she. "I can't understand a word of it." "Thank Heaven!" said Jerrold. "Then I am not an idiot."

Would this have been the case had the sense of "*Sordello*" been clothed in the charming, unforgettable rhythm of Poe's exquisite lyric:

"And neither the angels in Heaven above,
Nor the demons down under the sea,
Can ever dissever my soul from the soul
Of the beautiful Annabel Lee.

"For the moon never beams without bringing me
dreams
Of the beautiful Annabel Lee,
And the stars never rise but I feel the bright
eyes
Of the beautiful Annabel Lee."

Which would have the most power over the heart or live longest in memory?

Ruskin says: "The best music, like the best painting, is entirely popular; it at once commends itself to everyone, and does so through all ages."

"Let me make the ballads of a nation," said one, "and I care not who makes the laws."

Rhythm is the life and soul of music, which begins where speech leaves off. Poetry is the art of language; music the art of sounds. The difference is well stated by Mendelssohn: "Music extends into regions whither language cannot follow."

Historically, all music was derived from song, starting with the elements of speech, composed of syllables differing from one another in duration, force, quality, and pitch.

The moment these differences begin to be made for their own sakes, without reference to the meaning which they have in words, we are in the realm of music.

The meanings of musical sounds are not dependent on their formation as words are, but upon their order of sequence, and therefore can be produced with any amount of rapidity consistent with giving a general impression of the fact that they are present. Hence, very many more separate sounds can be used in a musical than in a poetic measure, and the manner of arranging them can be more complicated. Many compositions require the production of over a thousand tones per minute, yet in a well-composed air no note, however short or low, can be spared; the least is as necessary as the greatest. Each and every note has its value in the place assigned to it which it never could possess by itself, and of which it would be instantly deprived if separated from the others.

Uneducated musical people may be able to see no theme, no melody, in any music which does not develop into a dance or a song, yet every good piece of music is a tone picture. The trained listener sees it with his ears: not only the perspective, but also the details, the foliage, the lights and shades, the winding of the stream, the rocks and ledges, the roadway, the cart, the ox, the peasant in his shirt-sleeves, his contented mien, the pebbles and grass at his feet, the poise of his straw hat, his rustic beard, his rolled-up sleeves, and a hundred other things that go to make up the picture.

A well-disposed set of musical notes can express the depths of all affection, giving courage to the soldier, language to the lover, consolation to the mourner, joy to the joyful, and humility to the devout.

"Their music infatuates me," said Paderewski, speaking of Chinese musicians. "Music? Why, it is wonderful music. I could not understand the words, but the music told the story."

Apropos of Chinese words, it might be well to say that John Wesley described the Chinese language as an invention of the Devil to keep the missionaries out of China. The Chinese language has 44,700 characters in the standard dictionary, with 700 distinct sounds, to each of which is attached a sort of metrical scale, ranging from an octave to an octave and a half, giving a variety of tones which only a musical ear can detect. The tone is all important—one word may mean grasshopper, oar, elephant, mechanics, or pickles, according to the tone. Put an aspirate in the middle, and you have good luck, examine, wall, spear, gun, etc., depending on the tone given. Change the tone, and a man becomes a nightingale, a carrot, and many other ridiculous things.

Apart from musical rhythm we should have no sense of expectancy, with its wonderful power to cause pain or pleasure.

The masses love melody rather than harmony, and the best definition of true melody is

something that may be sung. Harmony developed from melody, but not until the world had been accustomed to melody for many centuries.

The Greeks, notwithstanding—or possibly because of—their 1,240 characters in musical notation, possessed only the simplest harmony or none at all. This is a characteristic of the Gaelic music, which exerts a great charm by melody alone. One also finds that the melodies of old Scotland, Ireland, and Wales have an infinite variety because of the many modes or scales employed.

As it is also to the Greeks that, in spite of their ignorance of harmony, we owe the knowledge of the scale, it is possible that in the folk-songs of Scotland, Ireland, and Wales we have a survival of the old, preharmonic system of the Greeks. All ancient poems were accompanied with music of some kind, though the union of poetry and music in the old Greek repertoire did not wholly do away with purely instrumental music.

Tone pictures were sometimes attempted with the flute or the harp. Dorian, having once heard the portrayal of a storm at sea on the cithara, remarked: "I have heard a better tempest in a pot of boiling water," which we have perpetuated in a well-known proverb—and still the kettle sings.

Music and poetry, however, were employed in the closest companionship, and at the Greek banquets, instead of the modern after-dinner speech, every Athenian gentleman held himself in readiness to improvise a song, both words and music, accompanying himself on the cithara. Themistocles once became the butt of the whole dinner-table because he was unequal to the expected improvisation. This banquet music, or *skolion*, is an inferential proof of the absence of harmony in Greek music, for it would be impossible to imagine anyone composing a poem, a melody, and correct harmony all at once. In almost every operatic reform since that of 1600, musicians have endeavored to build in some degree on the old Greek foundations.

In the earliest Christian hymns, melody and expression of thought only were given, with no attempt at harmony. St. John Chrysostom says: "Young and old, rich and poor, women, men, slaves, and citizens,—all of us form but one melody together."

It is to the church that we owe the first singing-school. The riches pouring into the coffers of the church about 320 A. D., from wealthy people who thought the end of the world was at hand, and hoped in this way to make their peace with God, were used to establish orphan asylums where boys were trained to the service of the church. A good musical curriculum formed part of the course of study, the days of rough improvisation had passed away, and the music of the church service was soon far in advance of anything ever attempted in paganism. St. Ambrose and St. Gregory also made

reforms in music, and the Ambrosian and Gregorian chants have come down to the present day.

Roughly speaking, the line of the evolution of music has been from the song of the savage to the symphonies of Beethoven. It has evolved along this line because taste has evolved along this line, and what is best in music is best in taste. The savage musician appealed to low feelings; the best music to-day stimulates all the higher emotions. Good music is not the

best music, but it is good in proportion as it approaches the best. It must be uplifting and not degrading, and its popularity must be supported by the generally received canons of art.

We may close this paper with the striking words of the Abbé Franz Liszt:

"Music is never stationary; successive forms and styles are only like so many resting-places—like tents pitched and taken down again on the road to the Ideal."

NEWPORT, R.I.

ALICE C. BANNING.

THE NEW YORK ART SEASON

THE art season for this great art centre has practically closed. It has been exceptionally pleasant and profitable. It opened with emphasis in October and has been growing more emphatic each month, culminating in the spring displays in the various galleries. The only ones to regret the season's close will be the dealers and auctioneers, and possibly a few artists who have not been successful in sales. But often the unsuccessful artist of one season reaps a good harvest of gain in another. To fail in the matter of sales is often the best luck an artist can crave. It sends him back to his studio with a grim set purpose to do better work and so command the market. Artists, like other professional workmen, are apt to fall into ruts; and woe to the aspirant for fame or patronage who thus gets into a groove or strikes a "dead level."

The Society of American Artists, on West Fifty-seventh Street, opened on the 25th of March and closed with April. It exhibited 354 subjects, including miniature and medallion work. The exhibition was marked by some very clever pictures, a few that were remarkably good but in no sense great.

Its chief attraction was the splendid religious painting, "Christ and His Disciples at Emmaus," by the French artist Dagnan-Bouveret, loaned to this society by the Carnegie Art Gallery in Pittsburgh. It was purchased a year ago in France by H. C. Frick, who paid \$50,000 for it and presented it to the Pittsburgh gallery. It is a remarkable painting and has already been noticed in our Art Department.

A strong impression on looking through these fine galleries was that there was too much copying of modern French artists, and this leads to a somewhat indignant inquiry why our artists persist in this style of work. It is not popular; it is not gaining on an appreciative public. The leading art stores rarely handle it. But it is a fad and must have its day, though we pray that it may be a very short one.

There was some good work, however, fine portraits, mural decorations, a few prize pictures, good attendance, and plenty of room for American improvement another year.

The seventy-fourth exhibition at the Academy of Design opened on the 3d of April and closed on the 13th of May. It was the best ex-

hibit that has been held there for years. It commanded large attendance, was fortunate in many sales, and won from the critical press hearty commendations and sharp criticisms—both valuable. The gathering agents for summer exhibitions at different cities and resorts will secure most of the unsold pictures and give other crowds a metropolitan benefit. It being the last display in the old Academy there was naturally a good deal of kindly and generous sentiment through it all. This Academy was founded by fifteen artists and has done a great work for America. It will move this summer to Morningside Heights, where a temporary building will be reared for use in the fall. The present Venetian building has been occupied some twenty-five years. There was a subtle, conscious "Vale" atmosphere in the gathering of old friends and artists. But we are always turning from the old to the new.

During the season local dealers have vied with each other in special galleries of some able and favored artist or artists. Most of these have been highly creditable and well visited. There has been a noticeable artistic Renaissance. Old Master paintings, so long a drug in the market, have been suddenly placed on sale by a score of prominent dealers, and have been bid for with an enthusiasm never known before. The preference has usually been given to the Masters of the Barbizon School and the portraits of the eighteenth century. Just what circumstances led up to this state of affairs it is impossible to determine. But it is a healthful sign and is sure to react most favorably, by another season, in the interests of the best American art.

Art has its fashion as well as hats and gowns, and it may be as severe and dominating, though we may not have sensed it. But there is something peculiar in the fact that a doubtful Vandyke or Van Marcke or Hobbema has brought its thousands, while a work of positive merit by some unknown artist will hardly sell for the value of its frame. But this freak is everywhere. It used to run wild in the tulip trade of staid old Holland. Things and folks are freaky and run off into blank fadism. A picture of merit is a power by whomsoever painted, and buyers for art's sake are finding it out and striking some royal bargains.

F. C. H.

THE LITERARY WORLD

"When Knight-hood was in historical fiction win a modest Flower." though brave recruit in the author of this delightful romance.* The novelist, who, it appears, is an Indiana lawyer with a taste for the romance of English history, has hit upon an interesting subject for his story,—that of the loves of the winsome sister of Henry VIII and Charles Brandon, afterward Duke of Suffolk. He has also found an attractive title for his novel, drawn from Leigh Hunt's couplet:

* There lived a knight, *when knight-hood was in flower*,
Who charmed alike the tilt-yard and the bower."

The knight who is the chief hero of the book is a young English soldier of fortune, returned to England from the Continental wars in the early years of "bluff King Hal." We first meet with him at an inn at Ipswich, Suffolk, where he and an elder brother, with their father, Sir William Brandon, lodged for a few days. When the story proper opens, the two brothers were gambling, the fashionable amusement of the time, and had discovered their opponent, Sir Adam Judson, cheating in the game, and had exposed him. This led to combats, in which the elder brother and the father fell. The younger Brandon then tackled the noted duellist, only to discover that the latter wore a coat of mail under his doublet, and so was impervious to his weapon, as he had been to the swords of both father and brother. Incensed at discovering this cowardly ruse in his opponent, young Brandon, who was a skilled swordsman, changed his tactics, so as to tire out his adversary, and, having done so, he finally settled accounts with him for his cheating and for causing the death of his brother and father.

The news of Brandon's pluck and skill made him a person of great interest at Henry's court, whither he now went, as a kinsman of his was master of horse to the king. There he formed an intimate and lifelong friendship with a court attaché, the young and favored Sir Edwin Caskoden, who is in love with Lady Jane Bolingbroke, maid of honor to the beautiful Princess Mary, the king's wayward sister. Through Caskoden's instrumentality, and by the favor of his own handsome person and chivalric bearing, young Brandon attracts Princess Mary, who in her wonted imperious but impulsive manner speedily falls in love

with him. This at first is not to the liking of the penniless knight, who is discreet enough not to carry his heart on his sleeve, and who keeps his head sufficiently to reflect what it would mean to him if he permitted himself, a mere gentleman commoner, to fall in love with



CHARLES MAJOR

a Tudor princess, the siren sister of the king. But Brandon, however much he at first steels his heart against the sweet and really maidenly princess, has ere long to strike his colors to love, and surrender to the charms of the winsome Mary.

Before this happens, however, the author contrives some capital situations, portraying with charming art and rare delicacy the entanglements of love and the efforts of both to resist the snares of Dan Cupid. With the princess, pride of birth at first interposes its obstacles, in addition to a mistaken notion that Brandon is playing a part, and is holding back, as she thinks, to provoke her to compromise herself by some act of impulsive and wayward passion. In this, however, she is wrong, for

* * * When Knight-hood was in Flower; or, the Love Story of Charles Brandon and Mary Tudor," rendered into modern English from Sir Edwin Caskoden's Memoir. By Edwin Caskoden (Charles Major). 19th edition. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.

Brandon is modest as well as wary in his ambitions, and, unlike the gallants of the court, and even the king himself, is not given to amours or to undifferentiated ways with women. In this respect he is a knight of the better type of his age,—the type of Chevalier Bayard, whom he may have come across abroad—*sans peur et sans reproche*. Nor, however ill a social match he may be thought for the princess, is he the less worthy of her love in other respects, for he is brave and true, as well as handsome and accomplished.

The course of true love, in the case of this handsomely matched couple, even when all barriers between them are thrown down, runs fitfully, and at times dramatically adverse to the fond desires and longings of the lovers. But into the misadventures that chequer their harassed lives and add zest to the book as a love story, we cannot here enter. Nor ought we even to outline the issues of the concealed courtship that goes on, further than to say that history is in the main followed by the author, and what that is the reader can find for himself, either from the prosaic annals of the time, or more delightfully from the engaging pages of Mr. Major's romance. Lack of space, also, forbids us to say aught of the subordinate love tale, which concerns the assumed writer of the memoir and his lady-love, the maid of honor to Princess Mary. These lovers form a delightful foil to the more entrancing chief characters in the story, while their less stormy careers are made to blend well with the more tragic happenings in the book. The story as a whole is capably handled, and there is a charm, particularly in the portraying of the Princess Mary's character and personality, with which few readers of the novel will fail to be fascinated. If not a brilliant success, the work is a real one, and is throughout its pages both attractive and wholesome. The story, we are not surprised to hear, is shortly to be dramatized.

G. M. A.

★

Mr. Bradford Before cutting the pages of
on Popular Mr. Gamaliel Bradford's two
Government serious volumes on "The Lesson of Popular Government,"* one is perhaps inclined to ask whether humanity has yet learned that lesson; whether the time has yet come when a single mind can grapple with that problem of problems—government by the people; whether all the factors going to make up that problem are as yet fairly stated; whether, even, we yet see what all those factors are and what are their correlations and interactions. "Popular Government!"—what is contained in that phrase? Or rather, what is not contained in that phrase?

In tribal days "government" was simple: the chief ruled his people and warred upon his neighboring chief. In feudal days the problem was but little less simple: the lords of manors

were but chiefs under a lord paramount or sovereign, and the sovereign's most arduous task was to curb his subordinate chiefs. But when representation proper was introduced, and when to the representatives of the people was given the power of the purse, a new and unknown quantity was admitted into the equation—an unknown quantity whose true value, perhaps, we have not yet determined. This stage of government took on many forms. The time of the Stuarts in England was its critical period. Up to the reign of Henry VIII the real power lay with the monarch; after the reign of Charles I it had shifted to the Commons; and from that day to this it has continued to shift. Not that it actually ever went back to the monarch; but, owing to multiplex causes—such, for example, as changes in modes of representation; changes in the temper of the people; changes in the character of the sovereign; changes in internal and international complications and relations,—it has shifted from class to class, from oligarchies and polyarchies to monarchies (the monarch being sometimes, not the reigning prince, but his prime minister—as in the case of William Pitt), from dynasty to dynasty, from war ministers to theoretical statesmen. Large indeed have been the variations of the gyrations of popular government.

And to-day! What is not included in the word "government" to-day? The functions of government seem to have expanded as society has become more complex. In primal days government meant peace, war, and the collection of taxes. Now it means all that comes under the most elastic meaning that can be attached to such abstract terms as social science, political economy, the regimentation of industry, the ordering of commerce, sanitation, the judiciary, the incidence of taxation, the levying of duties, making of treaties, the raising and equipment of troops, the manufacture of ordnance, the encouragement of arts, sciences, and explorations. And with all these things,—the "people" are supposed to deal,—to form intelligent opinions and to see that their intelligent opinions are carried out. Is it any wonder that, before cutting the pages of Mr. Bradford's volumes, one pauses and asks whether humanity has yet learned "the lesson of popular government?"

Again, popular government varies so much in different nations. The popular government of France is one thing—if it is not, indeed, many things in one; the popular government of Great Britain is quite another thing; the popular government of the United States is a third thing, and entirely distinct from the other two. Yet Mr. Bradford has the courage—we had almost said the hardihood—to take into his purview, and to generalize from, the single abstract phrase "popular government" and therefrom to teach "the lesson." To the present reviewer it seems, in his very humble opinion, that there are very many kinds of popular

* New York and London: The Macmillan Co., 1899.

government to-day co-existent, and that from each there are to be learned, some time or other, perhaps, very many lessons.

But to Mr. Bradford's book itself. After cutting and perusing the pages it is very evident that the question previously asked was by no means irrational. The mass of matter with which the author found himself compelled to deal—and with which, to do him justice, he does excellently and most painstakingly deal—is immense. The headings of each of his chapters would form, each of them, a theme large enough for two volumes. For example—"Universal Suffrage"—"Some Criticisms of Democracy"—"The French Revolution"—"Government by Legislature"—"Public Finance"—"The Spirit of Party"—"The State Governments"—"City Government"—"The Lesson of Colonization"—"Executive Responsibility." To discuss these gigantic questions in the space of some thousand and ninety pages requires an eye for historical perspective and a power of generalization given only to the acutest and at the same time profoundest of historians. However, to that acute and profound historian Mr. Bradford's studies will be an enormous aid. His facts, figures, citations, examples, and arguments are innumerable and important. Some parts of the field he has surveyed with minutest care; other parts (the judiciary, for example) he has, with rare humility, left to what he considers abler hands. Mr. Bradford's task was titanic; he has acquitted himself to the best of his ability, and his work will be consulted by all historians of popular government.

Of the author's own convictions the chief is that the great evil of popular government lies in the fact that the legislature is continually apt to take unto itself powers which would more beneficially be utilized by the executive alone—in itself a generalization of supreme importance and deserving earnest study, not only on the part of theoretical historians, but on the part of practical politicians. This fault he traces into the most remote corners, not only of federal and of state, but even of municipal, government; and he supports it by abundant argument. If this were the only "lesson" which humanity was able at this particular moment in the checkered career of popular government to learn, Mr. Bradford should be heartily thanked for learning it and for attempting to teach it. His book should be—and probably will be—read, not only by historians, but by statesmen, in whose hands, after all, is the power of turning the shifting current of popular will and of popular rule.

T. A. H.

★

"The Philippines and Round About" This work on "The Philippines," by Major G. J. Young-husband (London and New York: The Macmillan Co.), is a lively and entertaining narrative—the record of personal

experiences in Manila at the time of Dewey's destruction of Montojo's fleet and the subsequent capture of the capital. The author is an English officer, attached to the Queen's Own Corps of Guides, who has seen active service in India, and evidently possesses a more than ordinary instinct for travel and adventure. His book is sprightly reading, and the exciting incidents which he narrates are well and graphically told, agreeably interspersed with anecdote. The store of information he gives us is somewhat meagre; but there is not a dull page in the book; while there are many picturesquely written and exciting passages and some vigorous deliverances, particularly on the theme of Spanish misrule on the islands. He is specially severe on the Spanish priests in the Philippines, whom he holds responsible for the rising of the natives and accuses of extortion, loose morals, and debauchery. Nor is he less severe on the Spanish political administration of the islands and on those who were responsible for the defences of Manila. Here is the author's comment on Montojo, whose fleet Dewey so speedily destroyed:

"A good deal has been said and written about the gallantry of the Spaniards, and that meed of praise need not be dimmed in so far as the rank and file, the sailors, marines, and lesser officers are concerned. They fought in sinking rat-traps, the victims of gross incompetence on the part of their superior officers and criminal neglect on the part of those in power, be they admirals or ministers of government. Montojo himself appears to have been an embodiment of the class of superior officer to which Spain entrusts her armies and fleets. A man of suave and courteous manners, but too old for any profession but that of a dignitary of the church, he neglected the most manifest alternative, the defence of the Corregidor channels. With from four to eight hours' warning he could devise no more spirited action than to remain with his ships like a flock of maimed ducks at anchor, and his resistance was as feeble as his tactics. On the other hand, we are informed that he waved his sword with great ferocity from the stern of the boat which was taking him on shore, where his carriage and pair were ready waiting to carry him to Manila, fourteen miles away from the fleet which he had with culpable negligence lost, and from the sight of a thousand corpses of brave men whom his incapacity had sacrificed. Had Montojo gone to the bottom with his comrades on the flagship he would at any rate have died a brave man; living, he must for the short remainder of his days exist only as one of the pitiable monuments of a nation's decay."

Major Younghusband has high praise for Admiral Dewey, whose whole conception and execution of the naval operations at Cavité, he cordially states, left nothing to be desired. He also speaks highly of the conduct of the American army of occupation, most of whom, however, being volunteers and doing duty in the tropics, seemed to English eyes, in their "jim crow" hats and promiscuous shirts, somewhat

unsoldierlike. Their language and free and easy manners toward their officers, the author observes, are also decidedly western. Of the leader of the Filipinos, whom the author met at Malolos, we get a good description in the chapter entitled, "The First President of the Republic."

The author writes:

"Aguinaldo stands about 5 feet 4 inches in height, is slightly built, and was dressed in a coat and trousers of drab tussore silk. He is a pure Philippine native, though showing a slight trace of Chinese origin, of dark complexion, and much pock-marked. His face is square and determined, the lower lip protruding markedly. On the whole a man of pleasant demeanor, even-tempered, and with strong character. Slow of speech, and perhaps also of thought, his past career has hall-marked him as a man of prompt decision and prompt action. Many people, and amongst others Admiral Dewey, were much puzzled to find so quiet and apparently unintelligent and listless a young man the acknowledged and undisputed head of so great a movement. Many thought that he was a mere puppet in the hands of stronger men; others, that he was a safe, weak man bolstered up by strong conflicting powers on all sides, much in the way that Switzerland as a nation is bolstered up in Europe by strong Powers on all sides. But a remarkably prompt action served to show that Aguinaldo was no puppet, but sailed decisively on his own bottom. A short time ago it appears that another of the insurgent leaders began to secure a following which bade fair to shake the supremacy of Aguinaldo. The President stayed to take no half measures, attempted no parleying; he grasped the nettle firmly, and, ordering his reputed rival out into the courtyard, had him shot on the spot."

This bloodthirstiness and indifference to the sacredness of human life, Major Younghusband traces to Spanish brutality, an example of which he cites in connection with the efforts of Spain to put down the native insurrection of 1896. Having proclaimed martial law in August, the first scenes in the drama were enacted by the Spaniards seizing 169 insurgents who were suspected of disaffection, and casting them—

—"into a small dungeon which lies below water level in the bastion of San Sebastian, the dungeon having only one air-hole, which the sentry outside firmly closed to keep out the rain! Into this confined space, in the month of August, on one of the hottest nights of the year, these 169 poor victims were thrust at the bayonet's point. Ventilation or communication with the open air there is none, and it is perhaps a matter of wonder that only fifty-four of the prisoners were found dead in the morning. The remainder were led out and shot on the Luneta, the fashionable promenade on the shores of Manila Bay. On September 12 of the same year thirteen more prominent suspects were publicly shot on the Luneta in the presence of Spanish ladies, whilst the band played lively airs and whilst the photographer was busy with his camera. Amongst the pris-

oners were two jail officials, two or three rich landed proprietors, a tailor, a schoolmaster, a doctor, and a merchant. The prisoners stood in a row on the curbstone facing the sea, with their arms and legs bound, and were shot down by squads of soldiers from behind."

Other instances of Spanish atrocity are cited in the work, and occasionally furnish material for gruesome illustration by photography.

G. M. A.

★

Lang's "Nursery Rhyme Book" In a serious age it is a genial as well as a healthful service to devote thought to the pleasure and happiness of the children. Especially is it fitting in a literary man who has the gifts to turn aside from weightier studies to illuminate the nonsense-books we put into the hands of the young. This is what the English *littérateur*, Mr. Andrew Lang, has done in editing "The Nursery Rhyme Book," with charming illustrations by L. Leslie Brooke. The volume, which is published by Frederick Warne & Co., London and New York (price \$2.00), is brimful of the old delights of one's childhood days—those favorite rhymes and jingles of the nursery known to most of us, but rarely now met with in so dainty a form and in so choice and comprehensive a collection. Here are the entrancing poetic tales, proverbs, songs, games, riddles, lullabies and jingles with which we fed our youthful imagination—oh, so many years ago now!—and which we are glad to lay hands upon again that we may bring the dear old nonsense things to the minds and hearts of the households of to-day. To a student of folk-lore like Mr. Lang, the gathering together of these old-time jingles has manifestly been a labor of love, and a labor of love also has it been to his artist collaborateur who has embellished the work so attractively. The volume will be found a well-nigh priceless treasure in the household.

G. M. A.

★

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Younghusband, Major G. J.: "The Philippines and Round About." Illus. 8vo. London and New York: The Macmillan Co.
- Risley, R. V.: "Men's Tragedies." (Realistic Stories of Crises in Men's Lives.) 8vo. New York: The Macmillan Co.
- Major, Charles: "When Knighthood was in Flower." A Romance. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
- Donnelly, Joseph Gordon: "Jesus Delaney." (Character Types in Mexico.) 12mo. New York: The Macmillan Co.
- Merwin-Webster: "The Short Line War." (A vivid story of an attempt to capture a small railroad by a big one.) 12mo. New York: The Macmillan Co.
- Dix, Beulah Marie: "Hugh Gwyeth: A Roundhead Cavalier." An Historical Romance. New York: The Macmillan Co.
- MacLennan, Wm. and McIlwraith, J. N.: "The Span o' Life." A Tale of Louisbourg and Quebec. Illus. 8vo. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- Goldsmith, Oliver: "The Vicar of Wakefield." Edited with introduction and notes by Henry W. Boynton, M.A. New York: The Macmillan Co.
- Fortier, Alcée: "Précis de l'Histoire de France, avec des Notes Explicatives en Anglais." New York: The Macmillan Co.
- Stead, W. T.: "The United States of Europe on the Eve of the Parliament of Peace." Portraits. 12mo. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.
- Marquis, T. G.: "Marguerite de Roberval." (A Romance of the Days of Jacques Cartier.) 12mo. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD

MEMORY-TRAINING, GOOD AND BAD

MEMORY is perhaps the most valuable of the mental powers. By it we are enabled to preserve, ever ready for immediate use, that experience which is necessary for self-preservation, as well as that required for the intellectual and æsthetic enjoyments. Of all the mental faculties, memory is perhaps the most susceptible to cultivation, and is therefore most liable to wrong direction. From Simonides, the Greek master of mnemonics, to Loiset, the purveyor of standard psychological principles and schemes as "the art of never forgetting"; from the old-time pedagogue, whose scheme of instruction was based entirely on memoriter exercise, to the most advanced modern educator who uses the commonplace book and the library as a memory, the systems of memory-training are numerous and varied, good, bad, and indifferent.

It is generally admitted that individuals by nature differ widely in mental capacity—that variations do not, as Locke and the older metaphysicians believed, result solely from early training and environment. There is a disposition, too, on the part of the most advanced physiological psychologists, to believe that the various faculties of the mind are exercised through distinct organs which will ultimately be definitely located as the centres of motor control have lately been mapped out. It is now agreed that the intellectual powers are exercised through the frontal lobe of the brain, although the different faculties have not yet been localized, except phrenologically.

Memory is the power of storing, and of recalling at will, mental impressions. The capacity of the memory depends largely on a certain susceptibility or plasticity of the brain substance not fully understood, and on the total nervous energy. These conditions vary greatly in different individuals. Nor is the power of the memory uniform in the same individual. One may be able to remember music with ease, yet have great difficulty in remembering events. Another will remember music with difficulty, yet recall events readily. Macaulay never remembered a tune and never forgot an historical event that he had read.

In walking along the street we see many things; but we remember only those to which the attention is forcibly directed, voluntarily or involuntarily. The more exclusive and forcible the attention, other things being equal, the more lasting the impression. The same is true of what we read or hear or feel. Hence the cultivation of the memory is largely the culti-

vation of attention. Most persons remember best what they see. An impression is heightened by being conveyed through several of the senses.

Facts and ideas are fixed in the mind by natural links of association, forming a logical chain. A new fact is connected by its resemblance or contrast to something already familiar. Hence the educational maxim, "Proceed, step by step, from the known to the unknown," is most important. Concrete illustrations are valuable, not only as a means of arousing the attention, but because, judiciously used, they furnish means of associating the ideas intended to be fixed in the mind.

Repetition strengthens an impression. When the natural attention and means of association are weak, repetition is usually resorted to. The practice of conning lessons tends to weaken the power of logical association. The inductive method of learning languages, which provides natural associations, especially in the early stages, when the means of association are very limited, is to be preferred to the grammatical method. In all teaching and in all self-education there is a natural method to be followed, and an unnatural method to be avoided. The question is, What is the natural method?

Memory is to be cultivated in the same way as any other faculty—by normal exercise. Wrong methods of memory-training may increase the capacity for remembering certain facts and at the same time weaken the natural memory. A good memory is less important than formerly. No one can hope to carry in the mind all that is known even of one science. Books are more numerous and more accessible than formerly. The memoriter system of education has happily fallen into disrepute. Book learning is no longer regarded as education. There is yet, however, too high a premium placed on memory by teachers and examiners. Perhaps the greatest general improvement that could be made in education would be, not the proposed abolition of examinations, but the free use of books and notes in examinations. This would put an end to the tendency to use the mind as a mere repository of facts. It would develop that exercise of memory which is most serviceable. A system that devotes so large a share of attention to charging the memory with details is not merely wasteful, but injurious; for it does not train that use of memory which is most beneficial.

Individuals differ both in the ability for making logical associations and in the way of

remembering. One should study carefully to discover the means by which he remembers any class of facts. This will indicate the natural means of cultivating the memory.

Association should be by natural relations. The practice of remembering by means of arbitrary symbols must always injure the natural power of association. Things to be remembered should first be understood in their true relations as to cause and effect, order of time, proportion, or of place. Right memory-training is largely the training of the ability for making natural associations.

It frequently becomes necessary to fix in the mind certain unrelated facts. As a rule, superior minds remember such facts with greater difficulty than those of inferior reasoning and analytical powers. Recently the writer was much annoyed at being unable to remember a simple fact which an uneducated janitor remembered without difficulty—whether the check-draft in a furnace should be raised or lowered to increase the draft. After making several mistakes, attention was directed to the necessity of fixing the proper relations in the mind. The effect of letting *down* a slide lessened the draft, and consequently *lowered* the temperature. This logical association entirely overcame the difficulty.

It has been observed that many if not most of our great men were regarded as blockheads at school. This was not because superior minds do not develop as early as others, but because of their more pronounced individuality. It would be strange indeed if a mind like that of Webster or Beecher should learn an old-time lesson in arithmetic, geography, or history as readily as the average boy. The superior mind is not satisfied with chance or arbitrary relations. It works, as Professor Huxley says the mind developed by a rational education should work, like a "logical engine." Inability to learn school and college lessons as readily as the average student, by the conventional method, may be an indication of superior mental endowment.

It has frequently been remarked that a good memory and creative genius are seldom or never found together. If by good memory is meant ability to recollect details of any description, this must necessarily be true. But it is evident from the nature of memory that great creative talent must be accompanied by great natural memory of the same character. A

Macaulay must have a great memory for historical facts and allusions; a Beethoven must have a great musical memory; and a Darwin must have a great scientific memory. Yet George Bidder, the calculating boy, was infinitely superior to any of those great men in memory for numbers, and there is no doubt that an idiot living in the same neighborhood with any of them would have remembered trifling occurrences much better than they.

No one ever succeeded in any great work without becoming distinguished for "absent-mindedness." For no one can concentrate the attention thoroughly, as the sun's rays are concentrated by a burning-glass, without withdrawing the attention from the surroundings. Hence what is often regarded as an indication of mental weakness is an indication of mental strength. Concentration is to be distinguished from mind-wandering.

An excellent means of training the attention is the practice of adding mentally from dictation. A series of numbers may be read slowly while the attention is taxed by being compelled to carry the total forward and obtain the correct result. The student who finds difficulty in holding his attention on the subject of study will do well to make an abstract of each paragraph and of each chapter of the text. The practice of making comments on the margins of books is a good means of directing the attention to the most important matters.

The capacity of the average mind is so limited that, to be well equipped in any direction, it must remain undeveloped in others. To remember some things well one must ignore others. The pure gold must be separated from the dross.

There is no patent system by which anyone may easily learn to remember the contents of any book after one reading; and it is safe to say that there never will be any such "wonderful discovery." There are cases on record of persons who have been able to perform such wonderful feats, and it is entirely probable that a long course of training might enable many to acquire such ability; but it would be of no more value, in ordinary cases, than the ability to walk ten miles an hour. In the one case it would be necessary to compete with the phonograph; in the other, with the bicycle.

THOMAS J. ALLEN.

AURORA COLLEGE, ILL.

NOTES ON READING

EDWARD EVERETT HALE tells us that he once knew a young man, who afterward became insane, who was so impressed with his own ignorance that he went to the college librarian and asked him at which end of the library it was customary for students to begin. And Charles Dudley Warner tells us that a college professor not long ago informed him "that a freshman came to him, after he

had been recommending certain books in the literature class, and said he had never read a book in his life. This was literally true. Except his text-books, he had never read a book. He had passed a fair examination, but of reading he knew no more than a Kaffir."

The first thing one notices is that very few people read, in the exact sense of the word. "Reading and writing come by nature" is as

true of the one as it is of the other; and while an enormous proportion of the people of these United States are capable of the physical act of reading, and do, indeed, practice it now and then, so far as to read the market reports or the deaths and marriages, only a few are habitual readers. And even of these, how many are there who read anything besides cheap fiction,—cheap, I mean, in quality,—the ready-made literature turned out by the fiction-mills? In the public libraries seventy per cent of the books taken out in the course of a year is cheap fiction; and the cheap fiction which gets itself between the covers of a book and upon the shelves of a library is not one half of that which runs its course in the columns of some weekly story-paper. Now it is not right to call the consumers of stuff like this readers. Charles Lamb speaks of books which are not books, so these are readers who are not readers. They read with the eye, while the brain is inert.

This class is far harder to deal with than the still larger class which, like the collegians Mr. Hale and Mr. Warner tell us about, have never made any use of the power of reading which was hammered into them in the primary school. The man who has rarely opened a book may be induced to do so; and he may be so gratified with his discovery of the pleasure and profit which he found in reading that he will never give it up. Those who do not read can only be got to read by giving them something which will interest them sufficiently to make them want to read it through when they have once begun. And what will interest a man depends altogether on the man. In literature, as in dietetics, what is one man's meat is another man's poison. One thing may be said most emphatically: never give any "improving books" to a man who does not read; to do so is to waste your effort and his. When the reading habit is once formed, you may, perhaps, get him interested in a tract or in a religious biography of the ordinary Sunday-school type, but no such book will ever tempt him to go on reading for its own sake.

The rule is simple: Study the man or the woman or the child, and put before him or her the book he or she is most likely to begin, and, having begun, most likely to finish. In all probability the firemen around the corner, whose little library you are trying to increase and improve, will not take so kindly to Shakespeare; but Tom Hughes's "Alfred the Great," and Higginson's "Young Folks' History of America" (the best little book of its kind I ever saw), and Nordhoff's "Politics for Young Americans," and a good collection of miscellaneous poems,—these are the books they are likely to look at, and in all probability to read. You cannot cure a boy of reading the "Bold Brigand of the Dead Gulch" by giving him the "Student's Hume,"—one of the driest books which ever made a boy thirsty,—or any of the ordinary, old-fashioned text-books of his-

tory. But you get him to give up "Lone-eyed Jim, the Boy Scout," to read one of Mayne Reid's stories; and from those the transition is easy to the sea-tales of Cooper and Marryat—two salt-water romancers far healthier than most of the rose-water novelists of to-day. And after you have got the boy interested in these sea-fighters of fiction, let him have Southey's "Life of Nelson," a good biography of Paul Jones, and, if the size of it does not frighten him, Cooper's "History of the American Navy."

The one essential thing to do, when you are trying to change a man who does not read into a man who does read, is to put yourself in his place. What is his business? What are his tastes? What are his surroundings? The answers to these questions suggest the weak points in his indifference. If he is an artisan who gives his evenings to the reading of a weekly story-paper, and so has the freshness taken out of his mind by its cheap fiction, suggest his trying Charles Reade's "Put Yourself in His Place"; and if this story of strikes interest him, lend him Reade's other novels, most of which are so manly, and touch so closely on questions of history and politics, that the reader is tempted to learn more about what the novelist has thus enticingly alluded to.

If a lady has a strong taste for the theatre, suggest her reading Dr. Doran's "Their Majesties' Servants," the most amusing, as it is the most authoritative, of stage histories, and insist on her reading Lewes's "Actors and Acting," the one good book on a difficult subject. If she likes these, then she may begin on the grand line of English histrionic biographies which begins with Colley Cibber's "Apology," and comes down to Macready's "Reminiscences" and Jefferson's "Autobiography."

A course of reading is like an encyclopedia; it is meant to take in everything. Now, anybody who believes that he can take in everything will be "taken in" himself. The mass of accumulated knowledge is now enormous, and to take even a cursory view of it all is only possible for a very well-educated man. To know something of everything is getting, day by day, to be a harder task. But to know almost everything about something is more nearly within everybody's reach. To know absolutely everything on a given subject is not possible, even to the specialist, but to get a good grasp of a subject, be it scientific, or historical, or literary,—to know what is best worth knowing about it,—this can be done by almost anybody with good will and a little perseverance. Now, the way to master a subject is to begin at the beginning. Suppose you want to know about Greek literature. You have noted one of Macaulay's or Matthew Arnold's glowing tributes to the noble simplicity of Grecian writing, and you want to read about it. Get Jebb's "Primer of Greek Literature," which is almost as good as Stopford Brooke's "Primer of English Literature,"—as high praise as one

can give any book of the kind. This will tell you the conditions under which the Greeks worked. Then if you are attracted to any other writer, and want to know more about him, get the volume in which he and his works are discussed at length in the series of "Ancient Classics for English Readers." By the time you have read that, you will know whether you really want to study this Greek author or not, whether you are capable of appreciating him, and therefore whether your time and attention can be given to him with advantage.

As soon as the taste for reading is formed, that taste begins to improve, and its improvement should be sedulously cultivated. Every man who has read a great deal will tell you that he has left far behind him the books he admired when he began. What he admired at twenty is far inferior to what he admires at thirty or forty. He is constantly going up a literature ladder. Now, it makes little matter on what round of the ladder the reader begins, so long as he climbs. It is the act of climbing which is beneficial, not the elevation attained. If you are a boy, and you read for excitement, for adventure, and for this reason take a story-paper, give it up, and try one of Mr. Towle's series of books about the "Heroes of History," or one of Dr. Eggleston's "Lives of Famous Indians." If Mr. Towle's "Pizarro" attracts you, go from that to Prescott's narrative of the conquest of Peru; and thence you may be led to his other histories of the Spanish dominion in America, and Prescott may thus introduce you to Irving and Motley and Parkman. And when you have got so far, the whole field of European history is open before you. Get the best,—the best, that is, that you can read with satisfaction,—and then go onward and upward. One caution may be thrown out here. When you want to know about any man or period and seek a history to tell you, do not take a schoolbook; they are too often dry and colorless.

And this brings us to those who know what to read, but desire advice as to how to get the best results from their reading. Having formed the habit of reading, and having thus got your foot on the ladder of literary culture, how are you to get the best results from these? First of all, always think over a book when you have finished it. Criticise it. Form your own opinion of it. If you liked it, ask yourself why you liked it. If you disliked it, ask yourself why you did not like it. See if the fault was in the book or in you. If you were greatly interested,

try to find out whether this was due to the author or to the subject. Then, if you can find somebody else who has read the book, talk it over; exchange your impression for his impression; and see whether, on sober second thought, he is more nearly right than you. If you have been reading a great author, see what the great critics have been saying of him. If you have been reading an essay on a great author or a biography of him, take up his own works next, that you may gain the benefit of the interest around about him. If you have been reading any special history, try to see how it fits into the general history of the world; and for this purpose I know no books to be compared with Mr. Freeman's "Primer of European History" and his "First Sketch of History." These begin at the beginning and tell the march of events to our generation.

Then, as you are reading a book, it is well to mark important passages. If the book is your own, make a light mark with a hard pencil on the margin of the passage. If the book is not yours, put in a slip of paper. When you have ended the book, read over the marked passages, and index those which, on this second reading, seem worthy of it, or likely in any way to be of use to you. If the book is yours, turn to the blank page at the end and give a hint of the passage and the page it is on; thus:

John Brown, p. 21
Shakespearean quotation, p. 47
Anecdote of a wise dog, p. 93

—and so on. If the book is not yours, take a page in a note-book, or a sheet of note-paper, and make your index on that, heading it with the title of the book.

The Rev. Joseph Cook tells us that he marks important passages with a line in the outer margin of the book he is reading, more important with two lines, and most important with three; while passages that he disagrees with or disapproves of are marked in like manner with one, two, or three lines on the inner margin.

The reader should also strenuously cultivate the habit of searching diligently in dictionaries, encyclopedias, and gazetteers, and in whatever books of reference he can get access to. He should let no allusion pass without an effort to find out what it means. Macaulay bristles with allusions, but there are scarcely any that a quick reader cannot dig out of an encyclopedia in a few minutes, and "when found, make a note on," as Captain Cuttle tells us.

ST. LOUIS.

G. H. DIERHOLD.

THE LITERARY SOCIETY

ONE of the means of self-culture for young men is the literary society. Young women also take part in organizations of this kind, but to a very much smaller extent. However, just as there is a development in woman's sphere generally, so there is

a growth in the number of young women's literary societies and of young women who participate in the work of such societies.

Literary societies are voluntary associations for educational purposes. They are entirely apart from the regular avenues of school

and college work. It is highly gratifying to the sense of self-help that these societies are, in many instances, established through the initiative of the young people themselves, and as a rule are officered by individuals from among their own numbers. The societies are often attached to churches, but even in these cases they are practically independent. Ministers, superintendents of schools, teachers, and other adults interested, may give advice at times, but do not usually interfere with the working of the society. The members, left to their own devices, conduct matters according to their own notions, although they follow certain general regulations in the conduct of their business.

One of the delights of the youthful organizer is the application of parliamentary rules and constitutional provisions of the society. Here the embryo parliamentarian learns to say "Mr. President," to "make a motion," and to "rise to a point of order;" the aspiring dialectician practises the knack of convincing his hearers that his opponent is wrong; the coming writer finds a good field for his effusions; and the would-be orator airs his eloquence to his heart's content.

The debates, the essays, the orations develop

the powers of observation and expression. They promote readiness and independence. They are a valuable schooling, not so much for the knowledge of current or historical topics which are discussed, but for the aid they give their members in attending to the larger relations of life. It is probable that many of our successful men have derived great advantage from the training received in these societies. He who has taken an active part in one of them is more able to preside over or participate in a large society, or conduct a meeting, or do any one of the many things in which organizing ability is required.

Of course, carelessness and ignorance have the same bad influence in these societies as elsewhere. It goes without saying that the facts presented in the debates and essays must be trustworthy, and that the thoughts should be one's own and not the mechanical reproduction of another's. These are principles which the leading spirits of the society should instil into the minds of their companions. With them borne in mind the members will be the better for the vigor which the literary society produces.

CHARLES S. BERNHEIMER.

PHILADELPHIA.

A SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY—KINDERGARTEN METHODS

THE Annual Literary School usually held by the Chicago Kindergarten College during Easter week has given way this year to what is termed a School of Psychology, which was held for the purpose of bringing together leaders in psychological thought holding varying and even contrary views. The more important papers were: "The Education of the Heart," by Dr. G. Stanley Hall; "How Symbolic Thinking Grows Into Logical Thinking," by Hon. William T. Harris; "Psychological Methods," by Dr. Hugo Münsterberg; "From Fundamental to Accessory in Education," by Dr. G. Stanley Hall; "How Imitation Grows Into Originality and Freedom," by Hon. William T. Harris; "Relation of Mind and Brain," by Dr. Hugo Münsterberg; "Needed Modifications in the Theory and Practice of the Kindergarten," by Dr. John Dewey; "Freedom in the Education of To-Day," by Professor Denton J. Snider; "How to Educate the Feelings and Emotions Through the Intellect and the Will," by Hon. William T. Harris.

It is a glad day when distinguished educators begin to realize that modification is needed in the theory and practice of the kindergarten. A few years ago it seemed as if the ideal method of education had been discovered in this gentle and kindly method, which coaxed the tender mind of the baby along into the wide paths of observation and thought. But the mothers who have seen their children developed by this training have come to entertain serious doubts concerning the entire desirability of its

effects. They find their children have often been taught dependence instead of independence; the little ones, if unselfish, are consciously so; they are over-attentive to themselves, amusingly self-conscious, and they attach too much importance to their emotions and to their processes of thought. They look upon themselves, indeed, as something distinctly precious, and it takes two or three years of the vanity-destroying process of the public schools to enable them to discover the relative value of things and the relation of themselves to their world. The little minds are stuffed with sugar-coated knowledge, and so addicted to these intellectual sweets have the little ones become that the utterance of a bald and uncompromising fact affrights them, and they run from honest application like squirrels from dogs. Moreover, they refuse to take anything seriously, but they make a play of all things, often at the expense of good sense, time, and directness. "The kindergarten does its best work among the very rich and the very poor," said an observing woman. "The mothers who preside over comfortable, homelike homes, who have actual tasks for the children to perform, and who desire to be associated with the daily lives of their children, to play with them, read to them, and in practical ways to direct them, will usually find the kindergarten a superfluity. Some of them may consider it a positive detriment, as flattering the vanity of the child and substituting play-activities for actual and therefore more interesting ones."

E. W. P.

ROUND THE TABLE

THE TUDOR PRINCESS MARY*

Now at that time Mary, the king's sister,† was just ripening into her greatest womanly perfection. Her skin was like velvet; a rich, clear, rosy snow, with the hot young blood glowing through it like the faint red tinge we sometimes see on the inner side of a white rose leaf. Her hair was a very light brown, almost golden, and fluffy, soft, and fine as a skein of Arras silk. She was of medium height, with a figure that Venus might have envied. Her feet and hands were small, and apparently made for the sole purpose of driving mankind distracted. In fact, that seemed to be the paramount object in her creation, for she had the world of men at her feet. Her greatest beauty was her glowing dark brown eyes, which shone with an ever-changing lustre from beneath the shade of the longest, blackest upcurving lashes ever seen.

Her voice was soft and full, and, except when angry, which, alas, was not infrequent, had a low and coaxing little note that made it irresistible; she was a most adroit coxer, and knew her power full well, although she did not always plead, having the Tudor temper and preferring to command—when she could. As before hinted, she had coaxed her royal brother out of several proposed marriages for her, which would have been greatly to his advantage; and if you had only known Henry Tudor, with his vain, boisterous, stubborn violence, you could form some idea of Mary's powers by that achievement alone. . . .

She had been made love to by so many men, who had lost their senses in the dazzling rays of her thousand perfections—of whom, I am ashamed to say, that I,‡ for a time, had been insane enough to be one—that love had grown to be a sort of joke with her, and man, a poor, contemptible creature, made to grovel at her feet. Not that she liked or encouraged it; for, never having been moved herself, she held love and its sufferings in utter scorn. Man's love was so cheap and plentiful that it had no value in her eyes, and it looked as if she would lose the best thing in life by having too much of it.

*An extract from Mr. Charles Major's romance, "When Knighthood was in Flower" (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.), reviewed in the present issue of SELF CULTURE.

†Mary, younger sister of Henry VIII, who married (1) Louis XII of France and (2) Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

‡The narrator of these fictional memoirs.

Such was the royal maid to whose tender mercies, I now tell you frankly, my friend Brandon was soon to be turned over. He, however, was a blade of very different temper from any she had known; and when I first saw signs of a growing intimacy between them I felt, from what little I had seen of Brandon, that the tables were very likely to be turned upon her ladyship. Then thought I, "God help her," for in a nature like hers, charged with latent force, strong and hot and fiery as the sun's stored rays, it needed but a flash to make it patent, when damage was sure to follow for somebody—probably Brandon.

Mary did not come home with us from Westminster the morning after the joustings, as we had expected, but followed some four or five days later, and Brandon had fairly settled himself at court before her arrival. As neither his duties nor mine were onerous, we had a great deal of time on our hands, which we employed walking and riding, or sitting in our common room reading and talking. Of course, as with most young men, that very attractive branch of natural history, feminology, was a favorite topic, and we accordingly discussed it a great deal; that is, to tell the exact truth, I did. Although Brandon had seen many an adventure during his life on the Continent, which would not do to write down here, he was as little of a boaster as any man I ever met, and, while I am in the truth-telling business, I was as great a braggart of my inches as ever drew the long-bow—in that line, I mean. Gods! I flush up hot, even now, when I think of it. So I talked a great deal and found myself infinitely pleased with Brandon's conversational powers, which were rare; being no less than the capacity for saying nothing, and listening politely to an infinite deal of the same thing, in another form, from me.

I remember that I told him I had known the Princess Mary from a time when she was twelve years old, and how I had made a fool of myself about her. I fear I tried to convey the impression that it was her exalted rank only which made her look unfavorably upon my passion, and suppressed the fact that she had laughed at me good humoredly, and put me off as she would have thrust a poodle from her lap. The truth is, she had always been kind and courteous to me, and had admitted me to a degree of intimacy much greater than I deserved. This, partly at least, grew out of the fact that I helped her along the thorny

path to knowledge; a road she travelled at an eager gallop, for she dearly loved to learn—from curiosity perhaps. . . .

In the course of my talk with Brandon I had, as I have said, told him the story of Mary, with some slight variations and coloring, or rather discoloring, to make it appear a little less to my discredit than the barefaced truth would have been. I told him also about Lady Jane Bolingbroke; and, I grieve and blush to say, expressed a confidence in that direction I little felt. . . .

On the evening of the day Mary came home to Greenwich, Brandon asked: "Who and what on earth is this wonderful Mary I hear so much about? They say she is coming home to-day, and the court seems to have gone mad about it; I hear nothing but 'Mary is coming! Mary is coming! Mary! Mary!' from morning until night. They say Buckingham is beside himself for love of her. He has a wife at home, if I am right, and is old enough to be her father. Is he not?" I assented; and Brandon continued: "A man who will make such a fool of himself about a woman is wofully weak. The men of the court must be poor creatures."

He had much to learn about the power of womanhood. There is nothing on earth—but you know as much about it as I do.

"Wait until you see her," I answered, "and you will be one of them, also. I flatter you by giving you one hour with her to be heels over head in love. With an ordinary man it takes one sixtieth of that time; so you see I pay a compliment to your strength of mind." . . .

Now, when Mary returned the whole court rejoiced, and I was anxious for Brandon to meet her and that they should become friends. There would be no trouble in bringing this meeting about, since, as you know, I was upon terms of intimate friendship with Mary, and was the avowed, and, as I thought, at least hoped, all but accepted lover of her first lady in waiting and dearest friend, Lady Jane Bolingbroke. Brandon, it is true, was not noble; not even an English knight, while I was both knighted and noble: but he was of as old a family as England boasted, and near of kin to some of the best blood of the land. The meeting came about sooner than I expected, and was very near a failure. It was on the second morning after Mary's arrival at Greenwich. Brandon and I were walking in the palace park when we met Jane, and I took the opportunity to make these, my two best-loved friends, acquainted. . . .

The queen, seeing us, sent me off to bring the king. After I had gone, she asked if any one had seen the Princess Mary, and Brandon told her Lady Jane had said she was at the other side of the grounds. Thereupon her Majesty asked Brandon to find the princess and to say that she was wanted.

Brandon started off and soon found a bevy of girls sitting on some benches under a spread-

ing oak, weaving spring flowers. He had never seen the princess, so could not positively know her. As a matter of fact, he did know her, as soon as his eyes rested on her, for she could not be mistaken among a thousand—there was no one like her or anything near it. Some stubborn spirit of opposition, however, prompted him to pretend ignorance. All that he had heard of her wonderful power over men, and the servile manner in which they fell before her, had aroused in him a spirit of antagonism, and had begotten a kind of distaste beforehand. He was wrong in this, because Mary was not a coquette in any sense of the word, and did absolutely nothing to attract men, except to be so beautiful, sweet, and winning that they could not let her alone; for all of which surely the prince of fault-finders himself could in no way blame her.

She could not help it that God had seen fit to make her the fairest being on earth, and the responsibility would have to lie where it belonged—with God; Mary would have none of it. Her attractiveness was not a matter of volition or intention on her part. She was too young for deliberate snare-setting—though it often begins very early in life—and made no effort to attract men. Man's love was too cheap a thing for her to strive for, and I am sure, in her heart, she would infinitely have preferred to live without it—that is, until the right one should come. The right one is always on his way, and, first or last, is sure to come to every woman—sometimes, alas! too late—and when he comes, be it late or early, she crowns him, even though he be a long-eared ass. Blessed crown! and thrice-blessed blindness—else there were fewer coronations.

So Brandon stirred this antagonism and determined not to see her manifold perfections, which he felt sure were exaggerated; but to treat her as he would the queen—who was black and leathery enough to frighten a satyr—with all respect due to her rank, but with his own opinion of her, nevertheless, safely stored away in the back of his head.

Coming up to the group Brandon took off his hat, and, with a graceful little bow that let the curls fall around his face, asked: "Have I the honor to find the Princess Mary among these ladies?"

Mary, whom I know you will at once say was thoroughly spoiled, without turning her face toward him, replied:

"Is the Princess Mary a person of so little consequence about the court that she is not known to a mighty captain of the guard?"

He wore his guardsman's doublet, and she knew his rank by his uniform. She had not noticed his face.

Quick as a flash came the answer: "I cannot say of what consequence the Princess Mary is about the court; it is not my place to determine such matters. I am sure, however, she is not here, for I doubt not she would have

given a gentle answer to a message from the queen. I shall continue my search." With this, he turned to leave, and the ladies, including Jane, who was there and saw it all and told me of it, awaited the bolt they knew would come, for they saw the lightning gathering in Mary's eyes.

Mary sprang to her feet with an angry flush in her face, exclaiming, "Insolent fellow, I am the Princess Mary; if you have a message, deliver it and be gone." You may be sure this sort of treatment was such as the cool-headed, daring Brandon would repay with usury; so, turning upon his heel, and almost presenting his back to Mary, he spoke to Lady Jane:

"Will your ladyship say to her highness that her majesty, the queen, awaits her coming at the marble landing?"

"No need to repeat the message, Jane," cried Mary; "I have ears and can hear for myself." Then, turning to Brandon: "If your insolence will permit you to receive a message from so insignificant a person as the king's sister, I beg you to say to the queen that I shall be with her presently."

He did not turn his face toward Mary, but bowed again to Jane.

"May I ask your ladyship further to say for me that if I have been guilty of any discourtesy I greatly regret it? My failure to recognize the Princess Mary grew out of my misfortune in never having been allowed to bask in the light of her countenance. I cannot believe the fault lies at my door, and hope for her own sake that her highness, upon second thought, will realize how ungentle and unkind some one else has been." And with a sweeping courtesy he walked quickly down the path.

"The insolent wretch!" cried one.

"He ought to hold papers on the pillory," said another.

"Nothing of the sort," broke in sensible, fearless little Jane; "I think the Lady Mary was wrong. He could not have known her by inspiration."

"Jane is right," exclaimed Mary, whose temper, if short, was also short-lived, and whose kindly heart always set her right if she but gave it a little time. Her faults were rather those of education than of nature. "Jane is right; it was what I deserved. I did not think when I spoke, and did not really mean it as it sounded. He acted like a man, and looked like one, too, when he defended himself. I warrant the Pope at Rome could not run over him with impunity. For once I have found a real live man, full of manliness. I saw him in the lists at Windsor a week ago, but the king said his name was a secret, and I could not learn it. He seemed to know you, Jane. Who is he? Now tell us all you know. The queen can wait."

And her majesty waited on a girl's curiosity.

I had told Jane all I knew about Brandon, so she was prepared with full information and

gave it. She told the princess who he was; of his terrible duel with Judson; his bravery and adventures in the wars; his generous gift to his brother and sisters; and lastly, "Sir Edwin says he is the best-read man in the court, and the bravest, truest heart in Christendom."

After Jane's account of Brandon they all started by a roundabout way for the marble landing. In a few moments whom did they see, coming toward them down the path, but Brandon, who had delivered his message and continued his walk. When he saw whom he was about to meet, he quickly turned in another direction. The Lady Mary had seen him, however, and told Jane to run forward and bring him to her. She soon overtook him and said:

"Master Brandon, the princess wishes to see you." Then, maliciously, "You will suffer this time. I assure you she is not used to such treatment. It was glorious, though, to see you resent such an affront. Men usually smirk and smile foolishly and thank her when she smites them."

Brandon was disinclined to return.

"I am not in her highness's command," he answered, "and do not care to go back for a reprimand when I am in no way to blame."

"Oh, but you must come; perhaps she will not scold this time," and she put her hand upon his arm, and laughingly drew him along. Brandon, of course, had to submit when led by so sweet a captor—anybody would. So fresh, and fair, and lovable was Jane, that I am sure anything masculine *must* have given way.

Coming up to the princess and her ladies, who were waiting, Jane said: "Lady Mary, let me present Master Brandon, who, if he has offended in any way, humbly sues for pardon." This was the one thing Brandon had no notion on earth of doing, but he let it go as Jane had put it, and this was his reward:

"It is not Master Brandon who should sue for pardon," responded the princess, "it is I who was wrong. I blush for what I did and said. Forgive me, sir, and let us start anew." At this she stepped up to Brandon and offered him her hand, which he, dropping to his knee, kissed most gallantly.

"Your highness, you can well afford to offend when you have so sweet and gracious a talent for making amends; ('A wrong acknowledged,' as some one has said, 'becomes an obligation.')" He looked straight into the girl's eyes as he said this, and his gaze was altogether too strong for her, so the lashes fell. She flushed, and said with a smile that brought the dimples:

"I thank you; that is a real compliment." Then, laughingly: "Much better than extravagant comments on one's skin, and eyes, and hair. We are going to the queen at the marble landing; will you walk with us, sir?" And they strolled away together, while the other girls followed in a whispering, laughing group.

Was there ever so glorious a calm after such a storm?

SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. IX

JULY, 1899

NO. 5

AMERICAN LANDSCAPE PAINTERS

"IT IS to three artists of great natural ability that the origin of American landscape-painting can be traced," remarks Benjamin, in "Art in America," of Thomas M. Doughty (1793-1856), Thomas Cole (1801-1848), and A. B. Durand (1796-1886). Another writer in "Harper's Magazine" for April, 1876, commenting on the progress of the fine arts in the first century of the republic, says:

"How interesting to the student would it be to trace the development of landscape art in the pictures of Durand, Cole, Huntington, Inness, Church, Bierstadt, Gifford, Kensett, Whittredge, McEntee, Colman, Hubbard, and a host of others who have won deserved honors by their faithful delineations of nature! . . . Our artists have gone directly to nature for inspiration."

This statement is true of some of the painters mentioned, but not of all. From the beginning American art has necessarily been more or less imitative of European models. It is nevertheless a fact that America has produced artists of marked originality, men of talent and poetic temperament, whose work merits high praise notwith-

standing manifest defects of style and technique.

Those who visited the art galleries at the World's Fair perhaps remember something of the "Retrospective Exhibit of American Painting," an interesting collection

of the works of Cole, Durand, Mignot, and other landscapists of the United States. These landscapes, though lacking in distinction, compared well with the masterly portraits by Stuart, Sully, Peale, and Vanderlyn. They showed both power and skill in depicting the lovely and grand aspects of nature in our own land. Still, it must be confessed that the sense of failure prevented one from feeling proud of the progress of art in the New World in the first century of our national existence. The specimens in this exhibition were interesting from a historical rather



WALTER LAUNT PALMER

than from an artistic standpoint.

In the other galleries of the department of fine arts of the United States were the works of later times, the period since the civil war. Here were hundreds of landscapes, or rather open-air views of gardens and back yards; poetic and admirable



FREDERICK W. KOST

things side by side with the unworthy and amateurist. The impressionist craze had wrought its worst among the third-class painters of our land.

There were, however, two notable exceptions, George Inness and Alexander H. Wyant, some of whose best paintings were exhibited. The lover of art may well feel proud of their pictorial achievements. The work of Inness is uneven and often careless, but when at his best he is unquestionably great.* Taken as a whole, the ten paintings by Wyant were better; at least they were more satisfying to some. Especially effective and grand were Wyant's sunsets and his views in the Adirondacks. Nor should Thomas Moran's "Grand Cañon of the Yellowstone" be forgotten. It is a superb painting of its kind. Others might be mentioned, whose works in oils and water-colors were fine.

Remarkably successful, too, were the seascapes (as they might be called) of M. F. H. De Haas and Alexander Harrison.

*The growing appreciation of Inness was made evident at the recent Clarke sale of paintings in New York; his "Gray Lowery Day" selling for \$10,150. This canvas, painted in one day, was sold by Inness, it is said, for \$400.

The latter is undoubtedly the greatest of living marine painters. His "In Arcadia" is one of the most poetical landscapes produced in America.

That landscape-painting is not becoming a lost art in the United States is made evident by the exhibition of the Society of Landscape Painters at the Art Institute of Chicago from April 15 to May 14. This collection is made up of 119 canvases by twelve men — George H. Bogert, William A. Coffin, Walter Clark, Bruce Crane, Charles H. Davis, R. Swain Gifford, Frederick W. Kost, Robert C. Minor, J. Francis Murphy, Leonard Ochtman, Walter Palmer, and Carleton Wiggins. Each painter is represented by from seven to a dozen works, most of them in his characteristic manner, though not always his best. It would be better if a number of the artists had sent fewer pictures. This is notably true of the groups of paintings by Bogert and Gifford. The exhibit is disappointing, too, because of the absence of sev-

eral well-known American landscapists. At least a dozen more should be added, in order to make the collection truly representative of the landscape art of to-day. In recent exhibitions at the Art Institute have been seen the works of artists — Curran, Dessar, Eaton, Gay, Howe, Peter Moran, Post, Svend Svendsen, and others — as beautiful as those here displayed.

While not exactly conventional, Mr. Bogert, of New York, has produced nothing especially striking or original. He has gone to foreign lands for most of his subjects. His "Cloudy Day, Coast of Holland," and "Morning, Rysoord," are distinctly suggestive of the work of Dutch painters. He seems to have improved well the morning and evening hours when in Holland and France. "The End of Day" is a pleasing canvas with a lovely sunset. In "Evening, Equihen," the peaceful twilight hour is chosen, full of poetic feeling; there is a long stretch of shore, with cottages overlooking a moonlit sea. "The Day after the Storm" is a happy conception well realized. Mr. Bogert has successfully caught the spirit of early dawn in "Morning, Moriches," a scene of quiet pastoral beauty.

William A. Coffin, born in Allegheny City, Pa., was graduated at Yale in 1874; first studied in the art department of Yale, and then in Paris. Mr. Coffin's studies of out-door life were evidently made in this country. His "Sunset" can hardly be called more than a sketch of an uninteresting landscape overhung by gorgeous cloud-banks. His "Early Autumn" presents a wood interior of noble trees, with weeds too prominent in the foreground. One expects much of an artist who wins a \$2,000 prize, as Mr. Coffin did for "The Rain" (now in the Metropolitan Museum, New York). In these landscapes he is painstaking rather than inspired.

Walter Clark, of New York, was born in Brooklyn in 1848. He studied with George Inness, and seems to have learned from his gifted master the lesson that "the mission of the landscape-painter is to extract from the earth and sky the very essence of their beauty." His pictures are poems in color. The very titles suggest something of their vigorous character: "On Breezy Bays," "After the Harvests," "In the Berry-Fields," "October Skies," "Mist on the River," "Spring Run," "A Warm September Morning," etc. The atmospheric effects in "October Skies" are suggestive of autumn; a giant tree looms in the distance, and a creek reflects the flying masses of clouds overhead. A delightful landscape is "A Warm September Morning," cattle grazing at the edge of a pond fringed with willows aflame at the top.

Bruce Crane was born in New York in 1857. He was a pupil of A. H. Wyant, and, like his teacher, finds his inspiration in our own country. "Night on Cape Ann" betrays much strength, as does "A Winter Morning," which, with its purple snow and simple elements used effectively,

reminds one of the work of Scandinavian painters.

Charles H. Davis, of Mystic, Conn., was born in Amesbury, Mass., in 1856. After studying in Boston he resided in Normandy several years, returning to the United States in 1891. He won two gold medals and a silver medal, also the Palmer prize (\$500) and the \$2,000 offered by the American Art Association. Mr. Davis has thrown a glamour of beauty and sentiment over the tranquil country scenes of New England, with glimpses of rugged coast. His paintings are literal transcripts of nature in winter as well as in summer. "A Breezy Day, October," is radiant in color, a glorious sky reflected in the bright blue sea. Impressionism is at its best in "A White Morning." There is a breeziness in "Flying Clouds" that is invigorating.



J. FRANCIS MURPHY

R. Swain Gifford, of New York, was born in Massachusetts in 1840. He studied in Holland, and travelled extensively in the Old World, painting many fascinating bits of scenery in Europe and Africa. He won the \$2,000 prize of the American Art Association, 1885, and was a medallist at the Paris Exposition of 1889. His strength lies in depicting the quieter aspects of nature. The idyllic note prevails in the works exhibited by him here. The collection is of uneven quality, only three or four of the paintings displaying more than average ability. "Coast Trees, Massachusetts," represents an impressive



LEONARD OCHTMAN

scene, whose central feature is a clump of trees standing out boldly against the sky.

Frederick W. Kost, of New York, has hitherto been unknown in the West. He was born in New York in 1861, and studied first in the National Academy of Design and later in Munich and Paris. He is a member of the Society of American Landscape Painters, and of the Society of Landscape Painters. His paintings reveal him as a sympathetic observer of nature, felicitous in dealing pictorially with sky and water. Here is a painter with an eye for picturesque effects and a rare facility for transferring to canvas his impressions of out-door life in

harmonious colors and with surprising force. One would venture the guess that he has been influenced by the Barbizon school of painters, for he is an excellent draughtsman, giving careful attention to values.

Robert C. Minor was born in New York in 1840. He studied in Paris with Diaz, then in Antwerp, and travelled in Germany and Italy. Like Corot, he is a brilliant colorist, whose canvases are a delight to the eye. "Morning" is spirited rather than pensive; a splendid open-air view, charged with joyous life. "Autumn" and "Twilight" betray the influence of Corot's manner, especially in the way the light is skilfully thrown through the thick masses of foliage. Minor is also highly successful in the massing of golden clouds at the interesting moments of sunrise and sunset.

J. Francis Murphy was born in Oswego, N. Y., in 1853. Though self-taught, he acquired the artistic touch and captured several prizes by his clever, conscientious painting. Autumn appears to be his favorite season. "Sundown" and "September" are lovely landscapes, both reminding one of the French style of doing such things. They are gems.

Leonard Ochtman, of Mianus, Conn., was born in Holland. It is said that he was self-taught. He has certainly succeeded marvellously in doing difficult things with apparent ease. He is the most imaginative and poetical of American landscapists. Like Murphy, he "paints nature in repose," preferring the stillness of the summer evening or the night in winter. "In the Woods," "Autumn at Woodwild," "Morning Light," and "In the Greenwood" are symphonies in color.

Walter Palmer, the son of the noted artist E. D. Palmer, was born in Albany. He studied in Paris and returned to New York in 1877. Not one of the eight pictures in the group is a failure; one scarcely knows which to admire most, for they all show superior handling of sky and trees, except "Venice at Sunrise," which is a beautiful marine. "Transformation" and "The First Snow" are superb winter scenes.

Carleton Wiggins, of New York, was born at Turners, N. Y., 1848. He studied at the National Academy in New York, and later in Paris. He is a capital colorist, especially felicitous in handling light and shade. He is a poetic interpreter of

nature, though lacking variety. One cannot resist the conclusion that his cows are brought too much to the front.

While it is true that the majority of landscapes produced so far by Americans are rather tame affairs, they at least deserve the credit of being themselves. The leaders have not been generally addicted to academic tricks and sensational means. They have not considered it the province of the landscape art of to-day to imitate the forest glades and spacious plains of Poussin and Claude, with their melodramatic effects and ruined temples. Their aim is not so much to tell a story or depict scenery with what may be called operatic accessories; they compose on a different scale, or content themselves with reproducing only fragmentary sections of nature.

Of course the mood of the painter makes him select the sunny and cheerful aspects of nature or the sombre and melancholy. He puts himself into the picture just as the poet expresses himself in a poem. The

more of intellectual ability and susceptibility to beauty he has along with general culture and technical training, the better equipped is he for his task. Environment constitutes a large element in the education of the artist, and the dominant spirit of American life is not distinctly conducive yet to the finest artistic development.

The United States has not yet brought forth a Turner or even a Diaz. To the old Greeks and the Italians of the Renaissance art was a necessity. The æsthetic sense was highly cultivated even in ordinary craftsmen. That we have no great painters is due to the fact that art is not appreciated in our country. Given the encouragement that it received in the days of Phidias or of Raphael, masterpieces will again be produced. It will take time, however, for America to develop a school of landscapists comparable to Corot, Daubigny, Troyon, Millet, and Rousseau.

EUGENE PARSONS.

CHICAGO.

THE ISLAND OF SANTA CATALINA

THE Sierra Nevada Mountains extend a long way down the western side of the American continent; toward the lower extremity they unite with the Coast Range. The space between these parallel series of heights is about four hundred miles long and sixty miles wide. The southern union of the two upheavals lies to the north of Los Angeles, the principal city of southern California, and is known as the Tehachapi Mountains; other ranges extend still further to the south, sinking below the ocean, to rise again: one range as the islands of San Miguel, Santa Rosa, Santa Cruz, and Anacapa; another as Santa Catalina and Santa Barbara islands; a third as San Clemente and San Nicolas. As may be naturally supposed, the summits of these eternal hills are barren and precipitous. One series of eminences—Santa Catalina—is about twenty-two miles long by two miles wide, and is almost one continual succession of barren mountains. Fortunately nature left a little bay or cove at the southeast corner of

the island, about half a mile in circumference. Here is located Avalon, a watering-place, the "Nantasket" of the Pacific Ocean. If it were not for this happy thought of nature Santa Catalina would be a barren rendezvous for sheep and goats, useless to the capitalist, the tourist, and everybody else. As it is, far-



COAST SCENE—SANTA CATALINA



.AVALON

seeing enterprise has taken possession of the place and turned it into a summer resort, advertised it to the world, and furnished delightful residences and recreation to the natives of California and to tourists from all over the globe.

Formerly a part of the Lick Estate, the island is now owned by three brothers, who devote their energies to making it an attractive resort. They have built a large hotel at Avalon, and are now engaged upon a highway around the volcanic heights, running the full length of the island, and built solely for the amusement of visitors who may thus travel by tally-ho over these serried summits and look down upon old ocean below. Two steamers belonging to the brothers continually ply in the summer time from San Pedro, on the mainland, the site of the new harbor now being built by the United States government. Two years ago a peculiar condition of affairs was created by the proprietors' refusal to allow any one to land at Santa Catalina except from their steamers. Many took the view that, land having been sold to the settlers, the island became public domain and, as such, open to all who pleased to land without paying tribute. Possession being, however, nine points of the law, a force of deputies was employed to guard the bay by day and night. Some malcontents

landed under pretext of mailing letters at the post-office. For this they were permitted to enter Avalon, but were immediately escorted by the deputies to their boats again. The post-office was therefore moved to the shore, just above high tide, where it now stands.

Surrounded by an ever-placid ocean, remote from the busy world, Santa Catalina is an ideal spot of rest and summer abandon. "The world forgetting, by the world forgot," one can retreat to this precipitous isle and enjoy boating, fishing, and hunting to his heart's content.

The fishing, being the least laborious, attracts the multitude. A royal sport it is in these waters. Here abound the shark, the jew-fish, and the leaping tuna, weighing from fifty to two hundred and fifty pounds, a catch which involves patience, muscle, and management. The sea-bass here runs to two hundred pounds in weight. So many and curious are the aquatic inhabitants of this region that a dozen boats fitted with glass in their bottoms have been built and are now in use in Avalon Bay, to enable visitors quietly to study the living wonders of the deep. Here may be seen the yellowtail and the angel-fish; an electric fish that continually emits blue gleams; the lamp-fish and other phosphorescent marine animals which illumine the water; the bonito,

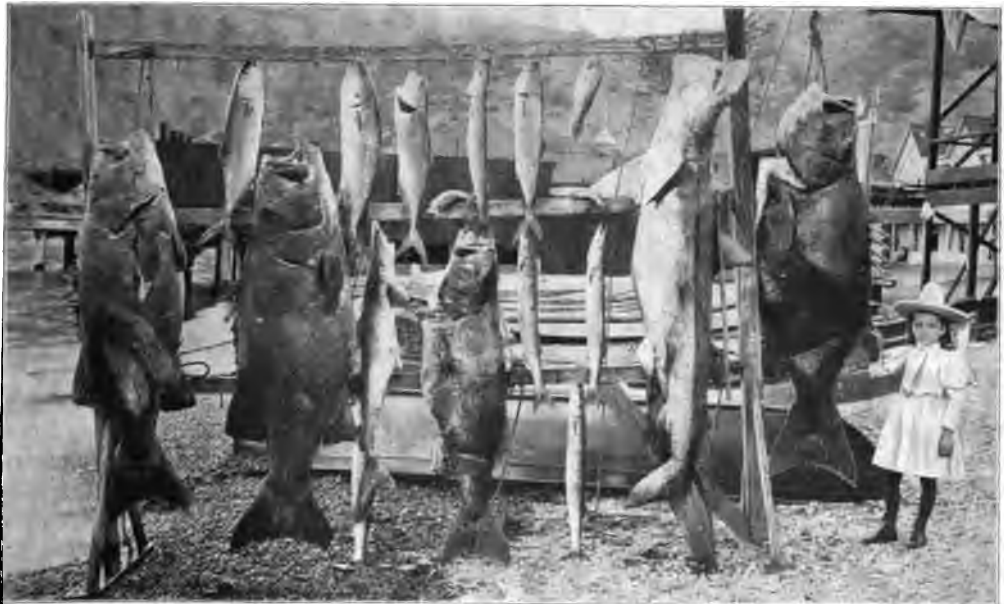
the humming-bird of the sea; banded sheeps-heads and highly-colored sculpins; rays, skates, crabs, sea-stars, sea-cucumbers, echini, limpets, and abalones. Hundreds of thousands of giant sunfish bask in these waters; cuttlefish eject their ink when disturbed; jellyfish drift with the tide; the electric ray awaits an incautious meddler; and now and then the tentacles of the hideous octopus wave as if feeling for a victim. Students of zoölogy can find no better place for the study of sea life than the waters surrounding the island of Santa Catalina. Fish are caught in such wasteful abundance that thousands of pounds are thrown away daily.

A brief account of the experience of Mr. C. G. Holder, in "Scribner's Magazine," will portray most graphically the sport furnished by some of the game fish of the Pacific Coast. He says:



STAGE ROAD NEAR AVALON

"Ten feet gained, and whiz-zee! as many more are lost. In it comes once more, fighting hard, the holder of the rod bending this way and that, trying to preserve a balance and that tension that would prevent a sudden break. Now the fish darts on one side, tearing the water into foam, leaving a sheet of silvery bubbles, and swinging the boat around as on a pivot. Now it is at the surface—a fleeting vision followed by a rush that carries the very gunwale under water. This, followed by a sudden slacking of the line, sends despair to the heart! He is gone! The line floats. No! Whiz! and he is away again. All the tricks of the sturdy



A DAY'S FISHING IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN

black bass, this giant of the tribe indulges in, except the mid-air leaps, which gladden the heart of the angler. Quick turns, downward rushes, powerful blows, mighty runs, this gamey creature makes, fighting inch by inch, leaving an impression upon the mind of the fisherman that is not soon forgotten."

Santa Catalina formerly had its Crusoe, who still lives on the island, though no longer "monarch of all he surveyed." No visitor ought to leave without enjoying a fishing-trip with this peculiar character, — Mexican Joe, a native Californian, who lived here, all by himself, thirty years ago, visiting the mainland but once a year for

cannot be far distant when the last wild goat will gaze upon this volcanic wilderness. Doves, quails, and foxes also furnish amusement for enthusiastic Nimrods.

One of the attractions of Catalina is its camp life. Long rows of tents border the avenues of Avalon, each generally containing a large cot, a gasoline stove, a couple of cracker-boxes or chairs, and a table. In pristine simplicity, not far removed from that of the Mexicans, whose only *lares* and *penates* are blankets and crucifixes, hundreds of families occupy these domiciles during the summer. The fathers loll around in restful idleness,



ARCH ROCK, NEAR AVALON

his supplies of coffee, whiskey, and tobacco. The habitat of every kind of fish is known to this veteran, for he was familiar with every nook and cove of Santa Catalina long before the armies of Lincoln saved the republic.

Like all the seacoast resorts of the Pacific south of Point Conception, Santa Catalina is a natural sanitarium. Frost is unknown; the relative humidity of the year is 67; the average summer temperature of the air is 65°; the water temperature at noon in summer is 76°.

Turning to the interior with horse and gun, a long ride by hill and valley will bring the hunter to the haunts of the wild goat in distant canyons. So attractive is this sport, however, that the goats are rapidly being exterminated, and the day

while the mothers cheerfully pursue their household duties,—albeit destitute of proper kitchen conveniences. These camp lots, with water and shooting privileges, are free of charge during the season to holders of round-trip tickets of the steamboat company, and to such only.

A large hotel at Avalon provides accommodation for those who prefer that method of living to camping out. To those who are tired of the everlasting sun and heat of the mainland, seeking surcease of toil in perfect rest and contrasting change, no more peaceful, retired, unique, and out-of-the-way place exists than this lonely seagirt island of the Pacific Ocean, three hours from San Pedro over a peaceful sea.

E. H. RYDALL.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

THE PEOPLE AND POLITICS

OUR system of government presupposes, as the foundation of the agency for making the laws, the vigilant and intelligent action of the people. This is the fundamental idea involved in what is called popular sovereignty. Mr. Bryce, in his "American Commonwealth," pointed out that "the strong point of the American system, the dominant fact of the situation, is the healthiness of public opinion and the control which it exerts." The actual operation is in broad contrast with the theoretic scheme of our political institutions. Perhaps no people ever found greater happiness in being humbugged by political empirics and demagogues; certainly none have ever been more frequently deluded to their own injury by false leaders. After all is said, public opinion, except where great popular sympathies are aroused, is apt to be the opinion of the two or three score of people who talk loudest and talk together. They are sure of a hearing, and sure, too, of a following, by announcing in a loud and firm voice that they know exactly the right thing to do. They soon impress upon the weaker minds the notion that "that is what everybody is saying." Moreover, they save a pile of trouble to those amiable people who wait to have their minds made up for them. By mere force of movement they gather strength and bulk until the better judgment of the community has no chance to exert itself, and, as Hume significantly terms it, there results "an indolent acquiescence in received opinions."

It is made a reproach of democratic government that the pride in public duty decays in it; that the fluctuating currents and perturbations of public life discourage strenuous endeavor and lasting devotion in the public service; that selfish interests absorb the powers of the citizens and eat into the heart of the commonwealth. In a great and prosperous country the private interests of business or pleasure afford engrossing employments. Minds fully occupied with such subjects cannot be at the same time employed on large conceptions of governmental policy and in devising plans for their execution. Unfortunately the only interest of our business men in politics is a contribution that appears in the form of a campaign fund. It was

Aristotle who declared that commerce "is incompatible with that dignified life which it is our wish that our citizens should lead, and totally adverse to that generous elevation of mind with which it is our ambition to inspire them."

It is especially true that an active attention to political interests is a rare phenomenon in that portion of the citizens who are most favored by fortune or have enjoyed the highest advantages of education and culture. This preoccupation of the best citizens in their private affairs will be found to be the great impediment to wise and just administration in representative democracies.

Political preferment is less and less tempting to good men. The conditions of public life are more and more repellent. Under the changing caprices of popular favor, in a political system where the principle of election extends to everything, there seems to be no such thing as a "political career," with its preparatory training, acquired experiences, and assured rewards.

There are few who have tested public life, with all its excitements, to its full, who have not realized that a truer happiness is to be found in private or business life. With all its fascinations and opportunities for usefulness it is always a pathway filled with thorns, even to the most successful. Daniel Webster said:

"If I were to live my life over again, I would, under no considerations, allow myself to enter public life—it is a hard life, a thankless life."

Justice Story warned all the generations of young lawyers who felt his influence at the Harvard Law School, against political life, by declaring:

"In our country political eminence, if it can be obtained without stain, can rarely be held without the most painful sacrifices of feeling and the silent endurance of the grossest injustice, not to say calumny."

It is common for our young men in college and in the early stages of active life to be met by exhortations to consult their own happiness by forming such schemes of life as would compel the State to look to others for its servants. Thus a large population is being formed too fastidious, too high-toned, to "dabble in the dirty

pool of politics." It is a matter of serious concern that the vast flood of potential energy unceasingly poured forth upon the country from our institutions of education, either through insensibility to their duties as citizens, or through unconsciousness that they have any such duties to perform, hold themselves throughout their lives entirely aloof from the political field.

When De Tocqueville first landed on our shores he confessed his surprise at finding "so much distinguished talent among the subjects and so little among the heads of the government." In his visit to this country, Thomas Hughes, of "Tom Brown" fame, said that the most discouraging fact he noticed among us was "the reluctance of our cultivated men to take an active part in politics." Mr. John Stuart Mill, in his "Considerations on Representative Government," observes:

"Political life is indeed, in America, a most valuable school, but it is a school from which the ablest teachers are excluded; the first minds of the country being as effectually shut out from public functions generally as if they were under a formal disqualification."

European writers generally on democracy say that the "rule of the people means the rule of the ignorant." That it is true, to a very large extent, that the men of thought and action, the men of mind and reading, the leaders in our business, our professional and social life, are too often content to remain out of political life, no one can deny. They look upon the professions of law, of theology, or of medicine, of engineering, of journalism, or of commerce, as fields in which they are to spend all their energies and achieve all their successes; and they think that any participation in politics, if not a thing to be blushed at, is at least unworthy of the highest talent and the choicest culture.

The function of politics is to protect and nourish the most precious results of all human endeavor, as now garnered in the ark of human society, and to make sure the still higher growth and the still more perfect felicity of mankind. Should not this sacred and awful function be trusted to those members of the community who are the most thoughtful, logical, conscientious, and pure? It is a kind of employment that should be most interesting to an active intelligence. The prerequisites for the fit discharge of political functions are brains and integrity, and we have reason for regret that more of both is not forthcoming.

It is a great mistake to regard the intelligence, the character, and the trained ability of the scholar devoted to public affairs as an obstruction, an impracticable and poor match for "native common sense." Burke utters the warning:

"Woe to the country that madly rejects the service of the talents and virtues, civil, military, or religious, that are given to grace and serve it, and would condemn to obscurity everything formed to diffuse lustre and glory around a State."

A most distinguished American jurist likewise holds that—

—"legislation must cease to be national, that it must be wise by accident and bad by system, when the best talents and best virtues are driven from office by intrigue or corruption."

History and experience teach us that when the people can be induced to listen, when they realize that their interests are at stake, it is the instructed and able man whom they gladly follow:

"For just experience shows in every soil,

That those who think must govern those who toil."

In a democracy politics should be a highly honorable profession, not only in its objects, but in its surroundings, in the social rank which it confers, and the associations and habits which attend it. Let us not sneer at all the politicians; for among them are to be found not a little public spirit and real subordination of interest to duty and a decent sensibility to honest fame and reputation. All the men in public life are not influenced by the mere sordid lure of salary. It is not true that all of them seek political preferment for the sake of the profit to be made out of the public purse and official position. Let us not condemn politics because a tribe of vulgar politicians have sought and secured popular favor by subserviency and compliance, pretence and cant, instead of by pure conduct, enlightened views, and statesmanlike accomplishments. Politicians of this type, unfitted to turn a wheel in the machine of government, degrade the people whom they court, and their success becomes a debasing enjoyment, a boom as fleeting as it is vile. They are, in Dryden's scathing words, "no better than prostitutes to common fame and to the people," and have caused what was said of another time and place to be in many instances none the less true here and now:—

"To hold a place
In council, which was once esteem'd an honor
And a reward for virtue, hath quite lost
Lustre and reputation, and is made
A mercenary purchase."

There is no pretension of the perfection of human nature involved. We must not expect to find perfection in men, or look for divine attributes in created beings. The knowledge of mankind shows us that there will be faults and wrongs so long as there are men; that this corruptible will put on incorruption only when this mortal shall put on immortality. Nevertheless our system must continually draw for its sustenance and growth upon the virtue and vigor of the people,—the people in their political character and capacity, the body of electors. This body is the original and only source of political power, the life and soul of the civil state; and the only body or state that can ever exist as absolutely sovereign, free, and independent in any system of government by the people. To the establishment and the continuity of representative institutions, not less than to their goodness in operation, the action of the electoral body is of first importance; it is the foundation of the political edifice. The failure to exercise the electoral office in the interest of good government is in a great measure, if not wholly, responsible for the evils manifested in our political life. Law, however fundamental, is but the reflex of public opinion, and in the long run in a free country must be maintained by that opinion or must perish. From this source must come the "ordinances, constitutions, and customs," by a wise choice of which the founders of states may, as Lord Bacon remarks, "sow greatness to their posterity and succession."

The "breed and disposition" of a people in regard to courage, public spirit, and patriotism are the test of the working of their institutions, and upon which the public safety depends. They are the fountain of all legitimate power, the ultimate source of all governmental authority; if bad government exists, the people have none but themselves to blame. There is not a boss-ridden or machine-cursed community which cannot be delivered from its hateful incubus by an organized movement of the honest citizens. "When bad men combine, the good must associate," to break the sceptre of the trading spoils-men and establish government on the

only reliable basis,—a popular censorship on democratic principles, perpetually stimulated to its duty by the simple operation of intelligent self-interest. Those who neither hold nor expect office—the burden-bearing multitude who support the official corps—should maintain a persistently active and capable supervision of the office-holding class. The chief democratic right is the right to censure those entrusted with power. Public opinion, an enlightened, healthy, vigilant public sentiment, which means censure as well as praise, is the motive force of democratic societies. Under our system little of public good can be accomplished without the voluntary coöperation of the citizens who bring to the study of politics a seriousness of mind and a sensitiveness of conscience which is a safer guide than the conventional maxims of scheming statecraft. It must be to the interest of the people to decide rightly, while it may be to the interest of the few or a class to decide wrongly. Wrong they sometimes are; demagogic they occasionally are; misled by designing leaders they frequently are; but the people always gather wisdom from their own errors, and are swift to right them, doing honor to truth and right. "Have a care," says the demagogue to the patriot, in Heine's story; "for if the people lose their reason they will tear thee to pieces." "Take care of thyself," answered the patriot to the demagogue; "for when the people recover their reason they will tear thee to pieces."

Mr. Mill has pointed out three fundamental conditions on which only republican government in anything more than a name is possible. The first is that the people for whom it is intended shall be willing to receive it. The second is that they shall be willing and able to do what is necessary to keep it standing. The third is that they shall be willing and able to fulfil the duties and discharge the functions it requires of them, to enable it to fulfil its purposes. Government is not an automaton which is wound up and set going and will run equally well whether we care for it or not. The government under which he lives is a personal charge of the highest nature to every citizen, and one involving the gravest responsibility. Citizenship demands action; it has to deal with conditions. When the Constitution gives a man the right of suffrage it also places upon him the imperative demand

that he shall exercise that right and preserve through its instrumentality his own welfare and the weal of the State. The sacrifice of time and convenience, of comfort and personal interest made, is of trifling consequence when compared with the importance of the object involved. And no one can, in a proper sense, lay claim to true citizenship who is not willing by actual interference to guard his government against abuses, insidious perversion, as well as open attack. Mr. Jefferson, writing to a friend, said:

"Where every man is a sharer in the direction of his ward-republic, or of some of the higher ones, and feels that he is a participant in the government of affairs, not merely at an election one day in the year, but every day, he will let the heart be torn out of his body sooner than his power be wrested from him by a Cæsar or Bonaparte."

The gravest trouble is not with the system, but with the individual citizen who shrinks from his duty with the idea that some one else will perform it; who confines himself to a "fugitive and cloistered political virtue, unexercised and unbreathed, that never sallies out and sees its adversary, but slinks out of the race,

where that immortal garland is to be run for not without dust and heat."

Our paramount need is a quickened sense of public duty. Even in the ancient communities, confined by the surrounding walls to moderate dimensions, we read of the difficulties of bringing up the people to the discharge of their public duty; and scholars will remember the vermilion-stained rope which was dragged along the streets of Athens to force the citizens to the place of assembly, and which exposed the laggard, marked by it, to a fine. Let us take unto ourselves, one and all, the wise words spoken by Cicero in his great work on the "Republic," the most mature and not the least important of his splendid labors:

"Our country has not given us birth or educated us under her law as if she expected no succor from us; or that, seeking to administer to our convenience only, she might afford a safe retreat for the indulgence of our ease, or a peaceful asylum for our indolence; but that she might hold in pledge the various and most exalted powers of our minds, our genius, and our judgment, for her own benefit, and that she might leave for our private use such portions only as might be spared for that purpose."

LOUISVILLE, KY. BOYD WINCHESTER.

A SKETCH OF THE PHILIPPINES—II *

THE population we find estimated all the way from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000.

Of the total number some 10,000 only are Spaniards, and about 100,000 are Chinese. The great mass of the population is composed of natives, as follows: There are about 5,000,000 of so-called civilized natives. Among them are included the mestizos (of mixed descent), the result of the intermarriage of the Spanish and Chinese (mostly the latter) with natives. Then there is a large number,—from 2,000,000 to 4,000,000—of hill tribes, dwelling in the interior and mountainous regions, resisting innovation of all kinds, eluding taxation and even census enumeration. Among these hill tribes are a few remnants of the pure natives or aborigines of the islands. They are called negritos (diminutive for negro). These are every way weak, wretched, inferior little beings, and seem likely to become extinct at no distant day. All the other so-called

natives are supposed to be descendants of these aborigines and Malay invaders from the islands lying to the southeast. This extermination of the negritos was well under way when the islands were discovered. Thus we see that, speaking in general terms, the Filipinos of to-day are Malays. The other hill tribes—constituting by far the majority—are savages, many of them fierce brigands, and many of them also peaceable and harmless.

The entire native population is divided into over 80 distinct tribes. The 5,000,000 of civilized natives, in whom interest chiefly centres, are divided into three groups, although the distinguishing characteristics are not very marked. These are the Tagalogs, Ilocanos, and Visayans. These people, as a class, are indolent, ignorant, improvident, kindly disposed, not uncleanly, lovers of music, vindictive, but strictly just,—on the whole possessed of many redeeming features. They have, for them, singularly high standards of morality. The climate—enervating as it

* Concluded from SELF CULTURE for June, 1899, Vol. IX, pp. 421-424.

is, and by its tropical luxuriance making hand-to-mouth subsistence possible—is indeed the chief cause of their indolence and improvidence, and their cleanliness as well, a daily bath not only being a practical necessity, but affording the greatest pleasure. But it is also true that the narrowness and bigotry of the church regarding education have prevented individual development; and the arbitrary taxing of everything that anybody had or did, and the stealing (name it how you will) on the part of officials high and low, have heretofore left little hope of enjoyment of the fruits of honest toil.

The negritos have a curious marriage custom. When a young man makes known his preference, the young woman flees from him, while he gives chase and catches her in his arms. She struggles and frees herself, whereupon the chase is renewed, and so on until he has caught her the third time, when she yields, and he proudly leads her back to her father's dwelling. The father and mother of the bride elect then meet with the contracting parties, the latter kneeling side by side. The father then takes some water in a cocoanut-shell and throws it over them. Continuing the ceremony, he takes each by the neck and bumps their heads together several times, and they are then adjudged to be duly married. A wedding tour of five days' sojourn alone in the mountains follows, after which they take up their abode as staid citizens among their friends.

The above is the simplest wedding ceremony in the islands. Even those of the other hill tribes are more formal, while among the civilized natives a wedding is an elaborate affair.

The entire space of this article might well be devoted to the flora of the islands, so luxuriant is their vegetation. The forests, where paths have not been made, are almost impenetrable. There are about fifty varieties of fruits and tubers, and gorgeous flowers without number,—one plant having a blossom three feet in diameter. One hundred and six kinds of wood have been noted.

Chief among the productions must be mentioned abaca, wrongly called hemp. It is a relative of the banana, belonging to the plantain family. This is not only the leading article of export, but is the chief material from which clothing is

made for the inhabitants. The United States take the larger portion of the product. It is extensively used here for binding grain.

Sugar is next in importance as an export. Scientific methods of refining have not been introduced to any extent. Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, tells us that the methods of the fifteenth century are still in vogue. He says there were recently 5,920 cattle mills, 239 steam mills, and 35 water mills, while there were only 3 vacuum-pan refineries. The bulk of the product is what is called "low-grade muscovado." Up to 1890 the United States imported from 110,000,000 to 300,000,000 pounds. But China and Japan take more than they used to, and in 1897 our importation had fallen off to 73,000,000 pounds.

The tobacco industry is a leading one. The abuses which resulted from government monopoly of the trade are dwelt on by all. Government monopoly lasted from 1781 to December 31, 1882, at which time the industry passed into the hands of private dealers. Under the monopoly the natives were compelled to raise tobacco, often to the neglect or exclusion even of crops necessary for their support, while the government took the tobacco crop as revenue. They were required in many cases to use lands unfit for the plant. The price was fixed arbitrarily, and, as if to heap indignities upon the poor natives, they were forbidden, on pain of heavy fines, to use any of the product themselves. The official inspectors, moreover, threw out all tobacco below a certain grade, and even this, instead of being turned over to the natives, was wilfully burned. The whole affair was managed by spies, called government agents. Of course under such forced conditions it was difficult to improve the methods of cultivation and manufacture. And the present system is far from natural. The native, while relieved of many flagrant abuses, is still left out as far as profit is concerned; and it is probable the best results will not be obtained until a more hearty coöperation is secured. At present the products are excellent, but not up to the standards of Cuba, where the stimulus of American enterprise has been felt both in sugar and tobacco. In 1897, 801,437 pounds of leaf tobacco were exported, and 156,916,000 cigars. There was also a large consumption in the islands.

Rice is much raised, and is a leading article of food. The profit on rice is very small, and the crop suffers much from typhoons, droughts, and pests,—especially the locust. Improved winnowing-machines are little used; the grain is still threshed out under the feet of women and cattle.

Agriculture is the main occupation. "The plantation is the industrial unit," says one. Methods are very primitive, the crooked stick is the plow, and only the depth and fertility of the soil make it possible to raise as good crops as they do. Fruit is not much cultivated. The oranges are wild and of poor quality. The reason why the "Manila hemp" product is so considerable is because it requires very little cultivation and has almost no enemies. The agricultural industry exhibits some very grave abuses. The merchants or exporters, and the capitalists, or middle-men as they are called,—for they furnish the planters money with which to operate,—are the classes who become richer and richer. They grind down the planters by exorbitant interest charges, and by keeping prices below what they are in outside markets; and the planters in turn grind, and still more finely, the mute toiling mass at the bottom. The labor problem is a most serious one. To import labor would be hardly practicable; and the natives want pay in advance, and often desert before their time is out and when they are most needed. Climatic and other conditions have rendered them incapable of regular and continual work.

We can do little more than enumerate other products. Nipa wine, a mild alcoholic drink distilled from the nipa palm, is much in request. Tuba, another alcoholic drink, is obtained by tapping the blossom stalk of the cocoanut palm. The betel-nut is the Filipino's opiate or soporific. Leaves of a trailing plant, *buyo*, are smeared with lime and wrapped about the nut. The whole is then chewed. The juice of it is of the color of bright arterial blood, giving the mouth of the person using it a most revolting appearance. The nests of the little swift (a kind of swallow), gathered along the rocky cliffs with so much difficulty, and yet in such quantities on account of the Chinese demand, are formed of a salivary secretion which soon becomes firm on exposure to the air. They are a glutinous white

substance with little red dots. They are clean, the nests being taken as soon as completed. The little swift, being repeatedly robbed, is at last compelled to eke out its waning supply of secretion with little sticks and grass, and is thus enabled to lay its eggs and hatch its young, as only nests free from foreign material are merchantable. Excellent coffee and maize are grown; Irish potatoes have been introduced, but are inferior, though very good sweet potatoes are raised. Gutta percha is abundant, and inferior cinnamon is obtained.

But it is to the forests of the Philippines that we are wholly unable to do justice. Timber exists in great variety and of most excellent quality. There are to be found kinds of wood suitable to every purpose. Many are of dense and tough fibre susceptible of the highest polish. Four kinds are so heavy that water will not float them, nor can they be cut with ordinary saws. One variety is of a bright emerald green, and another rich yellow, and they retain those colors when polished. Another, "narra," perhaps the prettiest, and much used in fine furniture, varies in color from light straw to deep red. It is strong and hard and takes a high polish. Perhaps the best known is "molave," a very heavy dark-brown wood, used for finishing in the interior of the Jesuit Church at Manila, where it is said the carvings are by master hands and of surpassing beauty. Ebony is abundant. There are the cacao tree, the cocoanut palm, and the bamboo, all invaluable to the natives, and also a tree which yields a kind of cotton.

A pitcher-plant is found with receptacles that hold as much as a quart of water. There is a very curious plant with long pendant feelers that hang near the ground and have remarkable prehensile properties, taking the strongest hold on anything that happens to touch them. It is with the greatest difficulty that a passer-by can extricate himself from one of these many-fingered, hanging hands.

The fauna of the islands is less interesting, if we except the feathered tribes. Professor Worcester says that some 590 species of birds are known, and there are many rare and beautiful forms. It is interesting to note the absence of all large *felidæ*. The climate is probably unfit for our finer breeds of domestic animals. Cattle, horses, pigs, and a few sheep are found, but they are inferior. The prin-

cial beast of burden is the *carabao*, or water-buffalo, a large, coarse animal, amphibious by nature, wallowing in the mud, and grazing on plants beneath the surface of the water. Its powers of endurance are not commensurate with its size, and it is not strictly reliable, as it often indulges in a mud bath in spite of its driver, these frequent plunges seeming to be necessary for its comfort.

Fish are abundant, and form one of the principal articles of food. Reptiles, insects, and all kinds of vermin abound. Professor Worcester secured a python 22 feet 6 inches long, and weighing nearly 400 pounds. Large colonies of fruit-bats measuring from 3 feet to 4½ feet across the wings are occasionally found. They hang head downward from branches during the day, and have a curious way of fanning themselves with one wing. The fur has some value, and the natives eat them. Professor Worcester and his companion were at one time practically compelled to do so, though they have a most offensive odor and are very disgusting creatures.

Practically all minerals are known to exist in the Philippines, though to what extent remains to be determined. Gold was early discovered, and recent travellers assure us that it exists in paying quantities. Coal has not yet been discovered. Lignite—a so-called mineral coal, in which may be seen the striations of the wood from which it was formed, and which gives a peculiar odor in burning, due to the oily deposit in it—is found and makes good fuel. It is simply of more recent origin than what may be called true coal. Iron is probably abundant. Galena containing gold and silver, sulphur, petroleum, and gypsum have been discovered, also beds of marble and mines of natural paint. There are many precious stones, such as rubies and hyacinths.

Spain's government of the islands has undergone many changes. The administration in force at the time of Admiral Dewey's victory and for twelve years previous was briefly this: The colony comprised nineteen provinces. The chief officer was the governor-general, aided by his cabinet and council. At the head of each province was a sub-governor. The total number of towns is about 750, and over each presided a *gobernadorcillo*, or "little governor." A recent writer, Mr. Lala, says the governors "entered into

politics as a speculation. More properly, I should say, as a speculation."

Manila, the capital and chief port, in the southwestern part of Luzon, has a population of about 300,000. It is divided by the Pasig River into old, or "walled" Manila and the busy commercial part. The harbor is too large to afford the best protection. Manila has degree-giving educational institutions, charitable institutions, a cathedral rebuilt after the earthquake of 1880, at a cost of \$500,000, an English club with up-town and down-town quarters, a street railway, and so on. But Manila has been quite fully written up by itself, and need not have the space here that should otherwise be given it.

The other principal cities are: Iloilo, Cebú, and Cavité. The harbor of Iloilo affords better shelter than that of Manila. The city is considerably higher than Manila, and is said to be healthier. Taál, Lipa, Batangas, and Santa Cruz are important towns.

Under Spanish rule the real governing power of the islands lay in the church. With regard to religion among the Filipinos we may divide them into three principal groups: the Catholics, composing quite half of the total population, including all the civilized natives; the pagan Malays, comprising for the most part the wild or hill tribes, from 2,000,000 to 4,000,000; and the Mohammedan Malays, in the southwestern islands,—Mohammedans, probably, because of their proximity to Borneo. The religious ideas of the pagan Malays are most curious and interesting. They believe in a future life and a system of rewards and punishments.

There are in the islands one archbishopric and six bishoprics. The salutary influences of Catholicism among the Filipinos are not to be spoken of lightly; but its evil influences also are glaringly apparent. Mr. John Foreman, himself a Catholic, and probably the best authority on the general subject of the Philippines, by his plain, candid statement of facts portrays a most distressing condition of affairs. The parish priest, so far from having been amenable to the civil government, had it quite under his thumb. He was often guilty of the grossest immorality, but if the families that suffered dared to protest they were imprisoned or banished. The slightest opposition to him in political matters, in which he mingled in accordance with his whim, was punished in like

manner. Without sentence, or trial, or even a judge's warrant,—merely by a significant "order of the governor,"—persons were thus summarily disposed of.

Such enormities on the part of the church, the utter perversion of justice in the courts, and the wholesale thievery on the part of officials, were in general the causes which led to the rebellion of Au-

gust, 1896. It is to be hoped that such abuses may be abolished, and that the advent of the power and authority of the United States in the islands may usher in a reign of order based not on fear, as heretofore, but on some system approaching justice; and that an era of prosperity and true development may soon begin for the Filipinos. GEORGE E. STANFORD.

EVANSTON, ILL.

THE FOURTH OF JULY

HAS ITS ORIGINAL IMPORT PASSED AWAY?

WHY is the Fourth of July celebrated in these latter days? Is it because on June 7, 1776, Richard Henry Lee moved that "these United States are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States?" Or because on July 4, 1776, the American Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence? Observation teaches that both these questions must be answered in the negative.

Animosity toward England and a new sense of national importance lent fervor to the celebration of the Declaration of Independence in earlier days. Opposition and antagonism seemed to feed the spirit of patriotism. It was while the British were bombarding Fort McHenry, in September, 1814, before the close of the War of 1812, that Francis Scott Key composed "The Star-Spangled Banner." This spirit of animosity was strong during the first half of the nineteenth century. As late as 1840 Congress was wrangling over a gift by an Englishman—one James Smithson—to the United States. This gentleman had made a will bequeathing his property to "the United States of America, to found at Washington, under the name of 'The Smithsonian Institution,' an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." In 1835 Smithson's will became operative, and in 1837 the commission appointed by President Jackson went to England and secured the money, but Congress spent eight years debating its acceptance. A motion was made opposing the acceptance of "a bequest which originated in British vanity," and a proposition was made to return the money. This motion was opposed in the Senate by Clay, Buchanan, and Webster, and in the House by Jefferson Davis, Stephen A. Douglas, and Joshua Giddings.

The gift was finally accepted in spite of the supposed "British vanity" which prompted it.

In the 'sixties the nation's eyes were turned in on itself. The old hatred of the mother country was renewed in the North under the general impression that England favored the South. Fourth of July celebrations took on the nature of reviews of troops and an expressed opposition to the idea of secession. Bands called "callithumpians" were formed to harass and annoy persons known to be antagonistic to the policy of the North. These bands, however, usually did nothing more serious than to appear in more or less disguise at Fourth of July celebrations and add to the amusement of the occasion.

During the civil war, as has been intimated, the "Fourth" was made an occasion for newly enlisted soldier boys to display their skill in marching and manoeuvring. Picnics and barbecues were held in their honor. After the close of the war sham battles, under the direction of some war veteran, were in order as a means of celebration.

At all demonstrations, large or small, in city or country, both before the civil war and for two decades after its close, the reading of the Declaration of Independence was a prominent feature. When this reading began to be omitted older people felt as though treason was being committed. Nevertheless the younger generation preferred a political speech or an oration on some question of the day to the "Whereases" and "Therefore's" of the Declaration of Independence. Occasionally it may yet be read, but if so it is not listened to with veneration and uncovered head as in former times, but is endured with the characteristic patience of an

American holiday crowd, which perhaps submits to more inconveniences for the sake of a little pleasure than a similar gathering in any other nation under the sun will endure. Not that up-to-date Americans are less patriotic than their forbears, for Americans are always ready to give "three cheers for the red, white, and blue," but the motive for reading the Declaration of Independence is gone. The feeling of animosity toward England which characterized former generations had disappeared during this generation. "Ocean greyhounds" have done much in the last fifteen or twenty years to modify the spirit of American antagonism toward the mother country. The number of tourists on pleasure trips from this country to Great Britain and the Continent increases each year. After enjoying English hospitality for a season no tourist—certainly no historical student with pride in the past of the race—can be aroused by a Fourth of July reading of the Declaration of Independence into an active hatred of England such as seemed inherent in his grandfather. Wealthy intermarriages have also helped to bring the two countries together in spite of the flood of humorous newspaper squibs that always follows such an event.

But the crowning act in welding the two nations together was England's attitude during the Spanish-American war. The two peoples suddenly found themselves to be Anglo-Saxons, with a common instinct against the Latins. England's former attitude of superiority toward America gave place to a feeling of kinship and re-

spect. The Stars and Stripes no longer expressed rebellion against English royal authority, but stood for the inherent rights of humanity. And "when in the course of human events" it became necessary to demonstrate to Spain that her mediæval policy in dealing with her colonies was wrong, England looked with approval on the part played by her grown-up daughter, the Goddess of Liberty. When the Fourth of July season for 1898 came round, American graybeards read with pleased astonishment accounts of the display of the Stars and Stripes and speeches of approval made in London and in Canada. The Declaration of Independence which early fed their patriotic fervor against Great Britain came to have a broader meaning and a wider scope, covering not only English colonies of more than a century ago, but present-day humanity wherever oppressed.

So the original import of the Fourth of July has passed away. Instead of celebrating the independence of the American colonies, the "grand and glorious Fourth" has become a holiday which is characterized mainly by a great display of flags, fireworks, and bunting, and a zealous explosion of fire-crackers and cannon calculated to lay more than one life on the altar of its country. The Declaration of Independence may be no longer read with the solemn and almost religious fervor displayed by our grandsires, but there still remains a strong and active patriotism in this "land of the free and home of the brave."

EMMA SEEVERS JONES.

KENT, OHIO.

HOW THE BLACK RUBS OFF

EVERYONE has observed that the black rubs off a pot, but perhaps not everyone has noticed that the black rubs off a negro. In either case the tendency is to spot the lighter object rather than to whiten the other. We should expect this. Let any two persons be associated closely and long, each will adopt some habit, idea, or mode of expression from the other. It is also true that the lower its rank in the order of being, the greater the tenacity with which any animal clings to its peculiarities. Hence we should expect that two centuries of association would result in

the adoption by the black man of something from the white, and by the white man of a great deal more from the black. It is my purpose to show how this unequal exchange is exemplified in one of the colored States,—a State in which a majority of the people are negroes,—premising that I use the word "association" in the sense of business connection, as nurse, cook, house-woman, waiter, hostler, gardener, general laborer, etc. Before the war everyone that could had these dependents; and all who can afford to, and many who can not, have them still. And the time has never been when it was not

considered grand to have a gang of little negroes running about the place with the white children.

In the State to which I refer, I have observed five spots on the whites which were undoubtedly rubbed off from the blacks.

1. Perhaps the most prominent trait of the negro is his freedom from care. Anxiety or apprehension with regard to the future he knows nothing about. He swallows his last morsel at night, lies down, and outsleeps a king. If he is to be turned out homeless; if his property is to be taken; if one of his family or himself is to be imprisoned or hanged,—if it be as far off as to-morrow he cares no more than if it were a hundred years away or not to be at all. This leaves nothing in the way of mirth and uproarious hilarity. No other race ever laughed as loud and as much as the negro.

This is as little like the Anglo-Saxon as possible, but very much like the white inhabitant of our colored State to-day. I have known a group of officials and others who happened to meet in an office, all perfectly sober, "joke and go on" for an hour or more, with peal after peal of laughter so loud as to be heard a block or two down the streets in every direction. I have seen a group of intelligent business men, seated in the shade of a business house, "joke and go on" with an idle negro who could amuse with a few sharp sayings and "monkey-shines"; and these men would laugh and yell and blow their noses and cough, as if it were almost funnier than they could bear. I have seen and heard a group at a street-corner, "swapping a few jokes," raise such laughter and yells as to be heard nearly across town. I have seen the best young ladies walking the street, in one of the most cultured cities, talking and laughing loud enough to be heard a hundred yards away. A stump-speaker can have all the "laughter and applause" he wants by looking funny; and an ordinary country "party" is expected to be audible more than half a mile in every direction.

2. The negro loves a "shine,"—something bright, anything he can get, the more the better. Go into his cabin: all is dirt, rags, and confusion; but in the cleanest corner is a nice trunk which contains his Sunday clothes. On the first day of the week these clothes take the place of his tattered duds, and he comes

out a Chesterfield. The brightest bit of a circus poster occupies the post of honor over the smoky mantel, and anything that shines is posted where it will make the best display. A large brass button or a second-hand "plug" hat is made to do duty for years. I have seen a half-grown boy, barefooted, naked but for part of an old pair of trousers, a piece of an old shirt, and a very small fragment of a hat, put on a fashionable but cast-off necktie he had picked up, and go strutting down the street like a lord. A negro will almost give his soul for a dime or a nickel, but will part with it freely for a shine or a show.

His white neighbor also "loves a shining mark." Many can afford it, a majority can not, but all must have it. They must have a piano if the grocer's bill has to wait. They must have jewelry, whether the butcher's bills are paid or not. Many wear silk who can hardly pay their washerwoman. They sell old clothes and dicker in private over dimes and nickels, a pound of butter, or a dozen eggs, for the sake of coming out on Sunday in a fashionable hat. And the carriage is the crowning evidence of nobility, especially if they can have a negro driver. Many are so fond of "keeping a negro" that everything else has to give way to that fancy. I knew a man who kept three negroes when to save his life he could not pay half the mortgages on his property. This love of display and general insufficiency of means have produced the most reckless extravagance and the most stupendous stinginess in the world. I have known a lady possessed of fine property to sell sour buttermilk to a poor neighbor at ten cents a gallon; another to sell watered skim-milk for cream at five cents a pint; and still another to sell soured milk, diluted with hot water, for new milk. And all three were what are known as "religious" women. I knew a man worth \$150,000, who discovered that a customer owed him ten cents, and forthwith made out a bill and sent a dun for it. A retired minister in need went to a rich man, of his own creed, to sell a good book taken from what was left of his library, and returned home hungry; yet that rich man gave a hundred dollars at a time to ornament the church. A circuit-rider went to one of his wealthiest members for a dime to make up, with what he had, enough to pay a debt; he did not get it!

3. The negro is timid. He is naturally superstitious, besides being an underling and always afraid. He is like a wild animal in this, his first impulse being to fly from danger, and his courage being born of frenzy and therefore furious. Nothing is more easily communicated from children to children than fear. I do not say that the white people of the State are cowards, but assuredly they are remarkably timid. Almost every young man wants to carry a pistol,—in the elegant phraseology of the neighborhood, “to tote a gun.” Why,—unless he is afraid of something or somebody? When he gets into a quarrel he makes haste to “pull his gun.” Why,—unless he is scared? The daily murder never fails to bring out the plea of self-defence; the equivalent of saying, “I was in danger, or thought I was,—I was afraid.” This timidity was never seen in their Revolutionary sires; and I do not know where it came from unless it has rubbed off somebody else at a later day. I do not say that all the “pistol-toters” are cowards, but I do say that I have not known a case of shooting in ten years in which the element of cowardice did not crop out in some part of the transaction.

4. A negro never finishes anything. If the work is for himself, it is enough if “it’ll do”; if for another, it is enough if he can get it off his hands and secure his pay. He never builds a house or anything else exactly square, level, or perpendicular; never makes a basket or anything else quite symmetrical. All he does bears marks of haste; nothing bears a mark of painstaking or skill.

The white man shows the same disposition on other lines. Houses are put up hurriedly. In towns not one in fifty, in the country not one in five hundred, is ever finished. This is true of residences and outhouses, churches and school-houses, and everything else. Enterprises are taken up hurriedly, and as hurriedly laid aside. The State is strewn with the ruins of experiments that were never fully tried. Every man sets out fruit-trees; not one in five hundred raises fruit. Everyone invests something in fine-blooded stock, is enthusiastic for a year or two, then falls back on the common “scrub.” And you may hear hundreds of sermons and addresses before hearing one finished production. Indeed, nearly all the careful thinkers, who finish what they write, are connected with the periodical press.

5. The negro has any amount of religion, but no morality to speak of. Nearly all “belong to the Church.” This implies the obligation, universally recognized, to pay the preacher, to attend the church services and especially funerals, not to “cuss” too much, to abstain from labor on Sunday and from dancing, and to talk religion and Scripture on all occasions. All adult negroes are expected to pray in public; and all the prominent ones are expected to “amen,” shout, groan, stamp, or clap hands at some time during sermon, especially if the latter be long and loud, or the congregation large. All this being duly observed, they will between times violate every one of the Ten Commandments. Perhaps one in four hundred is honest, truthful, and virtuous; the rest violate all rules as to these virtues without scruple. And their preachers, abounding everywhere, are scarcely better.

I suppose seven eighths of the white people are church-members. A large majority dance and play cards. Nearly all the men habitually use profane language. One of the strictest Presbyterians I know,—an officer and under oath to report public profanity,—I have repeatedly heard using foul language himself. I have heard the teacher of the young men’s Bible class in the Methodist Sunday school using terrible oaths on the street, being intoxicated at the time. A prominent Methodist, a candidate, revamped an absurd and disgusting old story, and put all the profanity in the mouth of his own little boy. He was applauded. I have heard from the pulpit language that was absolutely shocking. Scarcely an anecdote is told that is not both vulgar and profane. But no amount of wickedness and debauchery seems to unfit a man for church-membership.

There is some excuse for the negro’s tendency to lie and steal. Always in fault, or assumed to be, he has become an adept at excuses, and lying is part of his nature. He runs through every grade of falsehood and deceit; but hardly a word that he utters is strictly true. Believing that he has some claim on the white man’s wealth, he is constantly devising schemes to get it, and he never misses an opportunity to take an advantage—or anything else. The white man seeks as eagerly to take advantage of the negro. Both lay truth and honesty out of business and even

out of non-commercial affairs. Testimony in court is a notorious farce, and election returns are as bad or worse. With sinners wearing on their persons garments or jewelry that are the proceeds of questionable or dishonest transactions, kneeling at God's altar in prayer for the other sinners who have been despoiled, there need be little wonder that nobody has confidence in anybody. Not only every negro, but every

white man, has to secure his merchant with a mortgage if he wants credit. This credit and mortgage system leads each party to take every advantage of the other; cotton is bought and goods are sold at ruinous prices; and the whole business world is like a carnival of ravenous beasts intent on mutual destruction.

A. C. JOHNSON.

QUITMAN, ARK.

THE DOMINANT SEA POWER

THAT was a significant yet pitiful and humiliating confession made recently by a great Parisian newspaper: "France would hardly come off better in a war with England than did Spain in the war with the United States." The Yankee victories have put the Anglo-Saxon in the saddle again, and doubtless they had a moral effect in favor of England in the later squabbles with France over African affairs. Between these sad, despondent lines we may read all Europe's real opinion of the relative instant capacity of France and England for offence and defence in case of hostilities. If France, with her vast armies and enormous sea forces, is no match for England, how would the other nations, with fewer ships, fare in a contest with the dominant sea Power?

Notwithstanding much recent predication of the decadence of her physical and commercial forces, and consequent impotence in international politics, held to be emphasized by recent events in China, this frank French editor but voices the conviction of all students of the rise and fall of nations that England remains today, as she has been for two hundred and fifty years, the most formidable power on earth, by reason of her unquestioned command of the sea and practical ability to make her enormous marine resources rapidly available. The British Empire, in wealth, area, and population, is the greatest in history; it is half-a-dozen times greater than Rome in her zenith. It is no idle boast that "England's drum-beat is heard round the world."

Shallow space-writers have affected to sneer at England as only the "cowardly bully" of weak peoples,—a very picturesque and expressive term in a contemptuous sense, but inaccurate as a statement of fact. She has always mani-

festated not only physical but moral courage and stamina of the highest order, seldom attributes of a mere cowardly bully. Very wisely, humanely, and economically she achieves her policy of domination if possible by mere assertion, after the manner of the French at Fashoda, and by the display rather than actual demonstration of her power. But when determinedly opposed, or her interests are threatened, she will fight as readily as any of the nations.

The most conclusive answer to assertions that England is moribund, that her power and courage are gone, is found in the struggle now going on for possession of the African continent, and especially in her dealings with the antagonistic interests of France. Of late the Republic has assumed a very truculent attitude, and in the settlement of the unimportant Niger boundaries within the year it is believed that England yielded more than she ought, albeit it appears that English interests thereabout were neither very well defined nor of vital consequence to her African policy. Nevertheless, when France issued from the controversy with rather more than the world, in its vague way, thought her entitled to, at once it was shouted that Salisbury had "backed down again." But at any rate England suffered no loss of prestige.

Then followed the Fashoda incident, a contention in which France had not a leg to stand upon. Yet, by setting up and persisting in a false and untenable claim, she brought herself to the brink of a war which would at least have been almost certainly the ruin of all her colonial enterprises, for upon this occasion England did not back down. On the contrary, one of her vital interests being threatened, without circumlocution she notified the

French government in unmistakable, even menacing, terms of her determination to fight for the suzerainty of the Nile valley, and began immediate preparations on a tremendous scale with that object in view. France, in the wrong, well knowing she was in no condition successfully to face England's sea power, to avert a national catastrophe yielded the immediate contention and will eventually* yield everything. In doing so she loses enormously in prestige, while England, which is wholly right and fully justified in her Nile attitude, regains at a bound the commanding position before the world which it had been delusively presumed she had forever lost from sheer physical inability to maintain in the face of stronger military Powers, of which there are at least three in Europe.

Those who thoughtlessly denounce England as a bully and a coward totally misapprehend the lessons of history. She will always fight when it is necessary, or when there is anything to be gained by it. At one time when her commercial interests and national existence were menaced, alone she antagonized practically the whole world banded under the leadership of genius, and emerged triumphantly from the contest. She has gained her vast prestige and made her greatest conquests in actual war with the mightiest of nations.

And where are the evidences of England's decadence? Let us further compare these two great rivals. After the struggles of ages their relative positions at the close of the nineteenth century are startling. The empire and the people of Charlemagne are circumscribed to their narrowest limits. It is a statistical fact that the brave and brilliant Gallic race has ceased to increase, and that fact alone places it in the category of dying nations, — a gloomy outlook only relieved by fugitive essays at colonial expansion in Algeria, Madagascar, Cambodia, and elsewhere, all of which will fall an easy prey to the British navy on the first great outbreak, as Canada and India have fallen before. That outbreak cannot in the nature of things be far distant. And herein lies the vulnerable weakness of all England's rivals,—they cannot defend their acquisitions abroad.

But while France, under her military heroes, has been fighting some glorious battles, and spasmodically on occasion spreading out over Europe, making a stir among men, and in the end losing all, England, with iron resolution and guided by a definite, far-seeing, steadfast purpose, has by superior diplomacy and successful war absorbed the garden spots of the earth. We now see her at the very pinnacle of national greatness. And her grip appears to be substantial and permanent; there is no sign that British courage and tenacity are less reliable, less constant than of old. Omdurman and Fashoda are in too recent evidence.

Superficially it is a matter of astonishment that this small island's power is so nearly preponderant while it is yet so enormously outclassed in population by its European rivals. The extraordinary potentiality of this wonderful people lies not in actual numbers, but is derived from the instinctive aptitude of the race for sea-fighting; from its overwhelming sea power; from the material wealth which has been the outgrowth of its long command of a universal maritime trade, a commercial supremacy in its ramifications and extent the like of which the world has never seen. The influence of maritime supremacy on the world's affairs has until recent times been but dimly understood even by the most subtle minds.

The fighting superiority of the Greeks upon the sea paralyzed the prodigious armaments of Xerxes. Roman control of the Mediterranean was the determining factor in the defeat of the Carthaginian invasion. The destruction of the colossal Spanish Armada saved England and broke the power of the Spanish monarchy. Sea power and maritime commerce made little Holland the most important of nations at one time. Momentary command of the Chesapeake Bay by a French fleet compelled the surrender of Cornwallis and the eventual acknowledgment of American independence. Nelson's decisive victory of the Nile in 1798 completely frustrated Napoleon's mysterious designs in Egypt and Asia. In spite of Napoleon's genius, in spite of his resources, in spite of his Continental victories and his Berlin decrees, domination of the seas enabled the people of this island — a mere dot on the map of Europe — to thwart his most comprehensive and well-laid plans, and finally to compass his ruin and isolation upon

* This paper was prepared prior to the recent Anglo-French convention by which France yielded all claim to territorial foothold on the Nile or on the Bahr-el-Ghazal, its western affluent.

the rock of St. Helena. But it is unnecessary to go further afield for examples of the influence of sea power upon international affairs than our own recent victories of Manila and Santiago.

England's insular position has been her safeguard. It has for centuries protected her from those vicissitudes of fortune that retard the progress and sooner or later overwhelm nations not thus fortunately shielded from the encroachments of rapacious neighbors. Inaccessible at home, her fleets sweep the seas to the uttermost limits of the globe; and when war comes, her navy, in its own good time, takes from her rivals all that it is for her material advantage to possess. It is certainly a great game that England plays in the world's affairs, and will continue to play deep into the future, unless all signs fail. Events that occurred in America a hundred and fifty years ago are being repeated in Africa to-day. The ultimate result is inevitable. Fashoda will be followed by another Quebec, and all the Dark Continent will eventually fall under the permanent sway of Great Britain.

Among England's all-wise policies one of the most fortunate was the total abandonment of her earlier efforts at Continental aggrandizement. It has enabled her to play the nations like shuttlecocks. Dreamers and sentimental phrase-makers love to dwell upon the "gigantic struggle" going on between England and Russia. It is a chimera of the imagination. England is not vulnerable to an attack from Russia, nor are any of her possessions. She has no difficulty in bringing to the support of her diplomacy, and her armies and fleets if necessary, those Powers which are in constant dread of a disarrangement of the European equilibrium, — the "balance of power." England, not a Continental but a sea Power, is not inimical or dangerous, but rather friendly to that balance, while Russia is a constant menace to it.

On land or sea the Englishman is invariably brave and resourceful, but it is on the sea that he fights most effectively and rises superior to all other nationalities except our own. No English ship was ever captured by one of equal size and power of any other nation except ours. No English fleet was ever destroyed by one no more than its equal of any other nation except ours. True, English fleets and ships have been defeated and captured by French-

men, Dutchmen, and others, but only when they have been outnumbered or through some unavoidable accident. His courage, cool, calculating, and unblenching under all circumstances, blazes forth in times of extraordinary peril into a savage fierceness that on the ocean makes the Englishman unconquerable. This indomitable spirit was illustrated by Howard, Drake, and Rodney; by the heroic Nelson, and finally in some sort by even Morgan, the implacable buccaneer of the Spanish Main. On land the same unshrinking tenacity of purpose to do or die was manifested by Clive, by Wolfe, and by Wellington, and in the African jungles by Livingstone. There is an absolute grandeur about the fierce, masterful English character in action only paralleled by the Romans of Scipio Africanus. I am proud of the English name and the English race.

And who shall condemn her schemes of conquest and commercial expansion through successful colonization? What we see England doing now was done by Rome and her forerunners from the dawn of nations; by blighting, cruel Spain; by Frederick and Napoleon in modern times; by France, Germany, and the insidious and sleepless Russia of our own day; and by the United States themselves, within fifty years, for the darkling purpose of slavery extension. Why quarrel with immutable laws of nature? Conquest and aggression have gone hand in hand with power in all ages and with all peoples. Even the children of Israel—the chosen of God—conquered and enslaved their weaker neighbors.

To do her justice, England is the greatest civilizer and liberalizer in history. The English subject, wherever he may be,—in Canada, Australia, or Africa,—has more personal liberty and individual opportunity than obtains under any other rule, always excepting our own. Hence I view England's aggrandizement with equanimity. I do not perceive that her methods or tendencies are reactionary. They are not; and they are no more reprehensible than those of other nations, not one of which is overlooking opportunities for territorial acquisitions. All are jealous of England because by reason of her preponderant maritime power she carries on the game on a far more comprehensive scale than they can ever hope to.

Since the American Revolution fortune has seldom frowned upon the modern mistress of the seas; she has met with no adversities that count in the progress of nations. For more than a hundred years she has scarcely called a halt in her stupendous career of expansion. Who can say she has seen her best days? There are as yet no manifestations of exhaustion; of infirmity of purpose or objective; of irresolution to act, and to act boldly and decisively. On the contrary, for my own part, I see in the England of Omdurman and Fashoda the same bold, self-reliant, and irresistible England of the Elizabethan and Cromwellian periods. Instead of hesitation and weakness, at the close of the nineteenth century her imperial policy of commercial domination and territorial expansion is rather accentuated. Even we of to-day have witnessed its steady progress with the relentless power and noiseless precision that characterizes some great piece of machinery. We have seen its aggressive purposes pressed forward daily, hourly, without cessation, and in truth with but little hindrance. Accounts of British advances in all parts of the world are perennial.

No doubt, for ages to come, Britain, frowning down from her chalk cliffs, protected by ironclad fleets manned and commanded by the ablest seamen in history, will continue to send her dictums and her defiance across the waters. How long this splendid race can withstand the corroding influences of material prosperity, luxury, and ease, coupled with advancing age, before joining the procession of dying nationalities, is of course problematical. But in their cold northern climate, completely isolated from jealous neighbors, with their phlegmatic temperament and moderate appetites, it seems likely that the English will endure far beyond the span of the Roman power. I can see no sign of decay in this domineering, virile nation. The deliberate policy that dictated, as well as the methods that characterized, the expulsion of the French from North America, the seizure of Gibraltar and Malta, and the occupation of India in the last century, are no different or more vigorous than those displayed in our own time in the purchase of the Suez Canal, the occupation of Egypt, or the absorption of barbarian Africa.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

LESLIE J. PERRY.

BOOK NOMENCLATURE

WE NOTICE among the late items of literary news, that Mr. Barrie has now written more than half of the sequel to "Sentimental Tommy." The provisional title is, "The Celebrated Tommy," but this may be changed before it appears in "Scribner's Magazine" in 1900.

So important is the title of a book considered, that an author often changes it even after the book has been printed. A Scotch writer said that once when he was perplexed with the difficulty of selecting an appropriate and unused title for his book, it was suggested to him that in such a strait he should "request the prayers of the congregation."

The task of making a choice does not become easier as time goes on, and much thought is bestowed on the grave question. The late Mr. James Payn, the English novelist, dwelt upon the annoyances he had been subjected to; twice he had been forced to pay heavy damages to publishers for unconsciously infringing copy-

right by choosing titles of novels that had been published, but of which he, in common with a large majority of readers, had never heard. He illustrated the trouble liable to occur when making a selection, by his experience with one of his latest novels. He decided to call it "Wheat with Wild Tares," but found that that had been appropriated. Then he selected "Another's Burden," only to learn that it also was in use, and at last he had to christen his book "One Another's Burden."

The French writer, M. Jules Claretie, had a similar experience a short time ago. He first called his novel "L'Œil du Mort" or "The Dead Man's Eye." Immediately a suit was brought against him, for this had been used more than twenty years before; and though the original had been neither successful nor popular, yet M. Claretie was worsted and had to change the name to "L'Accusateur." The book has been translated and published in this country as "The Crime of the Boulevard."

It is often interesting to learn the origin of a book's name, especially if it is a curious one. Mr. Julian Hawthorne, in reply to the comments upon the title of his story, "A Fool of Nature," said that he had several names under consideration before deciding. One was "Murgatroyd's Majority;" another, "An Innocent Traitor;" and a third, which he liked best himself, "A Sow's Ear" (out of which, however, it would be impossible to make a silk purse); but he feared this would not please the public, so he finally made a fourth choice, declaring that "titles are ticklish things."

Marie Corelli's "Romance of Two Worlds" was originally called "Uplifted," and the later and more attractive title was suggested by her stepbrother, the late Eric Mackay, the poet.

Mr. Edward Everett Hale confesses that the subject has ever been a serious one with him, especially in choosing a felicitous title for a collection of short stories. When his volume, "If, Yes, and Perhaps," appeared, the public could make nothing of the title; and "after struggling through five or six editions," says Mr. Hale, "we were obliged to do what we have done here,—to give to the volume the name of the first story in the collection."

We feel inclined to protest against Mr. Hale's modest way of expressing his opinion of the value of a good name, for it is difficult to fancy that a volume containing such delightful stories as "The Man Without a Country" should have had to make much of a struggle to gain the favor of the public.

Hawthorne's experience in having his "Marble Faun" appear in England under the title of "Transformation" was repeated with Mr. Harold Frederic. "The Damnation of Theron Ware" was issued in London as "Illumination." The author was occupied several years in the composition of the novel, and a copy of the first half was sent to this country in 1893 under the title afterward used here. When he at last decided, on its completion, to name it "Illumination," he forgot to inform the American publishers; and they are not few who must consider it a fortunate omission. Mr. Frederic, while never seeming to strive for far-fetched titles, was fortunate in selecting taking ones, as "In the Valley," "The Lawton Girl," and others.

It would seem that titles must be scarce

when Mrs. Burnett, usually so happy in her selections, calls a recent book, "Two Little Pilgrims' Progress," thus closely trespassing on Bunyan's great allegory, which should always stand sacredly alone; and a fairy tale entitled "A New Alice in the Old Wonderland" encroaches on the domain of Lewis Carroll's little classic, which should ever belong exclusively to him.

Mr. Hall Caine must have early decided to spare himself all unnecessary work in making selections of this kind. He generally follows the plan adopted in one of his earliest novels, and *the* is made conspicuous in nearly all that he has written. We have had "The Deemster," "The Bondman," "The Scapegoat," "The Manxman," "The Story of the Little Manx Nation," and lastly "The Christian."

What a happy choice was that striking title, "White Aprons," which two years ago Maud Wilder Goodwin gave to her story of Bacon's Rebellion!

Another American novelist has chosen well and wisely for his short stories, collections, and novels. One must needs be hypercritical not to find Mr. James Lane Allen's titles especially felicitous; "The White Cow," "Flute and Violin," "A Kentucky Cardinal," "Aftermath," "A Summer in Arcady," and, above all, one of *the* books of the past few years,— "The Choir Invisible."

When a style of nomenclature adopted makes "a hit"—how speedily it is followed up! After Mrs. Deland's "John Ward, Preacher" appeared, we had "John March, Southerner," "Metzerott, Shoemaker," and many others similarly named. The style is still popular, and of late we have had, "Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker," "Harold Bradley, Playwright," "John Ship, Mariner," and "Caleb West, Master Diver."

Gilbert Parker has evinced a genius for titles, as the adoption of such good ones as "The Seats of the Mighty" and "The Battle of the Strong" testify.

There has ever been magic in an alliterative name, as illustrated by "Golden Gossip," "Captains Courageous," "Penelope's Progress," "Red Rock," and, above all, by that happy book by which Ian Maclaren first appealed to the public, who welcomed the beautiful alliteration contained in "Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush."

M. R. SILSBY.



SOME of our daily newspapers fairly bubble over with "Hints on Dressing" or "Fashions from London," and others contain learned dissertations by Professor Sansgout, of Paris, or Sig-

nor Loosafitti, of somewhere else, upon kindred themes; all, of course, profusely illustrated. Then there are the essentially feminine journals that devote uncountable reams of paper and tons of ink exclusively to that subject; and we must take into account, too, the many periodicals published by the great dressmaking and pattern establishments. Surely with all this array of talent devoted to her begowning, Woman ought to be (and probably really thinks she is) a very work of art,—yes, a masterpiece; and it would seem to be rank, foolhardy temerity even to hint that in her dress she is not only not a masterpiece, but generally very inartistic, even if not often a "sight,"—at least, from an artist's point of view.

She is fashionably clad, it is true, and also expensively; but those two qualifications are the very essence of the trouble. She is merely a slave to Fashion's decrees, however whimsical, and she follows most abjectly the slightest beck of that fickle old dame. Like her mistress she is inconsistent, and it is against that inconsistency (the unfitness of Fashion, so to speak) that this voice is raised in feeble protest,—a veritable *De profundis clamavi ad te, femina*.

In the early 'sixties, when hoop-skirts were in vogue, the feminine figure much resembled a pyramid, having the head for its apex. The sloping shoulders, at that time either affected or the result of the comparatively inactive life led by many women, assisted in emphasizing this impres-



FIG. 1

sion. Later, on the decline of the crinoline, Dame Fashion decreed that the acme of feminine loveliness was to be found in enormous hips. Horsehair, wire, cotton—even newspapers—were pressed into service, while the skirts below the protuberances were narrowed down till they sometimes almost clung around the feet.

The craze continued until the very absurdity of the figure swayed the pendulum the other way. Then broad flat shoulders took the lead, and enormously puffed



FIG. 2

sleeves carried the accentuation of the "upper works"—to use a nautical phrase—to its extreme of absurdity. Narrow skirts helped to render more ridiculous this aspect, which was, however, somewhat relieved by the advent of the bell skirt.

The tendencies of the styles of the past few years point to almost a parallel with that period just preceding the Empire in France, when women wore "a truncated panier, an overskirt trimmed with braids, ribbons, laces, flowers, garlands and festoons, ostrich plumes, . . . four pounds of false hair upon her head besides her own, two yards of ribbon, five plumes . . . a mass of stuff twenty-six inches

high above her forehead." A glance at figures 1 and 2 will show the styles referred to,—the fashions of a period during which people fairly ran wild, and not in matters of dress alone,—the period of the decadence of a nation! Surely *we* are not confronted by any such danger?

Sociologists and philosophers may play with that question, but in dress we seem to have run over the entire gamut of good sense and to have reached a point where something new is craved, something unusual,—an abnormal, perhaps a depraved taste that will lead us into extravagances pretty nearly equalling those of the period above alluded to. But, Allah be praised! there is a silver lining to the cloud. History is constantly repeating itself, and we know that after such periods of bacchanalian riot there is always a sobering-up, a revulsion, sometimes a revolution. The crazes are weeded out and people return to the saner ideas of more sober times.

This is not a clamor for the abject observance of any set



FIG. 3



FIG. 4

5 ft. 3½ in. tall; neck, 14 in.; shoulders, 42 in.; bust, 37 in.; waist, 28 in.; hips, 40 in.

rules, æsthetic proportions, or dogmatic precepts in dress; in fact this assertion of independence by our fair dames and beautiful damsels is thoroughly American. Let them follow their own (sensible) notions and tastes, remembering, however, that there are certain limitations beyond which lies treacherous ground. Let them array themselves in velvets and fine feathers, linen and royal purple, if they wish; but *don't* let them offend good taste.

"What is good taste?" may be asked, and it is a pertinent question. In this connection it may be defined as a cultivated natural gift or a feeling within us that rebels at, or is repelled or shocked by, the sight of incongruities, such as a green parasol held over a blue hat; a black-velvet gown under which we catch a glimpse of a tan shoe; a sailor hat worn with an evening-dress; or a befeathered Gainsborough surmounting a bathing-suit. If we shudder at the thought of such impossible combinations then are we not lost.

There is much, however, in woman's dress that, to the highly trained eye, is just as barbarous, but that passes muster with the "rank and file" simply because we have grown used to it,—an ignorant or a good-natured tolerance.

Since we have become a fighting nation, own colonies, indulge in *fin-de-siècle* army scandals, and otherwise assert our rights to being one of the peoples of the earth, should we not show the other great peoples that we know how to dress artistically,—in short, that we know what is what? Who knows, perhaps, if woman makes of dress a fine art, but that man may be induced to shed the horrible things Fashion prescribes for him to-day, to don the "hose and silks of his fathers" and to become, as shown in figure 5, a fitting complement in "line and color to her who shines so radiantly?"

Ah! for the good old times when artists—real artists—could be per-



FIG. 5

suaded to design a costume. One of the principal items of expense to a lady of old Italy used to be the "retainer" she paid to a Da Vinci, a Bramante, or some other artist of note to furnish her with designs for her court and other dresses of ceremony.

To-day some one who can draw is given an idea by a costumer—that is, by some one who has made or cut dresses under some other costumer's tutelage. Neither one has studied or cares aught for art, proportion, harmony, or the other

superfluities; they are costumers, what have they to do with such details? A wonderful assemblage of ideas is the result, a "confection" in silks, satins, chiffons, and laces. These ideas and materials are beautifully and painfully drawn upon paper, and draped upon an alleged female figure at least seven feet tall, with head slightly turned, auburn hair, sylph-like waist, a stage smile, and a background of palms and ferns. This drawing being reproduced upon thousands and thousands of sheets, lo! a fashion-plate is born, with the name of the great designer in the left-hand corner,—the pass-word, the hall-mark. Every woman (or, rather, *nearly* every woman) studies it, admires it,—and, be she lean or fat, tall or short, her next dress must be like that. Perchance her dress-maker has not signed her soul away entirely, and protests feebly that that special style is not adapted to her patron's particular figure; but for her effrontery she may lose a customer. *That* dress has to be made in *that* way and in none other.

As an example, figure 3, picked out at random from a very fashionable publication, is not a bad sort of dress, but how would it look upon figure 4? And yet that figure is an average, in height and measurements, of over six hundred of the society women of New York, Washington, Philadelphia, Chicago, and San Francisco,—measurements attested by physicians and dressmakers or "owned up to" by the dames themselves. It may be added that the average age of these subjects is a fraction under thirty.

Glance at figure 6, a rather artistic gown but dreadfully misleading; the dotted line shows where the feet of a woman of five feet six inches would come. How many women could fill out the rest, and yet how many have worn that particular pattern fondly imagining they looked like that figure?

If some popular magazine would start a crusade against inartistic, inappropriate dressing, many pages of illustrations could be easily secured to point its morals,—not caricatures, but faithful sketches of what may be seen by any one who pays attention to such matters. Faithful to nature is the evidence of the tiny camera before which so many have unconsciously posed,—grand dames who spend fortunes upon their dresses, wives of great financiers, helpmates of famed senators, "Cabinet-ladies," *la vieille noblesse*, bonanza queens,—great dressers all.

Figure 8 is that of a New York woman who never has anything made in this country (some one has suggested that perhaps she could not find enough stuff of one pattern here); she has hardly any neck, yet observe the ruffs, the bows,



FIG. 6 Digitized by Google

and the puffs to conceal what little she has.

Number 7 is a rather stout Washington leader who seemed to think a year ago—when caught by the kodak—that she needed to accentuate her breadth. Think of trying to eat at a crowded table between two such



FIG. 7



FIG. 8



FIG. 9

dames! Rashly essaying the feat proved like a game of "bo-peep,"—now the luckless man saw the table, and then again he didn't. Think of a slight young girl wearing a hat like that in figure 9; it conveys the idea of an Italian balancing his tray of plaster Madonnas upon his head. Yet that was the style of hat in vogue a while ago, and all women adopted it. How frequently may be seen such figures as 10, 11 and 12, with the cardinal lines—the horizontal and the vertical—wofully misplaced or exaggerated!

During the whole of last winter but one dress impressed the writer as being really and truly artistic: perhaps the figure had something to do with it. The wearer was tall, rather ruddy in complexion, with black eyes and hair, and in shape a perfect model! The dress was daring, almost a pearly gray silk, absolutely plain, and fitting to perfection. The sleeves were

caught up with silver buckles and sprays of black feathers, and the costume was accentuated with fawn-colored gloves and a black fan. It was a dress to be remembered for some time. One woman said the wearer of it was poor; it was her only "party dress." Another said that its owner made it herself and it was three years old. Another gave the real cue to the fortuitous accident of an artistic dress at that particular gathering. Turning up her nose, she said, "Why, she's *only* a poor artist." Figure 13 gives a rough sketch—from memory—of that charming dress.

Figure 14 represents a street costume seen about the same time. Presumably it was fashionable. Other women admitted the fact, and that particular woman could wear it with a dash and a snap that was very "fetching." Black-velvet jacket; gold-braid frogs; medium-length skirt—



FIG. 10



FIG. 11



FIG. 12

at which its occupant did not need to clutch wildly—of a heavy, deep cardinal purple cloth; black-velvet hat, with black and purple plumes and bows and one large gold buckle; white gloves; and an easy "keep-out-of-my-way" gait quite military,—the wearer might be taken for the daughter or wife of a soldier, yet there was nothing mannish about her withal. But

put that costume on a wee bit of a demure, timid maid,—and no doubt many such did wear it,—and you have one of the incongruities against which this paper is directed.



Hats that seem as if they had to be lowered into place with a derrick, yet resting upon such slender supports that one constantly fears the latter will break under the load; trailing skirts either sweeping the filth in the streets or carried by tired arms; the jumbling of blue, yellow, green, and pink together; tin-shops suspended at the waist; the wearing of hats tilted over the nose so that they have to be chained back to prevent their sliding off; fur collars worn with shirt-waists; high-heeled shoes that impel one to advise the wearing of figure 15 for more comfort, — these are some of the other incongruities that compel the belief that woman to-day does not know how to dress comfortably, beautifully, or appropriately, but only does what some self-appointed and evidently incompetent authority suggests for her collectively, without any regard for climate, circumstance, previous condition, or size.

If we feel a bit timorous about recasting our lines, may we not take some comfort or a few ideas from other peoples and other ages?

Even the Esquimaux (figure 16) can give us points about sables and other furs, and concessions in style to climatic conditions. Old Egypt (figures 17 and 18) may not be



FIG. 13



FIG. 14

without influence over us. Our own great-great-grandparents—if we be inclined to the severe—have left us their gowns, figures 19 and 20. Greece and Rome, in figures 21 and 22, show us rich, artistic draperies and classic forms that our women admire, and may acquire for their posterity if they will but pattern after figure 23! Figures 24 and 25, of those same classic dames, or figure 26 of a Japanese head, may be of assistance to some poor sister who has fixed her hair in every conceivable shape, and now feels that there is nothing new to do with it but plaster it down over her ears. The far Orient will teach us how to blend brilliant colors. No daintier hands ever interwove greens, purples, blues, and reds together than do those of the little Japanese maid in figure 27. And if we wish to see rich coloring, “embroideries of gold and precious gems,” in Persian and Turkish dress will you find them—figures 28, 29, and 30.

There are endless possibilities in this subject; for after architecture there is no finer art than the adornment of nature's greatest masterpiece, Woman. But we should hate to see the work spoiled!

F. W. FITZPATRICK.

WASHINGTON, D.C.



FIG. 23

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION—II*

THE Act of Establishment provided for the foundation of a library and a museum, branches which received prompt consideration from Henry. He appointed two assistant secretaries,—Charles C. Jewett, whom he placed in charge of the library; and Spencer F. Baird, to whom he confided the natural-history department. The library increased with remarkable rapidity—during 1894 alone 37,952 titles were added—until it has become one of the great libraries of the world, and now numbers more than 300,000 volumes. For lack of space in the Smithsonian building this great collection of scientific books was in 1865 deposited in the Capitol as a part of the Congressional Library. It is now installed in a special hall of the new National Library. A small reference library is still retained in the Smithsonian Institution, and a somewhat larger working one in the Museum building, while each special department of the Museum has its own collection of books pertaining to its particular subject. The present librarian is Dr. Cyrus Adler, who is assisted by Mr. Newton P. Scudder.

Of greater interest is the history of the development of the Museum. It was organized in 1846 by the aid of Congress, which transferred to the Institution the custody of the "National Cabinet of Curiosities," at that time deposited in the Patent Office building. The Act provided that these curiosities, together with new specimens obtained by exchange, donation, or otherwise, should be so arranged as best to facilitate their examination and study. The Museum is the authorized place of deposit for all objects of natural history, mineralogy, geology, archæology, ethnology, etc., belonging to the United States or collected by the Coast, Interior, or Geological Surveys, or by any government expeditions, when no longer needed for investigation.

Dr. Goode, in his essay on "The Genesis of the National Museum," pointed out that in 1826, when Smithson bequeathed his estate to the United States, "he placed at the disposal of our nation two valuable collections, one of books and one of minerals." These minerals, so far as is known, constitute the first scientific cabinet owned

by the United States; therefore the National Museum may be said to have begun its actual existence in 1838, when the Smithson collection passed into American hands.

Although Congress had authorized the foundation of a museum and had made the Smithsonian Institution the legal custodian of government collections, Professor Henry was opposed to the forming of a museum except as an aid to research, and it was in this spirit that he deemed it inadvisable to accept the collections of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, proffered by Congress in 1849.

On July 1, 1850, Spencer F. Baird, formerly Professor of Natural History in Dickinson College, took charge of the Natural History Department of the Institution. In his first report he describes the policy of the department as follows:

"It is a fundamental principle in its organization, as presented in the Programme and in your [Henry's] annual reports, not to attempt complete collections of all natural objects, but rather to gather up such materials for investigation as have been neglected by others. It may indeed be desirable, for purposes of general examination, to have extensive series of specimens from the three kingdoms of nature,—animal, vegetable, and mineral,—so far as they can be procured and exhibited without undue expense of time, money, and space. For the present, however, attention should be directed mainly to such branches as hitherto may not have had their due share of attention."

As a museum of research, therefore, it continued until 1857, during which period no special effort was made to exhibit the collections publicly or to utilize them except as a foundation for scientific description and theory. Baird brought to the Institution his own large collections in different branches of zoölogy, and at once began the system of making special collections that was so prominent a feature of his long connection with the Institution. During 1850 two natural-history expeditions were sent out. One was to the Bad Lands of Nebraska, under Thaddeus Culbertson, yielding rich returns of fossil remains that were submitted to Joseph Leidy for examination, and resulted in the publication of his "Ancient Fauna of Nebraska: or a Description of Remains of Extinct Mammalia and Chelonia from the Mauvaises Terres of Nebraska." It was

* Concluded from SELF CULTURE for June, 1899, Vol. IX, No. 4, pp. 409-415.



DR. GOODE'S OFFICE

issued in the sixth volume of the "Contributions to Knowledge." The second expedition was headed by Baird himself, and he visited northern New York and Vermont. It was likewise valuable in results, for he discovered a new genus of fish in Lake Ontario that later was described by Charles Girard in his "Monograph of the Cottoids."

In this manner the Museum grew. No government exploring or surveying expedition ever left Washington without its naturalist equipped by the Smithsonian Institution for the collection of natural-history and ethnological specimens. Conspicuous among these expeditions were those of the Pacific Railroad surveys, the Mexican Boundary survey, and other surveys carried on by the Engineer Corps of the army. Besides these, many special collectors in various divisions of the government service,—such as the Army, the Navy, the Coast Survey, the Signal Service, and other branches,—sent in systematic collections of specimens of the flora and fauna of the regions surrounding their temporary homes. This material was assigned to specialists for examination, who reported the results of their studies, which

were issued as monographs in the publications of the Institution. Specimens in botany were sent to Professors Gray and Torrey; those in natural history were worked up by Coues and Gill; the fossil remains were submitted to Leidy and Meek,—and so on.

With the completion of the Smithsonian building in 1855 came an agitation for the removal of the collections from the Patent Office to the custody of the Smithsonian Institution. An appropriation was made by Congress for its installation in the large hall on the ground floor, and during 1858 the transfer was made. It was estimated by Baird that the accession of the government deposit comprised not more than one fourth of the material already in the Museum, or one fifth of the aggregate amount. From this time until 1876 constitutes a period designated by Goode as one of "record," during which the Museum became "a place of deposit for scientific material which had already been studied. This material, so far as convenient, was exhibited to the public, and, so far as practicable, made to serve an educational purpose." The collections increased very rapidly during this time, and

the appropriation of \$4,000, made in 1858 for the care of the Museum, proved utterly inadequate, and, notwithstanding its increase on several occasions, was still insufficient, although in 1876 it had reached the sum of \$20,000. In 1898, \$233,000 was appropriated for this purpose.

A new era in the history of the Museum began with the World's Fair held in Philadelphia during 1876. A prominent place was assigned to the collections of the Smithsonian Institution. Special parties had been sent into the field during the previous year, for the purpose of strengthening the weak parts of the natural history exhibits. At the close of the Fair the exhibits of more than forty governments and colonies were presented to the Smithsonian Institution, as well as those of several States, and the mineral collections of Montana, Nevada, and Utah.

With the addition of this enormous mass of material, to say nothing of the collections that each year were brought in by the various exploring and geological surveys, all possibility of proper classification and systematic display vanished. Congress was importuned to grant an appropriation for a new building, but it was slow in acting, and meanwhile the rich treasures from the Centennial Exposition were stored in a building hired for the purpose. In 1881 the new Museum was completed, so that on the 4th of March, that year, the inauguration ball of President Garfield was held in the building.

Under the direction of Dr. Goode the specimens were then classified and arranged for exhibition. To the feature of research had been added that of record, and now a third—that of education—became an important element in the administration of the Museum. This feature is accomplished through

the policy inaugurated by Dr. Goode of illustrating by specimens every kind of natural object and every manifestation of human thought and activity, of displaying descriptive labels adapted to the popular mind, and of distributing its publications and its named series of duplicates. It was the genius of Professor Henry that made the Museum one of research, and equally it was the genius of Dr. Baird that inspired the feature of record. To Dr. Goode was due the credit of its installation, and the feature of education is the child of his brain. As a Museum administrator his reputation was second to none in the world. His much regretted death on September 6, 1896, left a void that can never be filled.

When the Civil War came upon the nation the opinions and services of Professor Henry and of Mr. Bache, the superintendent of the Coast Survey, were constantly sought on questions demanding



A MUSEUM WORKSHOP



SPENCER F. BAIRD

the opinion of experts. The necessity of a body of scientific men whose opinions should be at the disposal of the government led to the creation of the National Academy of Sciences by Act of Congress dated March 3, 1863. Of this organization Professor Henry was made first president. From the time of the formation of the Lighthouse Board in 1852 until his death he was an active member of that body, succeeding to its presidency in 1871. In the performance of his duties he contracted a cold that led to his death on May 13, 1878. A memorial volume and an edition of his "Scientific Writings" were issued by the Institution of which he had so long been the guiding influence. A bronze statue, by William W. Story, for which Congress made an appropriation, was unveiled in the adjacent grounds on April 19, 1883.

Professor Baird, who had been his associate for twenty-eight years, was promptly chosen as his successor, and mention must now be made of an important work that had been growing up under his supervision. A notable decline in the productiveness of our fisheries (in some cases one half in a quarter of a century) was becoming a menacing problem. The attention of Congress was directed to it, and, pursuant to a resolution of February 9,

1871, President Grant appointed Professor Baird Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, with the duty of prosecuting investigations into the causes of this diminution and to report upon measures of protection.

In this capacity he secured important contributions of material for the National Museum, and his assistants, notably Goode, Bean, and Earll, were occupied in investigating that branch of natural history in which the National Museum stands foremost in the world.

The explorations so assiduously fostered by Baird during the early years of his connection with the Smithsonian Institution grew and expanded into large surveys, and these in turn were consolidated and reorganized as the United States Geological Survey. Archæological and ethnological collections were made by these different parties and sent to the Institution, but the work was not carried on systematically. A plan for the gathering of the ethnology and philology of the native American races was proposed by George Gibbs in 1871, but his death prevented its consummation. Later, trustworthy information concerning the affinities of the Indian tribes was sought by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for the purpose of guiding him in grouping the Indians on the government reservations. The matter was referred to Major Powell, at that time engaged, under the direction of the Institution, in conducting explorations in the Southwest. From this beginning has grown the Bureau of Ethnology, which since 1879 has been supported by special appropriations from Congress, with the understanding that the research should be so extended as to embrace the habits and customs of the American Indians, their tribal organizations and government, their myths and ceremonials. For the administration of this important trust Baird selected one whom he knew to be peculiarly fitted, by training, zeal, and congenial tastes, to pursue successfully the anthropological study, of our waning aborigines, and the Bureau of Ethnology was committed to the control of John W. Powell, under whose direction this branch of the Smithsonian Institution has since remained.

With advancing years the administration of the Smithsonian Institution, the National Museum, and the Fish Commission, proved more than even so vigorous a man as Baird could stand, and accordingly, in

1887, he sought relief from the Regents. At his request Professor Samuel P. Langley, who was recognized as an authority on astrophysics, was made Assistant Secretary in charge of the exchanges, publications, and library, and Dr. G. Brown Goode was made Assistant Secretary with charge of the National Museum. The relief came too late for Baird, and although he sought relaxation at Woods Hole it proved unavailing and he died on August 19, 1887. Of him Powell wrote:

"He knew the birds of the air, from the ptarmigan that lives among the everlasting snows, to the humming-bird that revels among the orchids of the tropics; he knew the beasts of the forests and the prairies, and the reptiles that crawl through desert sands or slimy marshes; he knew the fishes that scale mountain torrents, that bask in quiet lakes, or that journey from zone to zone through the deep waters of the sea. In all this realm of nature he had a minute and comprehensive knowledge that no other man has ever acquired. What others had recorded in this field of research he knew, and to their discoveries he made a contribution so bounteous, so stupendous, that he is recognized as the master of systematic zoölogists."

To the place made vacant by the death of Baird the Regents at once appointed Langley. Before accepting the Secretaryship it was provided that a portion of his time should be at his disposal for private research, and in the field in which he is preëminent he has since continued certain important investigations. Two valuable memoirs—one entitled "Experiments in Aërodynamics," and the other "The Internal Work of the Wind"—have been published by him since the present decade began.

His administration, though still young, has been marked by several conspicuous additions to the charge of the Smithsonian Institution. Of these the Astrophysical Observatory was established in 1891, and the expense of its maintenance is provided for by a small appropriation from Congress. There are carried on, under his immediate supervision, researches in regard to that invisible portion of the solar spectrum that lies beyond the limit of the red. The exploration of this unknown region, first made possible by his invention of the bolometer, is now conducted by a new method which permits the production of a complete map by an automatic and trustworthy process that shows the lines that resemble the so-called

Fraunhofer lines in the upper spectrum. Much has thus been learned concerning the heat of the sun, and this knowledge, in its relation to climate and crops, has its practical besides its scientific value.

It was Langley who equipped his observatory at Allegheny by selling time to the railroad company, and it was Langley who urged on Congress the establishment of a national zoölogical park for the purpose of preserving such American animals as were upon the verge of extinction. The Park occupies a tract of land nearly twice as great as that of any other zoölogical garden in the world, and includes 167 acres of ground on Rock Creek, two miles north of the centre of the city of Washington. A small representative collection of native American animals has been formed, including about five hundred individuals, among which is a fine herd of young elk and a small herd of bison. Secretary Langley is the Director of the



SAMUEL P. LANGLEY

National Zoölogical Park, and Dr. Frank Baker is its Superintendent.

Much public interest was aroused during August, 1895, by the announcement of the award, by the Smithsonian Institution, of the Hodgkins prize of \$10,000 to Lord

Rayleigh and Professor William Ramsay for their remarkable discovery of a new element—argon—in the atmosphere. From time to time bequests have been made to the Institution, but for the most part these have been comparatively small. In 1891, however, Thomas G. Hodgkins, of Setauket, N. Y., expressed his desire to donate \$200,000 to the Smithsonian fund. The Regents accepted the sum, with the single condition made by the donor "that the income of \$100,000 of the gift shall be used, under this general purpose, for the especial one of the increase and diffusion of knowledge by investigating and spreading knowledge concerning all the phenomena of atmospheric air." In accordance with this provision, early in 1894 a circular was issued offering "a prize of \$10,000 for a treatise embodying some new and important discovery in regard to the nature or properties of atmospheric air." The first award of this prize was made as mentioned above. Two grants of money were previously made from this fund to aid in the prosecution of special investigations on air, one of which is being carried on in Germany and the other in the United States.

Meanwhile, in November, 1892, Mr. Hodgkins died, at the advanced age of 89

years, and made the Smithsonian Institution his residuary legatee. In consequence a further sum of money was added to the Smithson fund, and the total amount of the permanent fund now on deposit in the United States Treasury is \$911,000, on which sum an annual interest of six per cent is paid to the Institution for the carrying out of its special aims. It is curious to note that Hodgkins, like Smithson, was an Englishman, and, again like Smithson, he was a student of science.

In 1897 a special volume descriptive of what the Smithsonian Institution has done for "the increase and diffusion of knowledge" was published, and in honor of its founder two memorial tablets—one in the English Church, and the other on his tomb—were erected in Genoa, but no memorial, however permanent, can outlast the influence that has been exerted toward the advancement of knowledge by the establishment that owes its origin to James Smithson. That of necessity must always remain his greatest memorial. His proud boast, "My name shall live in the memory of man when the titles of the Northumberlands and Percys are extinct and forgotten," was not uttered in vain.

MARCUS BENJAMIN.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

HOW THE HANDWRITING EXPERT WORKS

PROBABLY the most striking feature of the majority of the recent lawsuits of popular interest has been the important part performed by the experts on handwriting. The Dreyfus case, the Adams-Molineux case, the Reynolds murder case, the Cody-Gould case,—these and many others are finding places in the pages of legal history as great battles of handwriting controversy.

And yet the general public knows nothing of what the handwriting expert really is. In a vague sort of way he is looked upon as a professional teacher of writing, who on account of seeing so many different sorts of writing every day gets accustomed to observing little peculiarities in the formation of different letters by different sorts of people, and is thus able to make a fair guess as to whether a certain piece of writing was written by its alleged author or not.

This is a gross error. The profession of the handwriting expert is almost as scien-

tific as that of the physician. The former makes his diagnosis of a piece of handwriting just as carefully as the man of medicine makes his diagnosis of the patient's troubles, using fixed standards for all cases of a similar character. Instead of being a good penman, the handwriting expert is rarely a man whose personal writing is as legible as that of the average business man. The handwriting expert is a close student of human character in relation to its influence in the handwriting of the individual. He has learned that no two mortals can write exactly alike, and that no matter how closely one person may be able to imitate the writing of another, there will always be stamped into the forged document the character of the person who commits the forgery.

The reader who secures admission to the study of some famous handwriting expert will secure much food for afterthought. The visit will not be a dry-as-dust one; for while at first sight there is

apparently nothing to be seen in the place but a mass of faded papers, bottles of chemicals, and scientific instruments, he will learn later that there are many stories to be found here which the fancy of the fiction-writer could elaborate into interesting novels.

Probably the best-known expert in the New World to-day is David N. Carvalho, of New York, who has figured in all the recent cases of interest to the general public. For eighteen years he has been the official expert to the police authorities of the metropolis. This has been his chosen profession for over quarter of a century, and during that time his studies

and children are living in luxury on Fifth Avenue. Nevertheless, the law of the United States provides that if this alleged marriage certificate is genuine, the woman in the case, Nancy Arnold, will receive several millions from the estate of the dead man.

Apparently the only question the handwriting expert is expected to settle for the jury is whether or not, in his opinion, the signature of the groom is genuine. After hours of comparison with unquestioned signatures, the expert decides that the signature to the certificate is genuine. But he does not announce his conviction to the jury until he has done some micro-



THE EXPERT AT WORK

of different pieces of disputed writing have decided the ownership of over \$200,000,000. I have selected him for description because in describing one expert the remainder of them are described.

Entering the study of Mr. Carvalho the visitor finds the expert seated at a long table. Before him is what is claimed by one party to be a marriage certificate made out thirty years before in a distant mining-camp. At the time the certificate is said to have been written both the alleged bride and groom are acknowledged to have been poor, but at the present time the groom has died after becoming the owner of a fortune of \$50,000,000, while the bride is not worth \$50 all told. The deceased millionaire's acknowledged wife

scopic examinations of other parts of the marriage certificate — which, it should be here observed, is not a printed form, as is the usual case in the East, but is made entirely in handwriting.

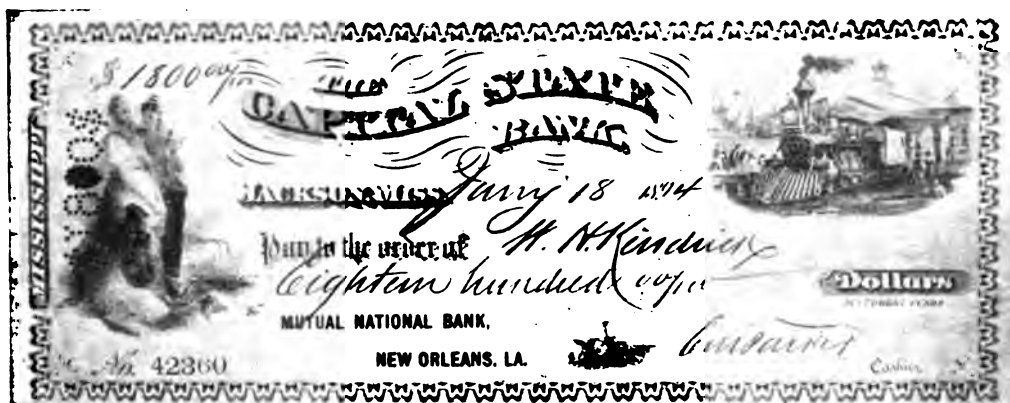
"This certificate," the expert reflects, "is supposed to have been made out thirty years ago. I'll test the paper with acids to see if it was manufactured so long ago as that." As all writing-paper in general use up to 1882 was made from rags, while to-day over sixty per cent is made from wood pulp, if the paper upon which the alleged marriage certificate is written proves to be made of wood pulp, the expert would have a good chance of inducing the jury to believe that the certificate cannot be genuine on account of the

age of the paper it is written upon. In the present instance, however, the paper proves to be of the required age. But the expert is not discouraged by this fact. He places the paper under the microscope again, and presently discovers that the texture of the paper above the signature of the contracting parties has had its calendering—its smooth finish—rubbed off, while the texture of the paper where the signatures are situated has not been interfered with. The expert then brings to the side of the microscope a little apparatus which he calls a "reflector," and, changing the focus of the microscope, he discovers that all of the writing above the signature is slightly blurred on account of the ink "running" when placed on the uncalendered paper, while the signature of the millionaire is perfectly clear and sharp. Examination of the woman's signature next reveals the fact that while it, like the body of the certificate, is somewhat blurred, the blurring of her signature has evidently been done intentionally, while the blurring of the body is the natural result of the disturbed calendering of the paper in the places where it is written. With an expression of gratification the expert lays aside his tools after one final look to reassure himself. "There is no doubt about it," he tells his visitor, "this is indeed the actual signature of millionaire Q—. But Mr. Q— never signed this paper as it stands now. He originally put his signature to some other sort of document, such as a receipt for merchandise. Someone has taken this receipt, rubbed off everything but the signature, and has then written in the wording of a marriage certificate above his name. The woman's name was next signed. The fact that the paper was rubbed above the signature is responsible for the ink running there, and therefore for the blurring in the body of the certificate; while the fact that the signature of the so-called bride was not blurred was apparent to the person making out the certificate, and in order to avert suspicion he or she went to work and deliberately 'feathered' her signature to make it look as though the blurring of it was done at the same time as the blurring of the body of the certificate—ostensibly by a piece of blotting-paper." The subsequent confession of the bride that she had taken an ordinary receipt and treated it in this way would probably never have occurred had she not been

cornered by the science of the handwriting expert.

Cases of a similar nature are by no means rare with the handwriting expert. But much more common is the detection of check forgery. Just how this is done Mr. Carvalho explains by relating an instance in point. A draft for \$1800.00 on the Mutual Bank of New Orleans was presented to its teller and paid by him. The draft was made out ostensibly by the Capital State Bank, of Jackson, Mississippi. It bore the genuine signature of its cashier, and was indorsed by him with his acknowledged signature on the back. The figures \$1800.00/100 were plainly marked in the corner of the draft, the same figures were punched through the check in the regular way, and the words "Eighteen hundred and 00/100" were plainly written in the customary place on the line below the name of the payee. But when the draft was sent back to the Jackson bank for redemption, its cashier refused to honor it, insisting that the check he had made out, signed, and indorsed was for "\$18.00/100" not for "\$1800.00/100." There was apparently nothing wrong with the draft itself, so the puzzle was handed to Mr. Carvalho to unravel.

"After carefully examining the check," said the expert in relating the matter, "I noticed that while the writing on the face of the draft was apparently all done by the cashier and his assistant, when placed under the microscope the little 'd's' in the word 'hundred' had their first loop *above* the base line and their second loop *on a level with* the base line, while on the contrary the first loop of the little 'd' in the line above was on a level with the base line and the second loop above the base line. This decided me that someone besides the cashier and his assistant had written in the word 'hundred,' and that, therefore, the whole check had been raised. I knew then that the figures '00/100' which in the line just above the cashier's signature should be close up against the word 'Eighteen' had been removed by acids, and the word and figures 'hundred 00/100' written in over them. By pouring some hydrosulphuret of ammonia over the check I quickly brought back to view the '00/100' which had been removed by the opposite acid—with which all handwriting experts are familiar—and then I did the same thing with the figures written in, in the



A RAISED DRAFT

corner of the draft. The effaced figures '00/100' were quickly brought back under the figures '00.00/100' which had been written over where they were before removed by the first acid. But even when I had thus proven these two pieces of forgery in that draft, there were still the figures '\$1800\$' perforated through the paper, although the cashier insisted that it was '\$18\$' when he put his signature to it. To discover how this had been changed I made a chemical analysis of that section of the draft, and found that the forger had filled in the little holes occupied by the last dollar-mark (\$) with pulp, bought a new perforator, and, in the place where the last dollar-mark was originally, had punched a 'o,' then another 'o,' and finally a new dollar-mark. I examined the perforator in use in the Jackson bank, and finding that the ciphers made by it had one little hole less than the perforator used to make the ciphers by the forger, my chain of evidence was completed, and

the draft was agreed by all parties to have been raised in the manner I pointed out."

There are hundreds of other like instances coming up for investigation by handwriting experts every year, and some idea of the complicated work they have before them may be inferred from a perusal of the following list of the things an expert keeps within arm's reach, to say nothing of a well-stocked closet in the same room: "Twenty-four kinds of ink, half a hundred kinds of writing-paper, muriate of tin, hydrochloric acid, ferrocyanide of potassium, chlorinate of soda and of lime, hydrosulphuret of ammonia, iodide of potassium, acetic acid, microscopes, reflectors, objectives, compasses, protractors, and dividers."

Fully a third, however, of all the cases that occupy the attention of the handwriting expert resolve themselves into a comparison of handwritings, in which no chemicals are necessary. To this class belong the Dreyfus, Adams-Molineux, and

Reynolds cases. Taking in hand the document upon which a prisoner's fate hangs, the expert secures half a hundred pieces of handwriting by the same person, written before the prisoner was under suspicion for the crime in question.

"I never allow the shape of letters—that is, the outline of letters—to affect my opinion in any way," Mr. Carvalho has frequently said. "The first thing I do is to learn all about the personality of the prisoner. This I do from a long study of his acknowledged writings." And having once learned the true individuality of the writer in this way, the task of the expert is to show to the jury by photographic microscopic enlargements that certain little twists, broadenings of stems, angles of upper and lower loops, dots and punctuation marks, are, under the microscope, the very same throughout that person's writing and do not exist in the writing of the document attributed to him. In such cases the prisoner is invariably released.

"To determine which of ten men under suspicion is the writer of a certain document," Mr. Carvalho explained, "the expert would not pick out as the criminal the man whose acknowledged handwriting most closely resembles the questioned paper. When I use the word 'handwriting' here, I use it in the meaning the general public gives to the term. Let us assume that the questioned paper is supposed to be in a disguised handwriting. The fact does not follow that when all the suspects' writings are examined Suspect No. 10 is the guilty man because he shapes his capital 'A's' like those in the questioned paper, nor even if all of his letters are of similar shapes to those in

the questioned document. The reason for this is that everybody gets accustomed to shaping his letters this way or that according as he is taught at school, or as the fancy strikes him to copy the writing of someone he admires or respects. There are so many different ways of forming letters, and the differences in shapes are so marked, that the way a person shapes his letters is practically always the result of fancy, not of his own individuality compelling him to shape his letters in that particular way. And no thinking person will believe that because two persons form their capital 'D's' or their capital 'M's' alike that those two persons have necessarily the same sort of character.

"Where the individual's character is shown by his handwriting is in the places where he is unconscious of differences. The size, slant, and position of his commas and his periods are generally the most infallible indexes of the writer's true character as there is to be found in anything. The slant of the stems of his letters do not show any individuality, but the slant of seemingly unvariable dots over his *i*'s and dashes through his small *f*'s count for a great deal in laying bare his private nature. Then there are the penpressures on this or that loop, the tapering of the tops of his *f*'s, or their abrupt, broad ending. These are the things which the writer never thinks about, and in consequence he shapes them, not as he sees others shape them—for he could not observe them—but as his own personality prompts him."

CHAUNCEY MONTGOMERY M'GOVERN.
NEW YORK.

MORALITY IN ART

IN A recent review of a book, the critic says: "Now that Mr. Clement Shorter has pronounced it 'actually immoral,' it is likely to have another and stronger boom."

This statement held my attention, as I have often been puzzled and at times rendered indignant by the careless way in which judgment is passed upon men who are brave enough to write books. What is morality in a book, a poem, a picture? Not the subject, surely, for our greatest have dared to treat all subjects. "The

Scarlet Letter," "Anna Karénina," "Vanity Fair," show no shrinking from the terrible problems of sin and shame and suffering involved. Does it lie in the effect produced in the mind of the reader? A shaft of light entering too suddenly the eyes of a sick man may blind him forever, but it is the condition of the eye and not the light which is bad. A book may arouse, in a sensuous imagination, desires that are not chaste, but so may the least material, the most intangible and elusive of the arts,—music. The strain that car-

ries one mind to Heaven in an ecstasy of aspiration for purity and self-devotion to some great cause may at the same time arouse in another only a dreamy desire for self-satisfaction and physical enjoyment. Each hears it from his own plane, as each reads a book by his own lights, whether they burn high or low; but the creation itself, as a whole, deserves not to be confused with the personality of those who misinterpret it.

This has been done too often. "Madame Bovary," a book which is the most terrible arraignment of sin and conscienceless joy-seeking, which teaches in every line that a broken law, physical or moral, carries with it its own penalty, was condemned by narrow provincials as immoral, but to-day it stands apart as the most finished product of one of the finest and most conscientious literary minds of France.

The music-dramas of Wagner, to whom the "woman" was never the physical, sexual woman, because she always embodied an ideal, led to the accusation of "shameless sensuality" and "erotomania;" but their music will arouse men to dare and to do when the little critic is forgotten.

But a short time ago educational circles were discussing the advisability of omitting Longfellow's "The Launch of the Ship" from the reading course of the grammar grades because some one thought the figures of speech too lifelike, too suggestive. Many of our best books are meat for strong men, and not milk for babes or for the "young girl" who, some one says, dominates our literary and social life. In a school of boys and girls no one would be so mad as to inculcate principles of virtue by presenting pictures of vice; no one would destroy the bloom of the child's innocence by thrusting upon him knowledge of things which Life will teach when the mind is better able to judge of them. But even in the schoolroom it is a distorted and disproportioned sense of right that would rob the children of a beautiful, soul-stirring poem because in it there are references to sex,—the greatest fact and power in nature.

A work of art cannot in itself be immoral. If a book is well written, it is good. If it is badly written, it is bad. That is the final test in writing. A book is immoral only in the sense that the saddle which delivered the Prince Imperial to death when his life depended on its

strength may be called immoral because it was badly made. As there is no evil in a healthy, physical organism, no evil in any organ of a healthy body though there may be evil in its use, so there is no evil in a book.

A man who has a clear, finished style of workmanship, who writes well, displays a moral as well as an æsthetic beauty in his work, no matter what his subject; for to overcome the difficulties of language, and to make of it his servant, his tool, his weapon, requires a manifestation of will-power which is itself moral, and the cry of "Art for Art's sake" is not so empty a shibboleth as the Philistines declare it.

To those who attribute to a book qualities belonging to the reader, who condemn the object for the weakness of the subject, the following fable, which has for its highest virtue its truth, may bear no moral, but to me it meant much.

A woman with a passionate love for the beautiful in all forms, a love which expresses itself in her surroundings, was asked by a friend to whom "auld lang syne" had granted the privilege of impertinence,—“Why have so many pictures of the nude?” “Because,” was her response, “to me pictures of the human figure speak so clearly of the divine in man that I sometimes forget there are those who have not yet risen above the animal.”

If there are things in this life which work for man's woe if he shows himself capable of abysmal deeps of vileness, the artist should not be blamed because he "learns the look of things" and teaches them to us. The evil lies not in the discussion of the wrong, but in its existence; and the writer who touches most closely the vibrating heart of humanity, who most strongly appeals to the soul of mankind, is he who dares to speak of all things in a refined, restrained language; who, seeing things steadily and as a whole, tries to show them to us in their true relations, trusting that we will censure him in our wisdom only when, having carefully examined his intentions, we can show that he has failed in carrying them out.

Until the critic does this the author is warranted in protesting against hasty, ill-formed judgments, and can hope for justice only at the court of last resort,—the bar of his own literary conscience, where he will be sustained by "The God of Things as They Are."

OMAHA, NEB.

IRENE C. BYRNE.

Digitized by Google

POPE-MAKERS AND POPE-MAKING

POPE LEO XIII, the present incumbent of the papacy, one of the most affable, wise, and spiritual of prelates, was chosen by the Sacred College to succeed Pius IX in 1878. His pontificate has thus lasted over twenty years; long enough to make it reasonable to suppose that the present generation has largely forgotten the circumstances attendant upon the election of a new pope, if, indeed, it ever was at all conversant with them. The questions, then: What are the cardinals?—How many of them are there?—How is a pope elected?—become, in view of the present situation, both interesting and timely. It will be conceded by the most indifferent that the papacy is still an important factor in the modern world. The temporal power, which once made it formidable, has, it is true, dwindled and disappeared; but Rome, as a spiritual force, even yet rules supreme over the consciences of more than two hundred millions of devotees. It follows, then, that the method of selecting a new head when a vacancy occurs must be worth knowing.

Among Roman ecclesiastics a cardinal ranks as a prince. He forms an integral part of the Sacred College, and stands next to the sovereign pontiff. The word "Cardinal" has its origin in the Latin word *cardo*, a hinge. The cardinal virtues are those upon which the character of a man mainly hinges, and are therefore the principal virtues. Cardinals are then the principal members of the Roman clergy. The title dates back to the fifth century, but at that time the name lacked the signification it afterwards acquired. The canons of the various Italian cathedral chapters, notably those of Milan, Florence, Ravenna, Naples, and Salerno, were known as cardinals, and according to ancient writers all the superior clergy of Italy were at one period given the same appellation. In 1567 Pope Pius V decreed that none should assume the title of cardinal unless he were created by the Roman pontiff; a decree which has remained in force down to the present day.

The number of members of the Sacred College has greatly varied. In the time of John XXII (1331) it was twenty. Succeeding popes made it thirty, forty, fifty,

Leo X (1521), disregarding all that had been done by his predecessors, created thirty-one at a special Consistory. In the short space of eight years and eight months he created forty-two; and at his death he left no less than sixty-five. Paul III (1549) reached the maximum number of seventy-one. Later, his successor, Sixtus V (1590), after consulting the Sacred College, issued the bull called *Compactum*, by which it was decreed that the number of cardinals should be seventy, no less and no more, "after the example of the seventy elders appointed by God as counsellors to Moses." This limit has since been rigidly adhered to, although competent authorities agree that no canon exists that precludes the pope from exceeding it, should he see fit to do so.

Besides determining the number of cardinals, Sixtus arranged for their classification. He ordered that there should be six cardinal bishops, fifty cardinal priests, and fourteen cardinal deacons. The first occupy sees in the immediate vicinity of Rome; the second are attached to the most important and venerable of the parish churches in the city itself; the third to those of lesser note within the same confines.

The Church being catholic, nationality, in theory, makes but little difference. The cardinals are chosen, especially in these later days, from their standing and achievements, from the four quarters of the globe. In 1880 the Sacred College contained, among sixty-four others, the names of Manning and Newman, both Englishmen, and McCloskey, an American. Active oversight of the parish church in Rome to which a cardinal may be assigned is not expected from him. His connection with it is rarely more than nominal. In 1875 Cardinal McCloskey was enthroned in Santa Maria sopra Minerva, and it is doubtful whether he ever revisited the Eternal City after his elevation to the cardinalate. Cardinal Gibbons was the chief figure in the same function in Santa Maria Trastevere in 1886, and has seen his titular church but once since that time.

At first every cardinal was created openly, in the presence of the Sacred College. But various causes—as, the opposi-

tion of European sovereigns; the jealousies engendered among the cardinals; or, as frequently, the belief that the person promoted might for a time be more serviceable to the Holy See just as he was—led the pontiff to hold the name of the one selected in reserve. Paul III (1549) pushed this practice to the extreme. Before his time the popes, previous to announcing the names of those they purposed honoring, had always taken the Sacred College into their confidence. Paul simply declared that, besides those created and named, there were others whose identity he concealed within his breast (*in petto*), who would be proclaimed when, in his opinion, the proper time had arrived. This custom has ever since prevailed.

There is one feature connected with creations to the cardinalate *in petto* which works badly. The honor is not conceded by the Sacred College to the recipient if the pope dies before his name has been made public. It is a fixed rule of the Curia that a newly elected pope is not bound to recognize nominations made by his predecessor and withheld by him from its knowledge. From the earliest times secrecy has been observed with regard to the names selected by the pontiff for preferment. Very rarely does any positive information concerning his proposed action leak out before the Consistory meets. Even in the serene atmosphere of the papal court there are jealousies, enmities, intrigues, preferences to be considered, all of which the exercise of the pope's prerogative tends to bring into play. He has also to guard against embarrassments arising from requests of those whom it might be impolitic to refuse.

When the pope has decided to fill existing vacancies in the Sacred College he calls a secret Consistory made up of as many of the cardinals as can conveniently be brought together. He then reads the allocution, in which the fortunate persons are named, at the conclusion of which he says, "*Quid vobis videtur?*"—"How seems it to you?" The assembled cardinals rise, take off their purple *berette*, and gravely bow their heads. Thereupon the pope proceeds to make the creation complete up to that point, and the Consistory is at an end.

When the newly-made cardinal is already in Rome, and the creation has taken place openly, a master of ceremonies on the part of the Sacred College is forthwith

despatched to impart the information to him, and to announce at what hour that same afternoon he will be received by the pope in audience at the Vatican. Meanwhile a messenger from the cardinal secretary of state, carrying a note from that dignitary, has probably outrun the master of ceremonies. Still a third messenger, coming from the vice-chancellor, freighted with the same tidings, not infrequently distances both the others. All this is settled prescriptively, and has a direct bearing on the fees that are expected from the fortunate recipient of such a great honor.

The new cardinal, assured of his creation, and clothed in a purple cassock and band, at once proceeds to hold an impromptu reception. Well-wishers of all degrees, cardinals, prelates, clerics, nobles, military officers, and laymen, hasten to offer their congratulations. This over, half an hour before the time set for the papal audience, a hired carriage, with two chaplains and two chamberlains in it, is sent to the Vatican. These officials of the new cardinal hand over to the master of ceremonies there the vestments of their master: a purple cloth garnished with a golden fringe; a rochet; a band; a violet-colored cape; and the ordinary episcopal hat. Later, his Eminence sets out, in his own state carriage drawn by two black horses, for the papal palace, and is received with great reverence by the master of ceremonies, who is waiting at the entrance. By him the cardinal-elect is escorted to the ante-chamber, where a high functionary, the cardinal nephew, meets him and ushers him to his own apartment, where, unless he be a member of a monastic order, he is vested with a rochet and mantle and the other paraphernalia of his new order. Thus arrayed he is duly presented to the pope, who, surrounded by the dignitaries of his court, is seated on his throne. The new cardinal, approaching, kneels three times, at intervals, and on arriving at the foot of the throne he prostrates himself to kiss the papal slipper. The pope, with his own hands, then places the scarlet *mozzetta* on his shoulders. He then similarly places the *beretta* of like color on his head. After this has been done the new dignitary again kisses the foot and also the knee of the pontiff, who gives him the kiss of peace on both cheeks. The pope then delivers an address in which he speaks

of the qualifications and virtues of the new cardinal, and reminds him of the duties and responsibilities his high position has laid upon him. As soon as the speech is finished the master of ceremonies calls "*Extra omnes*," and the pope, the new cardinal, and the cardinal secretary are left together for a while. When this conference is over, the now full-fledged member of the Sacred College proceeds to the outer room, where he finds waiting for him the *Monsignore Sotto Guardaroba* ready to present, on a silver salver, the *berettina*, or scarlet skull-cap, to be worn under the *beretta*, which he has already received in the pope's presence. He then departs homeward in his carriage as he came.

While all the members of the Sacred College are eligible in case of a vacancy in the papacy, and all have a right to a vote, the field is not restricted to them. It is thus the reverse of a close corporation. Any bishop or priest, or even a layman not laboring under canonical impediment, may be elected. Urban VI, who was archbishop of Bori before his election, was never a cardinal; and Martin V was a layman when he was elected. Formerly it was the custom for the syndic or governor of Rome to receive a cardinal's hat at the expiration of his term of office.

Since the occupation of Rome by the Italian government the only conclave which has been held took place at the Vatican, in connection with St. Peter's. Directly over the main entrance to the latter, in what is called the peristyle, there is a spacious gallery, ample enough for the accommodation of the entire College, and yet perfectly accessible to the Pauline Chapel, where daily mass is celebrated, and the Sistine Chapel, where the morning and afternoon voting takes place. The Vatican itself has halls large and numerous enough to provide for a dozen conclaves, but within them are many rare and costly works of art which, once injured, could never be replaced. The assignment of the cardinals to the gallery of the peristyle of the Duomo is therefore an arrangement which, while it is quite convenient, is also one of wise forethought.

When a pope dies, the College is bound to go into conclave—as the meeting for the election of a new pope is called—the tenth day thereafter, whether any foreign

cardinals have arrived or not; save in the case of a dispensing bull empowering the election of a successor *presenti cadere*, in which case action is taken at once. Manifestly it is the prestige, the power attached to the office that make it so attractive; for, viewed from the human standpoint, nothing can be more joyless than the daily life of the Roman Pontiff at the present day. The era of magnificence, of pageantry for the Roman Court, has forever passed away. Extreme austerity, at least outwardly, distinguishes the dwellers in the Vatican. The atmosphere there is gloomy and chill. The Pope lives alone; no one shares with him even a meal. A walk in the garden attached to the palace has for years been the only source of relaxation for him who, while styling himself "The Vicegerent of Christ," is nevertheless, by his own volition, "The Prisoner of the Vatican."

As soon as a pope dies the cardinal camerlingo, or chamberlain, is officially notified, for during the vacancy the entire administration of affairs is in his hands. At once he proceeds to the room in which the deceased lies, and, striking the corpse on the forehead thrice with a tiny hammer, calls out his name the same number of times. Receiving no answer, he removes the dead man's ring, "the Ring of the Fisherman," from his finger, and breaks it.

Nine days after the death of the late pontiff are allowed, according to the ancient enactments, for the material preparations for the conclave, as well as for the arrivals of those cardinals who may live far away. The invariable rule is that a cell must be prepared for every member of the conclave, whether he comes or not. As the cost of the construction is a personal one, the expense to the cardinals is by no means trifling. In 1740 it was five or six thousand lira *per capita*, and in all probability that sum can be safely doubled at the present day. The cells are constructed of fir plank, and are practically windowless, the only opening being the one which permits the dweller therein to pass in or out. De Brosses, a lively French writer, says:

"Here they live, packed like herrings in a barrel, without air, without light, burning candles at midday, a prey to infection, devoured by fleas and bugs! A pretty sort of residence it will be if their eminences do not get their

business finished before the heat begins. It is reckoned that three or four cardinals die of it every conclave."

This was written in 1740, and is doubtless an exaggeration, though the confinement and excitement are certainly trying, and, knowing what Italian summers are, we can readily imagine every member of the Sacred College devoutly praying that when the Holy Father takes his flight, it may—the Bible to the contrary notwithstanding—be in the very depth of winter. Having drawn lots for their cells, and fitted them up according to their various tastes; the Seventy enter upon their occupancy on the afternoon of the day appointed, mass having been said at an early hour, and the hymn "Veni Creator" sung.

At a Council of the Church held at Lyons in 1274, laws for the regulation of papal conclaves were enacted. The third of these says:

"Let there be no access to the cardinals shut up in conclave. Let no one have the possibility of speaking to them secretly. Let no one have the power of sending messages or writings to the cardinals, nor to any of the conclavists, under pain of excommunication."

This rule is rigidly enforced even now. When the seventy cardinals are assembled in the great gallery a bricklayer walls up all doors save one, and in turn the windows, leaving at the top of the latter one or two panes to impart a dim religious light to the interior.

The next morning the master of ceremonies rings a bell at the entrance of each cell and repeats the summons half an hour later. At nine he rings the third time, crying, "To chapel, my lords." Then the cardinals, fully vested, with their scarlet *berette*, attended by their conclavists or chaplains, march to the Pauline Chapel, where mass is sung by the dean of the Sacred College. After service in the chapel comes breakfast, following which their eminences, in cassocks only, proceed to the Sistine Chapel to prepare for the first scrutiny. The chief feature of this function is the casting of a paper ballot of peculiar design, called a schedule. These instruments are about eight inches long by six inches wide, and are printed and divided as shown in the next column. The words and figures in script type indicate where blanks are left and how they are filled out.

Before putting the schedule in the urn placed on a table to receive the votes, the voter folds the first division down over the second, and seals it in the two places marked by circles, and then folds the fifth division up over the fourth, sealing it similarly, so that only the words written in the middle division, "Eligo in Summam Pontificem," etc., remain visible.

When the count of the schedules shows that no election has been reached, the papers are gathered together, and, being put with some straw in a grating in the fireplace, are set on fire. The smoke issuing from the chimney top informs the watchers outside that no choice has been made. This is the celebrated *sfumata*, of which so much has been written and concerning which so many wagers have been made.

Ego Henricus Edvardus Card. Manning	
○	○
Eligo in Summam Pontificem Revd. Dom. meum Dom. Johannes Henricus Newman.	
○	○
Domine, quis habitabit?	
48	

When their eminences return from the morning scrutiny it is time for the mid-day meal. This is leisurely partaken of, and after an hour or two for *siesta* they are called again to chapel for the afternoon scrutiny, which is conducted with like formalities to those of the morning. The morning's work, including the mass, generally occupies about two hours; the afternoon scrutiny, without the mass, about an hour and a half. The two scrutinies constitute the important business of the day. When they are over, recrea-

tion follows. Visits are interchanged, the merits — and otherwise — of candidates are discussed, and plans are decided upon for the morrow. The day closes by the ringing of a bell by the junior master of ceremonies two hours after sunset, a second time half an hour later, and a third time three hours after sunset, the last ringing being accompanied by the call, "*In cellam, Domini*"—"To your cells, my Lords." Then quiet prevails, if not sleep, until the morning dawns.

To perfect an election it is absolutely indispensable that a majority of the schedules deposited in the urn be inscribed with one name, although this result may be arrived at beforehand by one of three methods,—adoration, acclamation, or compromise. The two last speak for themselves. Adoration is the spontaneous union upon a candidate which is felt by all to be the direct action of the Holy Spirit. Such was the election of Marcellus II in 1555. One evening a number of the conclavists who had become weary of the long delays and of the intrigues of the more potential aspirants, in a moment of holy impulse cried out, "Let us not refuse to obey the Holy Spirit of God. Cervina shall be our pope." The rest acquiesced. Then all knelt, and afterward kissed the pontiff-elect. The next morning the usual scrutiny was held, and the action of the conclave the night before was unanimously ratified.

In this nineteenth century there have been held six conclaves, at which were elected:

1800. Pius VII (who ruled nearly twenty-three years and a half).

1823. Leo XII (five years and four months).

1829. Pius VIII (twenty months).

1831. Gregory XVI (over fifteen years).

1846. Pius IX (over thirty years,—the only Pope who ever passed the quarter of a century which is the traditional limit of the incumbency of St. Peter).

1878. Leo XIII (who survives, full of honors, at this present time of writing).

All things come to an end, and so it is with a papal conclave. Political intrigue, differences and jealousies among the cardinals, an honest incertitude as to who is the best one to vote for, may prolong an

election, but in due time the question is settled and a new occupant henceforth sits on St. Peter's throne. Then, according to custom, the senior cardinal deacon goes to a window and announces to the people assembled below, "*Papam habemus*,"—"We have a pope;" the artillerymen on watch at Castle Angelo receive the signal and fire their guns; the workmen at St. Peter's, hearing them, tear down the wall which closed up the entry to the great balcony; the new pontiff steps out, and gives his first benediction to an expectant world, "*Urbi et Orbi*;" and the strain which has sorely tried, perchance agonized the assembled cardinalate, is over.

When Leo XIII dies, substantially all we have outlined will be reenacted. The election, when it takes place, will be a pure one. The era of foreign plotting in behalf of this or that candidate is no more. The Roman Church has been careful for many years past to select for her cardinals—her "hinges"—men of the highest character both for spirituality and for administrative ability. The successor of Leo XIII, we may be certain, will be the most capable and the best fitted for the position that the Sacred College can select. Given the necessity of having a pope, it is manifest that no better means of obtaining one than the Church has gradually perfected could be devised. It nearly always—at least the later years show as much—secures the elevation of the fittest man for the place. With one accord we all hope that the necessity for calling a conclave to fill a vacancy in the papacy will not arise in the near future. Leo XIII still lives. Even those who do not agree with his theological and ecclesiastical beliefs revere his sweet, gentle nature. We all acknowledge that he has splendidly served his church according to its behests, and has lent lustre to the declining years of the century in which his lot has been cast. Let us then—Catholics and Protestants alike—with one accord say: "*Carissime, ad multos annos*, is the prayer we fervently offer in your behalf!"

EDMUND GUILBERT, D.D.

SOUTHPORT, CONN.



THE GROWTH OF THE UNIFORM

THERE probably never was a time when the heart of man did not find pleasure in the trappings of station. This desire to produce an impression of respect or of reverence in the minds of others by means of the insignia of office has stamped itself upon men of all races and in every clime. Sometimes this desire has found no other way of expressing itself than by daubing paints of various color upon the face, or by hanging rings in the ears and nose. Sometimes it has been manifested through the medium of a rod or staff carried in the hand, or by means of a belt or sash worn over the shoulder. But whatever may have been the peculiar method of giving visible evidence of superiority, the object has always been the same.

At first it would appear that only those most highly favored by heredity or by the more democratic method of selection by their fellows were allowed to wear or even to possess any of the insignia of superiority. To arrogate to one's self any such emblems would have been considered a most daring thing, indicative of insubordination if not of actual treason, to be most severely dealt with by him whose position as leader might seem to be thus threatened. Only the man of commanding influence might venture to assume the badge of office. Gradually the desire to wear the sign of higher rank became so great that concessions were made, and those entitled to serve in places subordinate to the head of the tribe or nation were permitted to make public the fact of their rank by wearing a badge of office.

But it has been left for us of modern times to witness a spreading of the universal longing for the outward token of superiority until there are few men upon whose person some sign of that longing may not be found. It may be in the gorgeous robe of kings and princes, or it may be in the button or pin of the schoolboy. Dazzling uniforms, worn by those who have won renown upon the field of battle; suits of different colors, possessed by those who are entrusted with the carrying out of various public functions; coats and caps, marking the peculiar school attended by the lad in his teens or perhaps the particular class to which he belongs,—all these have come upon us as the result of

the love which seems to be born with us for the wearing of the sign of rank.

The breast of the great general is fairly laden with badges of honor; the trainman who watches over the interests of the travelling public of the present day; the judge upon the bench; the black man who shines your boots; the boy on his way to school,—all present their own marks of preferment. The messenger who delivers your telegram; the lad who brings you your morning paper; the young miss tripping away to the academy or high school,—each wears some sign intended to show that he or she is entitled to a place to which not all are admitted.

Nor is this at the present time altogether a matter of choice with us. The great railway lines which compete for the business of the world have come to a point where they insist that their employees must be provided with uniforms of a color, quality, and make duly prescribed by them, and worn at all times when on duty. Somewhere about these uniforms must appear words stating the particular line with which these men are connected. Telegraph companies make it a rule that their messengers must wear a certain style of dress. So do steamboat and elevated railway companies, street-car lines, and other corporations whose employees come more or less into contact with the public.

Only within the past few months there has been considerable agitation among the members of the legal profession in the city of New York over the question whether those who have business in the higher courts should be compelled to wear robes of office in the presence of the bench. This agitation bore fruit in the presentation in the State legislature at Albany, at its last regular session, of a bill providing that no attorney practising in the superior courts should be required to wear a gown. This bill passed both branches of the legislature; but the fact that the governor withheld his approval does not remove the fear in the minds of some that the wearing of a gown may yet be made a requirement on the part of those doing business in the supreme court.

It is also true that not alone those who are termed the sterner sex are actuated by this desire to wear the uniform; so that it is no uncommon thing to meet

young ladies whose dress plainly indicates the passion for the outward display of rank. It may be a striking habit of blue or gray, with slashes of red or buttons of steel or brass; or it may be simply a hat with band of blue or gold, or a few buttons prominently attached to the sleeve at the elbow or the wrist. The impression is the same, whatever the particular form of the outcropping longing for class display. And this desire passes beyond the man who by reason of worth has gained the right to bear the mark of some service in a trying place. If his father once bore arms in defence of his country, the young man claims the right to belong to an organization of his own, and to wear a uniform which shall note that fact in an especial manner. So with the young woman whose sire is a veteran of some war.

The same spirit is witnessed in the wearing of the badge, button, or charm of the numerous lodges and fraternal organizations of our country. So jealous are some of these orders of their peculiar badges that they would be glad to make it a misdemeanor for anyone to wear them unless he actually belongs to their membership, and in some States this has been done. That such laws prevent imposition there can be no doubt; for cases are not rare in which men have attempted to establish claims to charity and to other beneficial assistance through the wearing of a button made for some order to which, as a matter of fact, they did not belong.

It will now be fair to ask what this wonderful growth of the uniform and its attendant manifestations indicate. Is there anything in this remarkable tendency toward greater display to prove that our national character is changing? Or shall we conclude that this is only a fancy on the part of the people which will soon pass away, to take its place with the many other notions that have prevailed in this country from time to time?

From the rapidly increasing love for the military uniform, with the buttons, badges, and other belongings, we will make no mistake if we draw the inference that the love of country which has always been such a marked characteristic of our people is becoming stronger and stronger as time goes by. It may be argued that just now there is a revival of the spirit of patriotism among our citizens on account of the wars in which we have been in-

involved; and it will not be denied that these wars have had their influence in bringing out a new crop of hats, badges, and buttons; but there are too many other sure signs of patriotic growth for us to reason that our present inclination to show our colors in this way is only a temporary ebullition which will vanish as speedily as it came. For years we have been fostering a spirit of love of country in the hearts of our children. We have encouraged the use of the flag of our country as an emblem of national pride and glory until it now floats over almost every schoolhouse in the land, and until some have feared that it might lose its power through its very omnipresence. In this extreme view no reasonable person will concur. Our youth cannot be too often reminded of what the flag means to us.

The old soldier wears his button proudly, because it carries with it a reminder of his service for the country in its days of peril. He delights in recalling his part in those stirring events, and he does not want to feel that the time will ever come when the nation will forget what it owes to him. Is not this a pride which needs no excuse? And his sons and daughters, catching something of his spirit, have their organizations intended to keep green his memory, and are proud to wear some mark which shall show to all men their claim to relationship with him. As an indication of the ready service our country may expect from these loyal sons in case trouble should again come upon us, this wearing of the badge is not without its value.

Nor is it safe or wise to draw the inference, from the love of the uniform shown by orders and other associations of men and women, that we are drifting toward the aristocracy of the Old World which delights in coats of arms and similar marks of exclusiveness. Such a spirit is utterly foreign to the American. What this does seem to point to is a growing tendency toward fraternal relationships. The club, the lodge, the brotherly order is becoming almost supreme. Aggregations of this kind largely dominate our present-day civic and political institutions. And each one of these particular organizations must have its own outward insignia. The schoolboy wears his cap and coat just as proudly as does the veteran of two wars. He is just as ready to fight for his class if need be as is the soldier under arms to march away to battle.

Is there any danger in this overmastering desire to train in classes? That must depend entirely upon the spirit which pervades the code of principles under which the many orders do their work. There can be no danger from an organization whose constitution, written or unwritten, has running through it the principle of right and justice to all men. In fact, the more widely such an organization projects itself the greater may be its value to society. So that, after all, everything depends upon the temper of the men who thus ally themselves. A careful survey of our national horizon at the present time fails to discover anything

unfavorable in the growth of the uniform. On the other hand, this tendency would seem to point toward a strengthening of the bonds of fellowship everywhere; and there can be no weakness in fellowship provided the underlying motive of that fellowship be a pure one. The keeping of this sacred key to future safety in state and nation lies in the hands of the men who owe allegiance to their respective orders, but whose fidelity reaches beyond any narrow partisan consideration and takes hold upon the far greater and absolutely essential principles of truth and justice toward all mankind.

MAINE, N.Y.

EDGAR L. VINCENT.

ON A HOSPITAL TRAIN

"How's that for a soldier's arm, nurse?" The speaker had rolled up the sleeve of his gay pink-and-white striped pajama jacket and was gazing ruefully at the fever-wasted limb.

"It looks just like one to me," I replied, keeping down the sob that tried to interfere with the words, and smiling as bravely as possible when the hollow eyes looked up in surprise. "Just like a soldier's arm," I repeated. "The men with great fat arms, nowadays, are not soldiers. They've stayed at home and you've done the work. You ought to be proud of that arm, I think."

"Oh, if you look at it that way——" The big fellow flushed and broke off with a weak laugh of pleased embarrassment. The comrade sharing his berth, who was, if possible, a shade thinner, grinned cheerfully while observing, "You got it that time; didn't you, George?" and each took a cup of milk, at the risk of altering the sharp outlines that were to proclaim them Uncle Sam's Own.

We were journeying northward on the hospital train sent out by the State of Michigan early in September to collect her invalid soldiers suffering from the effects of camp life at Chickamauga and Tampa. The need of such a train was evident. It was difficult for Northern men to recuperate in the Southern climate; and convalescents, impelled by homesickness, were leaving camp before their strength had been regained; often returning alone and uncared-for save by some chance Samaritan; travelling for days and nights without sleeping accommodations;

eating unsuitable food; and frequently reaching home in a dangerous condition. So forth went the rescuing train, like an angel of mercy, complete to the last feather.

The expedition was commanded by Colonel George A. Loud, just back from Manila, who had *carte blanche* from Michigan's warm-hearted war governor to do everything needed for the comfort of the boys in blue, and who exercised his privileges in a whole-souled fashion. Colonel John A. Baylies, of the Wagner Palace Car Company, saw to the matter of transportation and averted all the mishaps that lie in wait for special trains. Once, indeed, a Southern passenger train placed itself upon the siding which we were expecting to take, and a man with a red flag came around the curve just in time to inform our engineer that two such bodies could not profitably occupy the same space at the same time; but, as one of the nurses philosophically remarked, even if there had been a smash-up, we could have been thankful, any way, that none of the patients were on board. That sentiment, by the way, quite illustrates the spirit of the enterprise,—the patients counted first. Somewhere around the country there is an engineer who must smile if he recollects how one morning at about four o'clock, outside the station at Knoxville, while his immense engine was ringing a bell, letting off steam, tooting, coughing, clanking, and sizzling in seven different styles at once, a vestibule door of a train standing near by suddenly swung open, and a small figure in a pink

gown and white apron raised an authoritative hand and an imploring voice above the clamor: "Oh, please,—I don't suppose you know it; but this car is full of sick soldiers, and they'll all be awake with such a noise! Can't you stop it or go somewhere else?" He gave no sign of amusement, however, at the unusual "hold-up," but responded with true American politeness, "Sorry, mom; but I can't take her any further off than this. We're 'most done, though." Whereupon the big engine and the little nurse quieted down and the boys slept on.

The route was from Detroit to Chattanooga, a car being there detached for Huntsville, the third and last camp of the Thirty-second Michigan Volunteers; next to Atlanta, with another car sent on to Fernandina; then, after its return, back to Chattanooga and up to Knoxville, where the Thirty-first was encamped. A total of one hundred and fifteen men were taken in charge, though there were ample accommodations and supplies for nearly twice that number; and it was a matter for regret that an unwillingness on the part of the Thirty-second's officers to cooperate with the governor in this undertaking prevented the return of many invalids from that regiment.

While the journey southward was necessarily rather a holiday affair, the return trip was work, with scant rest or sleep, for the staff of three doctors, six trained and two volunteer nurses, two orderlies, and a full corps of waiters and porters. No outsiders were allowed until upon the homeward trip, when our number was augmented by a few fathers and mothers who had gone to their sons' relief, and who longed to give them the benefit of the hospital train, but dreaded any separation. They were permitted to take passage at the usual rates.

The dining-car was in charge of the ablest steward on the road, and his face was a study in amiability, morning, noon, and night, whether he was confronted merely by a request for a special order of poached eggs on toast for some epicurean soldier, or by the problem of serving a hot dinner throughout the train to one hundred and fifteen invalids, whose varying conditions had to be met by three kinds of fare, "regular diet," "soft diet," and "liquid diet." Eight sleeping-coaches were arranged for the patients, and as no upper berths were used, and neither curtain nor

partition was permitted to keep the fresh air from sweeping through the cars, they looked like hospital wards, except that the beds were end to end instead of side by side. All but the strongest convalecents had an entire section apiece, and the presence of two soft mattresses atop of the springs induced many humorous complaints that such luxury was overpowering, and that for beds the car floors would feel more familiar. It is unlikely that a better hospital train than this of Michigan was sent out. Certainly one that we saw at Chattanooga, said to be from Illinois, was very differently (and indifferently) equipped; with old, broken-windowed cars and without sleepers; for the sufferers were placed on stretchers resting upon the backs of seats in day coaches, whence some of them had fallen off into the aisles,—a most surprising and unnecessarily wretched state of things.

Sensations of mingled enthusiasm and trepidation were those of the amateur nurse when ordered to take command of the car "Arcadia," in which twenty-six soldiers had just been placed from the ambulance at Camp Poland. But, after all, it was not very appalling; the fifty-two orbs that met her entrance were unlike the "Santiago eyes," never to be forgotten by anyone who saw them,—those eyes that had looked Death full in the face at Siboney and held him off by their fixed gaze. No; these were the eyes of men who were ill, but they told no such tale of horror and starvation.

A nice little scene came when the stalwart chaplain entered to bid them a cheery farewell. They were reclining on the berths, still wearing the uniforms which most of them had not donned before in many days, and, after the felt hats had come off all along the line, he offered a simple, touching prayer that "these dear boys" might safely reach their homes. And they did; indeed, all were better at the end of the journey than at the beginning.

The "Arcadia" was well named, for such a spirit of good fellowship prevailed therein that one of the doctors was heard to christen it "the good-natured car." Most of its inmates were convalescent, and so happy at the near prospect of home that they could take a jocular view of things; while even the blond lieutenant in his stateroom, with a temperature soaring toward one hundred and five degrees, managed to evolve an occasional

smile. Just at first, though, there was a certain bitter feeling that required all one's tact and many persuasive arguments to soothe,—the result of the soldiers' indignation and wounded pride at having been kept inactive through the long summer, while other regiments from the same State, which had volunteered later than they, were given the chance to win glory in the Cuban campaign. Having been members of high-class military organizations, and having established a fine record since their enlistment as volunteers, it was pathetic rather than amusing to hear them say, with assumed joviality, "Oh, don't call us 'soldiers,' nurse, unless you say 'tin soldiers'; that's what they'll call us now in Michigan." Or, "Yes; we're supposed to be the Thirty-first Michigan, but our real name is 'The Chickamauga Park Improvement Association, general scavengers.'" Or, "Well, there's one comfort, if we lose our jobs after we're mustered out, we can get places as 'white wings'; we've learned that business any way." From their point of view the result of many sacrifices had been a tedious stay in an unwholesome camp, the exchange of splendid physique for illnesses from which they might or might not recover, and now a thirty days' furlough. However, they were not given to weak complainings, and everyone said he would do it again if necessary. So when the coming of the expensive hospital train was urged as evidence that they were considered soldiers well worth saving, and this statement was administered in large doses, together with the assurance that nobody "up home" would be so illogical as to blame them for what had not been their fault, and that the term "tin soldier" would not supersede their rightful title, their chagrin lessened.

But, oh, what a task to keep them from over-eating! The abnormal appetite of the fever-convalescent was there in full force, and one needed to be a detective with eyes like search-lights to discover the edibles that were smuggled in through the car windows whenever a stop was made. It was disconcerting to a sympathetic nurse, as well as to a ravenous invalid, when the latter was found in possession of an entire roast chicken, just bought from a station restaurant; and perhaps it might have puzzled Sherlock Holmes to determine whether a far-away, rapt look upon the pale face of a

typhoid convalescent meant tender visions of home and loved ones, or the presence beneath his pillow of a big rye-bread sandwich enclosing a thick piece of fat pork and accompanied by three raw onions, acquired from a workman's dinner-pail! Of course there were some brave spirits who resisted the temptation of adding to the official menu. Once, when a plate of bread was left within reach of a man who had not been allowed to grasp that staff of life for some weeks, all the heroism necessary to have taken him up San Juan hill shone in his eyes as he said proudly, "You may leave it there, nurse, if you want to; I promise not to touch it." Perhaps where daily bread is regarded as an accompaniment rather than a luxury, this may not seem important, but it meant a great deal to him just then; and it is to be hoped that the making of good bread is among the accomplishments of the young wife, that "awfully sweet little girl," of whom he told me one night, and for whose sake he was trying so hard to improve, that she might not be alarmed at his appearance.

Sometimes relations were reversed by the patients' concern for the nurse, and when she would, naturally, refuse to desert her post to take a rest, they often assumed the duty of entertaining her, so that she would be obliged to remain stationary awhile. They had many interesting stories of camp life, especially a unique tale of the brotherly love that grew up between the Thirty-first Michigan and the First Georgia, which one day actually resulted in a vigorous fight,— "a reg'lar scrap, ye know, nurse," — between two members of these regiments, because an argument had arisen in which each claimed that his regiment held the other in the higher esteem. Fancy the logic of pounding a man's head to impress upon his mind the fact that he was greatly beloved! Then, occasionally, the Scandinavian soldier would be inspired to recite, not a Runic rhyme, but some up-to-date verse detailing, for example, the manifold uses of the quinine pill as an army cure-all; and, by the way, it pleased his feminine auditor that at the conclusion of the aforesaid gem, where a rhyme for "Uncle Sam" belonged, he became aware of several warning faces, so that he paused at "don't care a ——" and delicately filled the blank with a cough! A little thing, but indicative of the consideration with which

these many "sorts and conditions of men," whether the farmer-boy or the university student, invariably treated their nurse.

Much interest was shown by the public when the hospital train came north. At the larger towns the platforms were crowded with sight-seers, who pressed close to the open windows and, in their kindness, offered indigestible and incongruous articles of food and drink, if not headed off by the long-suffering nurse. Sometimes they would give such verbal comfort as this:

Young Woman (to her companion): "Ain't he good-lookin'? I'm goin' to talk to him." Then to the soldier: "Say! Are you real sick?" (her tone seeming to indicate a morbid desire for an affirmative reply).

Soldier: "Not so very, now; got rheumatism in my leg and something the matter with my lungs."

Young Woman: "Aw, that's too bad! But you *might* get well, perhaps." Then, as the train moved out: "I *hope* you get well."

Talk about Job's comforters!

After the excitement of such encounters and the noisy activity belonging to a station in the early evening, it is a relief to go on into the darkness of the sleeping country. The tired soldiers settle down; the lights are extinguished, except one at either end of the aisle, and the nurse begins her vigil. The quiet night hours are conducive to confidences of one kind or another, for patients and nurses grow acquainted with surprising rapidity. It is the most interesting time and passes quickly. At the start, some have to be coaxed and soothed into forgetfulness; then those who have first been asleep begin to waken, one by one, feeling ready to have their pillows beaten and turned, their foreheads sponged with refreshing cologne, their feverish mouths rinsed with salt water, and then a little glass of cold ginger ale or grape juice to send them off again. Many of the faces look so young and fair as they lie still and unconscious, that a wave of tenderness and regret that so much suffering should have come to them fills the heart of the watcher, to whom it is all so new and strange.

When the morning dawned which found the hospital train entering Detroit, increased joy reigned in the "Arcadia"; and the travellers forgot and forgave those stops by the wayside which had appeared to them so needlessly frequent and so lengthy that the anxious query had often

been raised, "Oh, nurse; do you think that engineer knows how our furloughs are melting away while he fools along like this?" Addresses were exchanged with the whole careful. Everyone received a last deluge of cologne, just as a souvenir, upon the red bandanna necktie that marks the Thirty-first Michigan man. Several skirmishes ensued when the pale soldiers bravely tried to stride forth laden with their heavy bundles, but these short contests always ended in the defeat of the military by the nurse, the porter, members of local organizations who were on hand to assist, or even the few patriotic bystanders who were allowed on the station platform; and with their help all those whom the doctors had not assigned to hospitals were supported to carriages or placed aboard other trains. Only one "Arcadian" man was obliged to go to a hospital, though several might well have done so; but their pluck and determination kept them stiffened up, so that they were permitted to proceed at once to their homes in care of those who had come to meet them, or with Red Cross attendants, or in the special car that went out through the State in charge of a physician. Despite the general improvement—for many who had been brought to the train on stretchers were able to walk when leaving—there were pathetic scenes as reunions took place between the waiting families and friends and those gaunt, trembling forms which came to them instead of the stalwart soldiers who a few months before had marched away so sturdily in their new blue uniforms. One by one the thin, smiling faces disappeared from the "Arcadia," and the volunteer nurse could beat a retreat homeward for an eleven-o'clock breakfast, which she had been too busy to think of until then.

There was no loss of life, then or later, among the men who returned on this train; and the total expense of the week's trip was \$3,500, borne by the State.

Many of these boys in blue are beneath Cuban skies to-day, but they have not forgotten how Michigan helped them in their hour of need; and in various ways they have proved that whenever justice and mercy come to him from the country for whose sake he imperils his life, they are fully appreciated and gratefully remembered by the American soldier.

ANNA MATHEWSON.

THE RACE PROBLEM AT THE SOUTH

THE race problem at the South seems to have assumed a form so serious and even portentous that it might well rivet the attention of the American people to the exclusion of all schemes of external aggrandizement. When it has come to this that a negro, before being burned alive, is mutilated, and pieces of his flesh are carried away as souvenirs, while multitudes flock with delight to the scene of this hellish spectacle, language is wanted to express the pitch to which race hatred has risen and the danger with which its intensity threatens the State.

Mr. Lincoln, though a gifted, was not an instructed, statesman; and there is nothing, it is believed, to show that he ever clearly saw the real character of the situation with which he had to deal. He seems constantly to have regarded secession as rebellion. Yet he never ventured to treat it as rebellion. A faint movement in that direction was at first made by bringing the crews of Confederate cruisers to trial as pirates. But the prosecution was at once dropped, and thenceforth the conflict proceeded in every respect on the footing of an international war.

Social structure controls political organization. This was the fact which formed the key to the situation; but which Mr. Lincoln, not having studied political history, could be hardly expected to discern. Secession was not rebellion; it was the natural and inevitable separation of two social structures radically different from each other, and therefore incapable of being combined in the same political organization. The South, from the moment of rupture, was to all intents and purposes a nation. The first remark of a stranger who had come to see the civil war was that there was no civil war to be seen, all being peace internally, alike in the Northern and in the Southern nation.

Suppose the Southern leaders had done that which it was contrary to the violent and arbitrary character of slave-owners to do; suppose, instead of menace and gasconade, they had framed a temperate and respectful manifesto setting forth the radical incompatibility of the two systems, proved as it had been by many years of incessant strife, and appealing to

the North in favor of an amicable separation, with promises of friendly neighborhood and fulfillment of all commercial obligations,—would the Northern people have insisted or been justified in insisting on armed coercion? Their only moral or rational ground, apparently, for so doing would have been the character of slavery as a system under the ban of humanity, while it was inherently aggressive, owing to its congenital land-hunger, and threatened the hemisphere with its pestilent extension.

This was strongly felt in England, and caused some among the strongest enemies of slavery and the warmest friends of the Republic to hesitate before mounting the platform or taking up the pen in the Federal cause; though when the battle between freedom and slavery had fairly begun, those doubts were laid aside.

The war at its close left power in the hands of men like Thaddeus Stephens, Sumner, and Trumbull, who believed in the perfect equality of men and proceeded to reconstruct the Southern States by military force on the footing of human equality and negro suffrage. The Southern leaders, who would have been the best instruments of a rational reorganization, were proscribed on the persistent though unsound theory that they were the chief authors of a rebellion. The immediate consequences were carpet-bagging government and the Ku-Klux. The ultimate consequence has been the collapse of the whole edifice which had thus been built on a foundation of sand. The South has nullified the constitutional amendment enfranchising the negro, and the North dares not interfere. In short, the North won the battle, but the South has won the game. The South has in fact done more. Instead of votes for three-fifths of the blacks, the Southern white has now votes for them all.

The Abolitionist policy assumed, not only that the negro had the same political aptitudes with the white, but that the two races were capable of fusion, without which it was impossible that a real community should exist. Political equality could not really exist without social equality, nor could social equality exist without intermarriage. The Roman *plebs* did not think that its political enfran-

chisement was complete until it had asserted freedom of intermarriage between plebeians and patricians. Every one must now see that the hope of a fusion of the races, or of their combination in a real community within any measurable time, has fled. It cannot be denied that the white man is repelled from association with the negro by a physical antipathy which we cannot expect to see removed. In England, where the negro bears no brand of former slavery, association, though not denied, but rather sedulously accorded, is still somewhat of a *tour de force*, and intermarriage would, to say the least, be thought strange. In the Southern States intermarriage is hardly less abhorrent than incest. The relation is, in fact, worse than ever. The gulf of separation is wider and deeper than it was before the war. In domestic though not in plantation slavery the kindly bond between master and slave, depicted in the attractive tales of Mr. Page, was possible, and perhaps not uncommon. That bond has ceased to exist. The number of the half-breeds, who formed a link, though not of the best kind, has, if one may judge from the population of Washington, been greatly diminished. There is nothing now to mitigate the antagonism of the races, which seems to be ever growing more bitter, and on the part of the white displays itself in acts of savagery by which, being unrestrained and generally even unrebuked, disgrace is brought on the whole American Republic.

We are told that the cause of the lynchings is a propensity on the part of the negroes to rape, which threatens the honor of all Southern women and the purity of all Southern households. This is a version of the matter well calculated to engage Northern sympathy and avert Federal interference. But the fact appears to be that only in a minority of the cases has rape or the suspicion of rape been even the ostensible cause. It was not the cause of the murder of the negro postmaster and his family at Lake City. It was not the cause of an attempt to blow up a negro boarding-house, or of the flogging of two negro women till their clothes were saturated with blood. During the war, the whites being all in the field, their wives and daughters were entrusted to the keeping of the negroes, and nothing was then heard of rape or outrage of any kind. On the contrary, the fidelity with

which the negro had discharged his trust was cited as a proof that he was attached to his master and that slavery was not so black as it had been painted. We hear nothing of negro propensity to rape in Jamaica or in the other West Indian islands where the negroes vastly outnumber the whites. We hear nothing of it in Sierra Leone or the other British possessions in Africa, where the negro is encountered in his natural state. We hear nothing of it in Mauritius. We heard nothing of it in the households of the British West Indian proprietors who in former days used to keep negro servants. We cannot help inferring that race-hatred is at the bottom of lynching, and that it is cloaked by an exaggerated though perhaps not totally unfounded representation of the negro's propensity to rape.

We are told also that the violent prejudice against the negro is confined to whites of the lowest class. But the Governor of Virginia found it necessary, the other day, publicly to apologize to the State for having inadvertently received at his table a colored man who had come with a commercial deputation from Massachusetts; and when Mr. Bryan sits down at a public dinner with some colored men he receives from the South a shower of protests and of threatened withdrawals of support. Of the multitude whose vehicles are said to have blocked the way to the scene of the horrible murder in Georgia it is not likely that all, or even the greater part, belonged to the lowest class. At a great agricultural meeting the other day a Southern lady advocated a wholesale massacre of negroes, and it did not appear that this atrocious proposal was ill-received.

Not only has the negro been politically disfranchised, he has been practically put beyond the pale and out of the protection of the law. In the case of the Lake City murders there was not a shadow of doubt as to the facts; two of the murderers had turned State's evidence; the judge, an ex-Confederate as we were told, charged strongly for a conviction; yet no conviction could be obtained. In no case except this, where the Federal government was concerned, has even an attempt been made to bring the lyncher to justice. The juries will always be white, and it will be impossible for the negro to get a verdict. Even in Quebec, where the conflict of races does not approach in bitterness that be-

tween the races in the South, it is hardly possible to get a verdict where an appeal to race feeling can be made. The position of the negro is thus, in some respects, worse than it was in the time of slavery, when he had at least the protection of his master.

There is apparently nothing to prevent the whites from reducing the blacks in time to a state of serfage or peonage. The North is too much divided politically, and, in spite of its great victory, has too keen a recollection of the Southern steel ever again to interfere with Southern institutions. We hear no more of the Force Bill. In the midst of the lynchings the President goes on a political tour to the South, and there interchanges compliments with the Southerners without saying a word against the practices which were compromising the honor of the Union.

Had the politicians by whom the South was reconstructed, instead of pressing on the negro political powers for the exercise of which he was not ripe, and which he has proved himself unable to retain, contented themselves with conferring on him personal and industrial rights and provided him with special safeguards for those rights, events have shown that they might have been taking a more statesmanlike course. But they gave way to their wrath against those whom they deemed rebels as well as to their false theory of human equality, and sought in effect to establish a set of negro republics which nature has repudiated and overthrown. The writer made the acquaintance, in the South, of a negro who was said to be the leader of his race in that district, and who expressed moderate ideas in very sensible language. He said that for the present at least he was not anxious about the political franchise; but that he wanted for himself and his fellows the equal protection of the law, so that if accused of offences they might, like the whites, be brought to trial and not lynched.

The negro is by nature morally apathetic, devoid, as a rule, of sensitive self-respect, patient of contumely and even of wrong. But there must be a limit to his endurance, and it will presently be reached if he and his family are to be shot down like wild beasts, and he is to be put to death, without trial, by mutilation and burning alive. Some day he will rise,

and San Domingo knows how terrible his rising may be.

Can the danger of such a catastrophe be averted? Is there any solution of the race-problem at the South? Any notion which may once have prevailed that the negro race, being left without guidance and being unsanitary in its habits, would die out or dwindle, must have long ago been abandoned. The alarming estimates of its increase which at one time were formed have proved erroneous, and were probably founded upon the birth-rate without reference to the death-rate, which among the negroes seems to be exceptionally large. Yet the race multiplies, apparently somewhat faster than the whites. Its increase, if retarded by want of sanitary care, is free from the economical and social restraints which limit the increase of the superior races and must by this time have greatly reduced the predominance of the genuine Anglo-Saxon element on this continent.

At all events there are the eight or nine millions of negroes. The deportation of these to Africa, of which some have dreamed, is plainly impracticable. Nor do the negroes seem at all inclined to hive themselves in Florida or elsewhere. They are evidently home-loving, and the climate of the Southern States is perfectly well suited to their constitution; better suited to their constitution than it is to that of the whites.

In the opinion of many education is in this, as in all other cases, the grand panacea. How far the negro is capable of being raised by education must at present be regarded as a moot question. A Jamaican negro graduated the other day at Oxford, and his father, to be able to send him to the University, must have acquired wealth and shown the qualities implied in its acquisition. But it is difficult to find a case of a negro of the full blood who has attained eminence of any kind. In Haiti the race had, it is true, a bad start; but it has enjoyed free play for nearly a century and has not only made no progress but has relapsed into African superstition. We need not pronounce a verdict of despair. Toussaint l'Ouverture, who seems certainly to have been a negro of the full blood, showed very high qualities, and Aristotle is right in saying that the capabilities of a species are to be judged by the point which its highest individuals have attained. But assuming

that education will do for the negro all that its most enthusiastic advocates expect, will the gulf between the races be thereby filled? Will not the negro, educated and conscious of his own capacity for better things, yet excluded from the social circle, from public office, and from the higher walks of life, be more discontented than ever; and will not the white be more than ever jealous of the negro?

What, then, is to be done? In this case British experience does supply a precedent on a small scale, and holds out a glimmering light. Great Britain, since the abolition of slavery, has had to deal with the race problem in the West Indies, especially in Jamaica. Construction there, in the flood tide of British Liberalism, was performed, as Reconstruction was in the Southern States, by the enfranchisement of the negro and the institution of a mixed republic. The result was a deadly struggle between the races for political ascendancy, culminating in the hideous massacre of 1864. The Jamaican constitution was then surrendered, and the island was brought again under the rule of a royal governor with a legislative assembly.* There seems to be no other way of keeping the peace and holding the balance of justice between two hostile races incapable of fusion other than the subjection of

both to a superior and impartial authority. The institution of a governor of the Southern States with powers like those exercised by the royal governor at Jamaica, subject to the control of Congress and assisted by an advisory council or assembly, would no doubt be a very strong measure and one at variance with American rule and precedent. But what else can be done? The importation of the negro into this continent was a calamitous error as well as a flagrant crime. But its consequences cannot be cancelled, and you must deal with them as best you may and as you would deal with any other evil legacy of the past. The Declaration of Independence, which condemns arbitrary rule, declaring the consent of the governed to be the only right foundation of government, is, notwithstanding its weak points, a charter of humanity which no one would willingly discard, especially if a charter of inhumanity were to take its place. But neither it nor any rational declaration of principle is violated by obedience to the dictates of manifest and overwhelming necessity. The governed, indeed, in this case, if they were wise, might avert any breach of the Declaration of Independence by giving their voluntary consent to the institution of supreme and impartial rule.

TORONTO.

GOLDWIN SMITH.

LIFE ON THE VIGA

TO THE tourist there is no more curiously interesting place than the City of Mexico with its cosmopolitan life, its lingering ruins of Aztec customs and civilization, its sixteenth-century Spanish ideas, its shadow of a republic, its strong military government, and, added to all this, its nineteenth-century progress.

But the ordinary tourist generally meets with but one side of Mexican life, for he confines his sight-seeing to the beaten path laid down in the guide-books. He knows only those parts of the city where the modern spirit is in the ascendancy,—the Paseo de la Reforma and San Francisco Street, the chief public parks and plazas, the public buildings and the wide and clean thoroughfares. This is the life that

is led by less than one tenth of the population. Of the habits, customs, and manners of the vast mass of the people the tourist learns little or nothing. For him the City of Mexico is a metropolis of broad, clean, well-paved, well-lighted streets, massive stone buildings, beautiful public gardens and parks, wide public drives dazzling with light and life, a wilderness of fashionable carriages and high-bred horses, all the beauty and chivalry of a great capital. But to this Parisian-like picture there is a curious rustic background of narrow, crooked, ill-paved streets; damp, ugly, squatty, one-story buildings, dark, narrow hovels without a sign of ventilation; uncouth, half-naked people, whose instincts are those of the savage; degradation, misery, and ignorance; and yet over it all a spirit of happy, careless content.

He who would understand Mexico City

*In my last article (*SELF CULTURE* for June, Vol. IX, p. 457) I spoke of the council or assembly as elective. I find that it is partly elective partly nominative; though it would seem from what has recently been taking place that the elective element prevails.

as it is must turn resolutely away from the American quarter and go down into the damp, narrow, ill-smelling streets, and study it from life. Then — and then only — will he be able to sympathize with the legislators who govern this most curious of countries. Then he will learn that the question of Mexico's regeneration is not one of to-day or to-morrow; but that a century — perhaps several centuries — will be required to bring these people up to the level of modern civilization.

superiors he is the humblest of the humble, a true heir to the yoke of subjection. Three centuries of Spanish rule have taught him this humility so thoroughly that in more than a generation of freedom from foreign influence he has failed to realize that it is his mission to govern the country. The savage, domineering conqueror of the Aztec age has disappeared and left in his place a mild, contented creature, who lives in the sunshine of the present and looks not to the future.



CATHEDRAL, GUADALUPE

But one cannot learn to know the native Mexican "peon" * in a day. Though his character is apparently simple, it is really complex. A descendant of the fierce warriors of the latter days of the Mexican empire, the slumbering instincts within him burst bounds at times and lead him to commit horrible crimes. Under his peaceful, stolid demeanor there lies the passion of the whirlwind. But with his

* The peon, in Mexico, was formerly a serf, bound to a creditor by law or custom, to serve as a laborer until he paid his debt. This made him practically a bondsman for life, as he never managed to get out of debt, and even if he did it was an easy thing for the master — who was himself, in most cases, the law of the land — to claim that he was still his debtor. Although the system of peonage is contrary to law it is still practised in remote parts of the republic, where the ignorance of the peon makes it hard for the government to root out the evil. There are Mexican peons in Texas who could not be bribed to go back to Mexico, believing that the *señor* is more powerful than the law. In those parts of Mexico where peonage is in reality dead the term "peon" is still generally applied to the laboring class. In Mexico City the word is used to designate probably more than half the population.

The Mexican peon appears at his best on a great public holiday; for at such a time he displays all the natural, careless gaiety of his disposition. To the tourist, therefore, who is anxious to see the most varied picture of Mexican life in the shortest space of time, I would say, take a trip up the Viga Canal from the City of Mexico to the little village of Santa Anita on a Sunday afternoon in the "flower season." There one meets with almost every phase of Mexican life of the lower and middle classes as it exists in and around the city.

Every quarter of Mexico City has some individual holiday which it celebrates once a year. The great holiday of the Viga is "Flower Sunday." In Aztec times all the people, for many miles from the City of Mexico, came up to the capital, during a certain week in the year, to make the flower offering to Quetzalcoatl, the "Fair God" of Lew Wallace's novel. This was an old custom which the Aztecs



CHAPEL OF THE HOLY WELL, GUADALUPE

inherited from their Toltec predecessors in the land, and which they handed down to their successors, the Spaniards and the christianized Indians.

Last year I spent "Flower Sunday" on the Viga in company with a number of friends. When we arrived at the wharf, a long gray shore facing a dusty road and dustier plazuela, on three sides of which extended rows of flat, squatty, one-story adobe buildings, the scene that presented itself was one of vivid animation. On every hand were hundreds of people standing, sitting, reclining, lying flat on their faces, running, walking, staggering. Some were laughing, some talking, some shouting, some silent, wearing that peculiar expression of taciturnity which is the characteristic mark of the Indian in repose; while the dirtiest, most wretched, most miserable-looking of human beings, literally clothed in rags and tatters, libels on the image of their Maker, crawled by with outstretched hands and the beseeching eyes of dumb beasts that expect something from the hands of their masters. Here and there in the dust lay a

confirmed pulque-drinker, curled up like a lap-dog, sullen, sleepy, and stupid.

Across the plazuela, in front of the ruins of an old building of Spanish times, a large party of Indians from the hills were holding a picnic. A dozen swings were going and noisy merriment prevailed. Along the wharf the boatmen bellowed like a herd of Mexican bulls (every boatman seems to have a frog in his throat) and disputed the fares with one another. From a neighboring pulque-shop came the noise of revellers mingled with the voices of drunken women. The call of the fruit-venders and vegetable-peddlers, in their high-pitched, monotonous, semi-musical intonation; the rough lingual of the native Mexican; the harsh guttural of the Indian from the hills; and the incessant chatter of Spanish,—made the scene, for the stranger and tourist, a perfect Babel. In and out through this struggling mass of humanity passed the carriages of the upper classes, from whose wealth of floral decorations

smiled the powdered faces of the pretty señoritas.

Suddenly a deep hush fell upon that vast assembly, and down in the dust, that lay several inches deep in the streets, went every man, woman, and child, the ragged beggar by the side of the well-dressed bourgeois. Some knelt and covered their eyes with their hands; others fell flat on their faces. A few American tourists alone remained standing. Instinctively I took off my hat as I looked in the direction in which all eyes were turned. A third-class cab, its yellow badge conspicuous in the bright sunlight, was coming quickly toward us, leaving behind it a thick cloud of white dust. As it passed I caught the gleam of the orange vestments of the padre who was carrying extreme unction to some poor soul that had almost done with all things earthly. As if frozen to the earth the people remained like a mighty group of statuary. Nor did they move until the cab had passed and drawn up before a miserable little adobe hut, destitute of any passage for air, light, or humanity except an open doorway. Not

until the priest entered did they arise; and even then they remained with heads uncovered. Nor could the boatmen be persuaded to move until the padre appeared half an hour later, followed by the score of inhabitants of the hut, each with a lighted taper in his hand. As the cab passed the wharf again on its return, the former scene was repeated; and the people remained in their devotional attitude until the padre had passed out of sight.

The Mexican flag waves over every church in the republic, as a symbol of the power that the government exercises over all its subjects within the realm, and the priest has no standing in the eye of the law; but the church lives as strongly as it ever did in the hearts of the great mass of the people.

Scarcely has the padre disappeared around a neighboring street corner when the crowd, as if touched by the wand of some hidden musician, resumes its former happy, careless, holiday mood. The boatmen begin shouting and pushing one another aside, the Indian women cry their wares in shrill, high voices, and the mass of humanity begins moving again in the streets like a swarm of ants.

We clamber into the most inviting of from thirty to forty boats lined up close

together along the shore. The two boatmen stand, one in the bow, the other in the stern,—their loose, white cotton trousers rolled up over their knees,—with long push-poles in their hands ready to shove off.

As we move out from among the other boats the crowd along the shore cheer us and wave their hands, and we respond as heartily as though we had known them all our lives, for there is a sort of contagion in the spontaneous good will of a party of pleasure-seekers.

When we have cleared the boats along the wharf a native string-band enlivens the voyage with selections from popular operas. The passengers take up the words, and the waters ring with the sound of their voices. The boatmen keep time to the music with their push-poles; the down-coming boats cheer us as they pass; the lumbering rustics along the shore stop and gaze at us; the peon women move their heads and wave their hands in rhythmic unison. The whole canal seems to rejoice and make merry.

The chief element in the life of the canal is the peon. On feast days and public holidays his greatest pleasure is to take passage, with his family, in one of the boats going to Santa Anita, spend the



ENTRANCE TO THE FLOATING GARDENS ON THE VIGA



VILLAGE OF SANTA ANITA, ON THE VIGA

day there at the flower market and among the winding passages of the "gardens," and then float lazily down the Viga in the moonlight to the accompaniment of instrumental music and sentimental songs that blend harmoniously with the clearness and beauty of the Mexican night.

As the up-coming boats pass us on their return journey there is an appearance of intense physical enjoyment on the faces of their occupants. They sing, they shout, they laugh; they call to us and wish us a happy journey, though we have but a matter of a mile to go in almost dead-still water. All have decorated themselves with flowers of every hue and variety to be found in the valley of Mexico. Many of the women and not a few of the men have crowned themselves with the most beautiful garlands. Some wear sashes of delicate blossoms that bloom only in the perpetual summer of the upland plateaus. Others bear exquisitely fashioned floral crosses with which to decorate the altar of the Virgin or some patron saint on their return home. In some manner or other all have adorned themselves with nature's bounty. Even the poor, old, ragged Indian peasant woman has caught the spirit of the hour and trimmed her high, steeple-crowned straw hat with an immense wreath of flaming scarlet pop-

pies. In the intensity of their physical enjoyment these people are true children of nature. For them life is a careless existence.

As we continue our journey up the canal we sometimes approach to within a few feet of the shore. The blind, the halt, and the maimed, who are lying in the hot dust and sand along the bank, stretch out their grimy hands and beseech charity in the name of "the Blessed Mother of God, Our Gracious Lady of Guadalupe." A careless penny thrown to these poor wretches calls down upon our heads the blessings of all the saints in the calendar. The better class of Mexicans are very good to the begging poor; and so many are the pennies that find their way ashore.

The Viga is the only outlet for the market gardens that supply the City of Mexico with vegetables and fruit. So from early morning, long before the burning rays of the tropical sun have driven the damp, chilly night airs back to the mountains, until after nightfall, great clumsy scows, laden with every conceivable produce from the rich gardens along the canal, crawl slowly and lazily on toward the metropolis. As we approach Santa Anita these boats become more numerous. Some float at anchor in the narrow

waters, others are drawn up along the shore awaiting their cargoes.

The life of the canal here is delightfully indolent. The earth has put on her most beautiful garments; the blushing rose-bushes hang their heads with the fragrant burden of their blossoms; the poppy plantations gleam like fields of flame; and the gaudy flower-gardens look down upon us from their black-edged beds that rise several feet above the green waterways.

A little huddled cluster of low adobe huts, the gleaming white towers of the inevitable parish church rising from their midst; this is Santa Anita at first sight. It is our ideal of a native Indian village, and we expect to find it sleeping as quietly as the lazy water-lands that lie around it. But as we enter its narrow, confined, dusty streets we meet everywhere with the animation that characterizes a commercial place.

In Santa Anita the main business of life is the buying and selling of flowers. Hundreds of excursionists go there in the dry season; and the streets are usually so densely packed with stationary flower booths, itinerant flower venders and buyers, as to be almost impassable. In these dust-laden streets, these curious little adobe booths and primitive-looking stalls and courts that suggest pictures of the life of Anahuac* before the conquest, the bustle and spirit of trade is as great as in the more civilized marts of the world.

The spirit of barter is strong in all the native races of Mexico. The venders and small traders generally ask twice and often three times what they expect to get for their merchandise. It is a settled principle of trade that one must never

pay the price demanded for anything. A Mexican trader would lose half his interest in life if he were deprived of the pleasure of beating down and being, in return, beaten down in his price. So, in Santa Anita, the life of the market is one of curious animation. For the time being, at least, haggle and barter are the serious business of life.

The variety of flowers displayed in the Santa Anita market is immense; and the designs are always tasteful and often exquisitely beautiful. There are perhaps no other people in the world who love flowers so well as the Mexicans do. And this universal taste of the nation calls forth all the artistic skill of the horticulturist. Crosses, lyres, vases, and garlands; intertwining cornucopias, tablets, and beautifully matched and shaded bouquets of every form and description, trimmed with mosses, leaves, and evergreens; fantastic and grotesque yet elegant designs in colored paper; delicate pinks and flaming carnations; gleaming whites and enamelled creams; sloe blacks and royal purples, with half a hundred intervening varieties and combinations of colors whose beauty might almost enamour Nature herself,—are piled upon the stands or displayed in decorated baskets all along the streets or balanced upon the heads of the itinerant venders. The very air is laden with the breath of flowers. We catch the passion of the moment and return to our boat with a triumph equal to that of the most enthusiastic of the flower-worshippers, laden with a fragrant armful of exquisitely delicate blossoms of cream and white.

J. HUBERT CORNYN.

SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS.

JEAN RACINE AND HIS AGE

DURING the present interregnum, while so many are bewailing the decline of the epic, it is a pleasure to review that form of art which is interdicted to us, to recall to view those who are numbered in the hierarchy of the renowned, and to replace them in honor by recapitulating the qualities that make its glory. There are three or four so-called schools in the world which were formerly

illustrious, but which are now very lightly treated. The French school of the seventeenth century—in which grandeur was united with good sense, and reason, simplicity, and force were coupled with genius of composition—is one of the most notable of these schools. There are times when each preceding generation seems but a stepping-stone to a brighter light destined to shine in the next. Thus has it been in the routine of the tragic drama—from the days when, under the paternal hand of Æschylus, it was symbolic of the

* The Aztec name for Mexico City. It is literally the same in derivation as London, and means "the town in or near to the water."

history, the religion, and the patriotic character of the Greeks, to the latter days when Racine and Corneille, inspired, perhaps, by Euripides and Sophocles, gave to their generation more exalted emotions, more affecting memories,—a higher ideal.

The French classic drama grew out of what proved a futile attempt to resuscitate forms of art which had been dead for upwards of two thousand years, and to adapt them to the expression of a new world of ideas. In the early French drama no attempt was made at reality; it was constructed on a purely artificial principle, on a principle tedious and unnatural. Though not improbable in their conception, the characters were abstractions rather than creatures of flesh and blood. In the classic drama which followed, dramatic art in France passed from youth to virility. Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides together do not equal Corneille.* Subordinate to everything else, the Greek drama was religious and historical, a portraiture of life among the Athenians. Corneille expressed that which is more truly touching: a great soul at war with itself between a generous passion and duty. He became the creator of a new pathetic,—a pathetic unknown to antiquity. He studied Plato; hence he addressed human nature in a more elevated form. It has occasionally been suggested that, where Shakespeare has imagination, Corneille has soul. Corneille reigned by his own genius; he borrowed nothing from those that went before him, save the rules of expression originated by the

ancients; his poetry was modelled in strict observance to the so-named Aristotelian unities. He made tragedy a school for heroism and virtue.

A new light, however, was destined to uphold the poetical glory of France. "Andromache," the first masterpiece of Racine, brought to view tragic beauties unknown even to Corneille. Racine lacked the power to paint heroes and warriors, but he gave us that which is more essential in the dramatic art; he painted men and women with their natural passions, and the most natural and most touching of all,—love. With his knowledge of this

passion he opened a new and abundant source of tragedy,

and the French drama became a history of the passions and a tablet of the human heart.

Where Corneille formed his characters upon a basis of astonishment and admiration, upon a nature sometimes too ideal, Racine formed them upon a nature always just. Stress might be laid on the point that the analysis of four or five of Racine's characters forms the complete history of love, for no man ever understood it better.

Inconsistent as it may appear

when we consider that we have been taught to appreciate "art for art's sake," race prejudices

have always been a detriment to the memory of Racine. In London, for instance, at each and every production of "Phèdre" by a French company, the critics have one stereotyped expression which is always applied to it—"periwigged Hellenism." Hazlitt, usually just and truthful in his decisions, when refer-

other, the violent contentions between virtue and crime, and in a narrow compass, too, in which events press upon each other without confusion, in which the action rapidly progresses toward the crisis that must reveal what is most intimate to the hearts of the personages. We must admit that all four were masters in the drama, with manifest differences, as well as more than one trait of resemblance, each ingenious and polished to the most charming delicacy, and by instinct majestic and sublime.

* This statement may sound prejudiced; yet I am of opinion that there are few with sensibilities so well developed as to derive equal pleasures from each of these dramatists. Thus it is that those who have studied in the literary school of Burke and Johnson find rather flat the Saxon simplicity of John Bunyan. I have always thought Corneille understood best the method of developing human character by easy stages,—representing man with his different passions armed against each



JEAN RACINE

ring to the French poet, elucidated his feeling of British exclusiveness, saying:

"The French object to Shakespeare because of his breach of unities, and hold up Racine as a model of classic propriety, who makes a Greek hero address a Grecian heroine as 'Madam.' Yet this is not barbarous. Why? Because it is French, and because nothing that is French can be barbarous in the eyes of this frivolous and pedantic nation, who would prefer a peruke of the age of Louis the Fourteenth to a simple Greek head-dress."

Lamennais, a French contemporary of Hazlitt, a man whose intellectual gifts equalled those of the British essayist, and who was likewise of a gloomy spirit, says:

"Racine is the Raphael of the drama. Expression and design, brilliance and sobriety of color, we find in him all the distinctive qualities of this great master, in whom the antique feeling for beauty was combined with the Christian genius."

This goes to prove the truth of the prevalent opinion that every nation must be held to be the fittest judge of its own literature. Hazlitt's inadvertency may be attributable to one cause. In his time scenic embellishments were made the predominating feature of French tragedy; and, in the words of Minnie Maddern Fiske, all art suffers in its period from elaboration, which develops artificiality, and from the idiosyncrasies of artists that cloud true elements; but these are from time to time swept away, and its disciples return to inevitable principles. Thus it is that stage art is becoming true again after a long devotion to the superficial and artificial.

"Work cannot be artistic and effective in any field unless the artist has come to recognize and understand that his calling is merely a light upon the path of truth and beauty."

Racine, whom the *literati* of France proclaim a greater dramatist than Shakespeare, was born in the little town of La Ferte Milon, in Aisne, on the 21st of December, 1639. At four years of age he lost both his parents and was taken under the guardianship of his maternal grandfather, Pierre Sconin. His first schooling was at the College at Beauvais, where he remained until the age of sixteen, when he entered the Collège d'Harcourt (Louis le Grand) to complete his studies. His progress in the Greek language—he is said to have mastered the dramatists in twelve months—delighted his instruct-

ors; but his love for poetry filled their ascetic minds with alarm.

His first claim to recognition was through his second tragedy, "Alexandre," which, though written with that degree of elegance which consists in loftiness of expression, propriety of terms, and variety and cadence of verse, was deficient in that interest which should constitute dramatic composition. Its early failure taught Racine the lesson of his life. He discovered that political conversations do not compose tragedy, and that the human heart alone will suffice as the backbone of this form of art. He found out for himself the primary rule which has long since been laid down as an axiom,—that the greatest pleasure of an audience consists in viewing themselves as if they were in a mirror. He conceived the rule which should be framed in letters of gold before every dramatist who respects his calling,—the fundamental principle so worthy of serious consideration:

"If we wish to be elevated we are still more desirous of being courted, perhaps because we are more certain of our weakness than our virtue; admiration alone is too transient and volatile to support an entire piece; the soft tears which it sometimes draws are soon dried, whereas pity penetrates the heart with an emotion which is continually increasing and which the heart loves to cherish. Realism produces delicious tears—which the tragic poet can elicit at will when he has once discovered the source."

The truth of the theory expounded by him was strengthened when his next tragedy was produced; if "The Cid" was the first epoch in the history of the French theatre, "Andromache" was the second. Although "The Pleaders," "Britannicus," "Bajazet," and "Mithridate" were numbered among his early successes, it is with his "Andromache," "Iphigénie," and "Phèdre" that we of the present day associate his name. Mithridate, defender of Romans, possessed as he was of that determined hatred, that great courage, that bitter cruelty, that *finesse*, that cruel jealousy, was a strong character around which to build a powerful tragedy; but, as I have intimated, he was ill at ease when handling his male personages and their stronger passions. Racine was the Gallic Euripides, whereas Pierre Corneille was the Sophocles.

It was due to "Iphigénie" that Racine was elected a member of the French Academy. Three years after the first

production of "Iphigénie," Mlle de Champsmelé* requested Racine to create a part for her in which she could portray all the passions. The poet decided upon Phèdre as the character most likely to bring out the rare gifts of the actress. Racine possessed one of the greatest qualities of a dramatist, for in painting the coarser passions he embellished a trifle without disguising. There was a suavity, a nobility, and an eloquence in his style unknown to the French dramatists before his time. He made Phèdre a character more to be worshipped than condemned. Little he knew the noble cause which his tragedy was destined to support in after days — the days of Rachel. Rachel! The word sounds familiar as it falls upon the ears of old playgoers; it was she who saved the Théâtre Français from ruin and brought back to the stage the masterpieces of the French classic drama. Thackeray wrote:

"Ancient French tragedy, red-heeled, patched, and beperiwigged, lies in the grave, and it is only the ghost of it the fair Jewess has raised." Nevertheless it was Rachel who revived the old French drama and gave to France the preëminence in the dramatic art which she held for so many years — and her two principal vehicles were the Phèdre and Agrippine (in "Britannicus") of Racine. Perhaps her histrionic style was too exalted for the conventional characters of the drama of her own time, and again we must remember that Thackeray, like Hazlitt, was troubled with that feeling of British exclusiveness. Rachel was seen upon the stage for the last time at Charleston on the evening of the 15th of December, 1856.

One of the most cruel acts in histrionic story was perpetrated in connection with the first production of "Phèdre." Pradon, an obscure dramatist, long forgotten, had composed a tragedy upon the same subject, which was brought out at the Théâtre Guengnad on the same evening that Racine's work appeared at the Hôtel de Bourgogne. The former was taken under the protection of a cabal which purchased

every box at both theatres, filled the Guengnad with *claqueurs*, and left the other empty. Twenty thousand francs was expended in this unworthy artifice, and the occurrence so disgusted Racine that henceforth he eschewed literary ambition; he looked upon his early successes as subjects for repentance rather than for congratulation. In 1677 he married Catherine de Romanet, the daughter of a *bourgeois* of Amiens, a very estimable and devout young woman, whose intelligence was wholly absorbed in domestic virtues; and in a religious atmosphere, of respectable devotion rather than exalted piety, he passed the remainder of his days. For twenty years of his life Racine held the position of historiographer to the king, but his lucubrations were destroyed in the burning of the Maison de Valincourt, at St. Cloud, in 1726. Although through all his trials and triumphs he held the respect and esteem of Louis the Fourteenth, his last days were spent under a cloud. Madame de Maintenon, according to a statement of his son, when privately conversing with him one day upon the misery of the people, caused by the desolating war then raging, was so pleased with the justness of his remarks that she requested him to set down his opinions upon the subject in writing. Receiving from her a promise of secrecy, he consented to do so, and shortly afterwards placed a treatise in her hands which contained some severe strictures upon the condition of the country and the continuation of the war. While she was reading it the king entered and took it from her hand; he insisted upon knowing the name of the author, and after a faint resistance she revealed it. Some time afterward Racine ventured to solicit by letter some small favor of the king; he refused to grant it. So deeply did his disgrace prey upon his morbidly sensitive nature that it threw him into a fever, and so aggravated an old disease from which he had been long suffering as to cause his death. After undergoing an unsuccessful surgical operation, Racine died on the 21st of April, 1699. In 1711 his remains were transferred from Port Royal to the church of St. Étienne du Mont, Paris, where they rest to-day.

Although to us of the present day he is little more than a "fossil of an extinct world," he was an epitome of his age. He lived in an age and a country where the church looked askance at the stage —

* Emotional rôles are interpreted differently by different actresses. The most indifferent ones will at times shed real tears in pathetic situations and fail to move an audience, while others, dry-eyed and unaffected, will by the mere perfection of art melt the very souls of their spectators. Champsmelé was an adept in the latter method. It was she who, under the instruction of Racine, first renounced the sing-song delivery which then prevailed upon the French stage, and substituted natural inflections of the voice.

where Christian burial was oft-times denied to a poor player—yet he was a devout Christian. He was a good husband, a loving father, and a sincere friend. In stature he was of medium size, and his countenance, notwithstanding that his entire life was given up to depicting the sorrows of others, had an agreeable, frank, and cheerful expression. Although he died a victim of a woman's selfishness, led into disgrace by a pledge which was infamously disregarded, whatever his feelings may have been, he never uttered one word of malice or even hinted in any way that the culpability and discreditable conduct of Madame de Maintenon was in his eyes dishonorable. Racine was naturally so eloquent, and had mastered Greek so well, that he once kept his friends wrapped in deepest attention while he read from the original Greek the "*Cædipus Tyrannus*," giving it out in lugubrious French. Self-reliant and determined, he accomplished all that he undertook. Just before his death he confessed to his son:

"Although the applause I have received may have greatly flattered me, the least critique, however malicious it may have been, has caused me more annoyance than all the praises have given me pleasure."

The words signify the true nature of the man. His reminiscences of the theatre were so unpleasant that he never prepared a correct edition of his works for publication.

He was careful in his selection of subjects, and the result is that his characters are remarkable for their delicacy, tenderness, animation, and power of touching the heart. He was original, as Corneille had been before him, but

whereas the former is rugged and irregular in his compositions, Racine is graceful and tender. As Pope was to Dryden, so was Racine to Corneille. It was in the delineation of women that Racine's genius shone brightest. The truthfulness with which he portrayed their tender passions made his male personages a secondary consideration. *Achille*, *Pyrrhus*, *Mithridate*, and *Bajazet* are weak and frail when we think of *Roxane*, *Hermione*, *Iphigénie*, and *Phèdre*. If the former are possessed of power and beauty, it is a power and beauty with which this age has little sympathy. As for *Berenice*, so exquisitely tender, so pathetically human, we have little but praise. Of all his works, "*Phèdre*" is the one upon which his claim to genius rests most soundly, although Voltaire pronounced "*Iphigénie*" the most perfect of tragedies.

In the tragedies of the poet we can catch a glimpse of the heart of the man—the story of that gentle soul which uttered its complaints in lyric poetry, pouring forth its sorrows in the choruses of "*Esther*" and "*Athalie*;" a soul so easily to be moved that its own offspring, "*Esther*," touched it to tears at St. Cyr; a soul, sympathetic and tender, that pitied the misfortunes of the people and had the courage one day to speak the truth to one of the most frail and unpraiseworthy personages in French history, Madame de Maintenon, only to be extinguished by the first breath of disgrace. Such was the life of Jean Racine—the man, the poet, the genius—the two hundredth anniversary of whose death France has just commemorated this year.

INGRAM A. PYLE.

DETROIT.

HUMAN SPEECH AND MOUNTAIN POVERTY

THE mountains in the south and southwestern parts of the United States include among their inhabitants a class of people peculiar unto themselves. The broader valleys and those parts more densely settled embrace as sturdy, hospitable, and wide-awake people as can be found anywhere. But back from the railroad or the beaten track of travel, high up in the narrow defiles of the mountains, where the hills are roughest and rockiest, there collects a class of persons too poverty-stricken to possess a foot of land else-

where, and too shiftless to care to improve their condition. Clannish to a remarkable degree, they live and die, marry and perpetuate their kind, generation after generation, until inertia, lack of ambition, and shiftless contentment characterize the race.

Remote from school, remote from church, out of the track of human thought or activity, their lives are so dull and colorless that the men hardly know when election-day comes round. They have two holidays (and only two) during the

year,—the Fourth of July and Christmas. The girls and women tramp over the hills picking huckleberries in early summer. These they bring to the towns and "swap" for five-cent lawns and cotton-backed ribbons, their Fourth of July finery. The men go to town the week before Christmas, invest their scanty hoard in a jug of whiskey, and take their annual holiday spree. Neither of these things put them in more than transient touch with the outside world.

If they partake little of the new, they retain much of the old. "Mister, we air livin' back in 1776," wittily said one of these old mountaineers, thus showing his superiority over the rest of his kind in that he knew this as a historical date. They retain old customs and old modes of speech. Words that were once a recognized part of the English language, but which we have outgrown as a babe does its swaddling-garments, are still in common use among them. It is this that makes their speech of interest to the student. The dialect that novelists are fond of dishing up to us as mountain language, with its barbarous "gwine" for going, and "tote" for carry, may well be spared; for such dialect is but the mutilation of language. But when they present to us words in their salient strength, words that our grandfathers' grandparents used, but that to us are unknown, they unlock a door of the past and bring vividly before us the power of conservatism.

One of these mountaineers was an important witness in a lawsuit.

"State to the jury the position of the two men when the dispute commenced," said the State's attorney.

"Well," answered the witness, "me an' Tom 'was standin' close to the fence, an' Jim he was fornenst us —"

Here the Court interrupted: "Tell the jury the exact position of defendant. Was he standing by you, behind you, or in front of you?"

The witness's face clouded for a moment, then brightened up as he repeated with an emphasis that he evidently thought made all lucid,—*"Fornenst, your Honor, jest perexactly fornenst us."*

And that was all the information that could be gotten out of him, There was much merriment among the attorneys; but when one of them searched his "Worcester," lo and behold! he found the obsolete word *"fornenst,"* with the definition

"over and against,"—a clear-enough statement of juxtaposition for anyone, so that the rustic in his long-discarded word had chosen a most expressive term.

There was one time a falling out between two of these families. One of the men explained the beginning of the estrangement in this wise:

"Mary Ann, she kept runnin' over to our house all of the time, an' my girl an' her, their tongues never stopped. An' one night me an' my wife had gone to bed, but them girls was jest outside the door, an' nobody could sleep fer 'em. An' I yells out at 'em, says I, 'Stop your glatterin'. If you've got to glatter, go down the road a piece, an' glatter till you can't glatter no longer.' An' Mary Ann got mad, an' she an' none of her folks hain't set foot on our place since."

All unconsciously that illiterate man used the most forcible word possible to describe the annoyance of idle, noisy, empty speech. Yet we look in vain for "glatter" among modern words. It is possibly but a corruption of "chatter," its nearest equivalent, but the latter word is so much the weaker and less expressive that we prefer to think "glatter" its near kinsman from the same idiomatic root. Should this be the case we have an illustration of word-mutation in that while the word has apparently died out in Saxon England it yet lingers in remote corners of the New World, handed down through generations from English emigrant ancestors.

Said one of these mountain girls, in discussing a possible stepfather: "I told Mammy if she married that old lie-abed, I'd go away." That was the first and only time we ever heard that quaint word, but could anything more vividly word-picture consummate laziness?

"I'll lamm you good, if you tech my dog agin," threatens one urchin to another; and there is no doubt of his meaning. Meanwhile his enemy retorts: "Yer must think I'm a cymling-head (squash-head), but you ain't got no cinch on me yit!" After the boys have made their quarrel up, they go off together to have a "skeet" upon the ice,—meaning thereby not to skate, but to enjoy a running slide.

The weary mountain mother reproves her unruly offspring for "scrouging" his younger brother, a self-explanatory word for a crowding push or shove. Dickens, who always kept in touch with the lowly,

uses the same word in "The Old Curiosity Shop," Kit Nubbles is described as bringing his apple-filled handkerchief forcibly down upon a stranger's head for "scrouging" his mother at the circus.

The housewife also milks the "strip-pings" into a "pannikin" or pint cup. The derivation of the word would seem to mean a small pan rather than a cup. She cooks "spuds" (potatoes) when she has them, makes "poor-do" (bread-hash), and now and then "shovey" or fried mush, and spreads "namies" (sorghum) on the children's bread.

Many of the men are shiftless. Never, however, will the masculine head of a family admit that he is lazy. He has the ever-ready excuse that he is feeling "kinder donsie," and that word covers all sins of lassitude with a cloak of charity. When out of temper he growls that everything is "skewjig" about the house, meaning awry; "scraunches down" his food when in a hurry to go hunting; wears his hat rakishly "slaunchways" upon his head whenever he gets intoxicated. When the children stick a sliver into their fingers, the wound "beals," instead of festers, as we would say. Somebody's child gets a grain of corn lodged in its "goozle" or windpipe, while another child chokes on

a "goober," or peanut, that it has swallowed whole. Queerer yet is the sick-room phrase "calling upon Calup."—"I'm powerful glad you've come, Doctor," the worried wife will say, "Jim's been mighty bad off; called upon Calup half a dozen times the last hour"—meaning that the patient has had that many vomiting spells.

When the children ask, "What are you going to make, Ma?" "What's this fer, Ma?" their much-tried parent answers shortly, "That's a layover to catch meddlers," and that usually abashes the youngsters into silence. We once heard a cultured lady use the near-allied expression, "That's a lay-o for meddlers." She had learned the saying when a child from her aged aunt, a native of one of the rural shires of England, and exceedingly tenacious of old English words and expressions. The sense of this curious ironical phrase seems to be a trap or deserved punishment, and is always used as a reproof.

Many more examples might be given. There is a rich field here for the philologist who wishes to trace the effect of local circumscription and absolute conservatism upon our common speech.

PINEVILLE, MO.

LORA S. LA MANCE.

ABOUT DIAMONDS

WHO does not love the diamond, the rarest, purest, and brightest gem on earth, surpassing all other substances in brilliancy, hardness, and beautiful play of colors? There is no other object in the whole realm of nature for which man seeks so eagerly and which he yields so reluctantly as this precious stone, which has great historical and tragical interest connected with it. The desire to possess the diamond has been an incentive to some of the most horrible crimes committed in the history of the civilized world. It has been the subject of negotiation between nations. It has always been regarded as the symbol of rank, power, and wealth; hence it is used freely in royal crowns and other emblems of distinguished birth as well as for personal ornament in fashionable circles. In ancient times the possession of diamonds was considered a royal privilege, but their use nowadays is permitted to all who

can afford them. Perhaps there is no period in the world's history when these gems were used more than at present. Besides serving for personal ornament, the diamond is used as currency, as it is the only article that is at par value all over the world. A quarter of a million dollars' worth of these rare stones can be carried conveniently about one's person, and it is said that a jewelry store can be well stocked for a whole year with a vest-pocketful of them. The diamond is used in engagement-rings because it is the symbol of conjugal fidelity.

There is much doubt regarding the time when diamonds were first used as ornamental stones. The Bible states that the third stone in the breastplate of Aaron, the high priest, was a diamond. Reference to this gem is also made in Ezekiel and Jeremiah. It is recorded that the sin of Judah was written with an iron pen having a diamond point.

For a long time this precious stone was known only to Eastern nations, who thought it was constantly in process of formation. A trade was carried on by the Carthaginians with the Etruscans, who procured the diamonds from Central Africa. The Phœnicians and Syrians were the first nations who used the diamond for jewelry; but it is thought that it was first known to the Syrians, who carried on a trade with the Eastern nations in this rare commodity. The diamond became known to the Greeks about three centuries before Christ. The Romans received their earliest diamonds from Ethiopia, and the first definite mention of the true gem is by Manlius in the first century of the Christian era. The diamond was highly esteemed in the early times of the Roman Empire, but only stones of natural polished surface could have been used, as is proved by the specimens, set in gold, which have come down to us from the Classical period and the Middle Ages.

One would suppose that the diamond was formed from one of the rarest substances in the world; for a long time it was supposed to be rock crystal; but experiment has proved it to be pure carbon, the main constituent of all organic life, either vegetable or animal, as either one of them, when burnt, produces carbon or what is usually called charcoal or soot. We are accustomed to associate all carbon with black. All black is carbon, but all carbon is not black. The only difference between the coal we burn, the graphite used in lead pencils, and the diamond, is that the last-named substance is carbon in the crystallized state, while the first two are carbon in an amorphous condition. How this crystallization has been effected science has so far been unable to tell. Although many theories have been advanced, none have been proved.

A large number of diamonds are white, though a clear, colorless, transparent stone is rarer than might be supposed. Besides white diamonds there are red, blue, green, yellow, brown, black, and pink ones. Heat often changes the color, and after a while the acquired hue becomes permanent. Yellow diamonds perhaps afford the greatest variety of shades. Some of them surpass any other gem of that color. Specimens of canary-colored diamonds are quite common. If the gem has a rose-colored tint it is very valuable, while red tints, surpassing the ruby, and

considered the most beautiful of all precious gems, are exceedingly rare. A few varieties are on record: one weighing ten karats was bought by Emperor Paul, of Russia, for one hundred thousand dollars. A cinnamon or brown stone is undesirable, as it is seldom pure. A black diamond is nearly as scarce as a red one. Blue diamonds rank next to red ones in variety and beauty. Those of a dark blue color, resembling sapphires, are handsome gems, differing only from the sapphire in quality and the beautiful play of colors peculiar to the diamond. The only real blue stones are found in the mines of India. Besides the Bismarck and Hope diamonds there are only two others in the world that are properly called blue diamonds.

The green varieties are not as rare as the blue, black, red, and rose-colored species, yet a grass-green or fine emerald color is scarce. When it does occur it is more brilliant than the finest emerald. There are several varieties of green-tinted diamonds at the Museum of Natural History in Paris, but the best-known specimen is at Dresden, and is considered one of the five paragons of the world among gems.

Diamonds are found in alluvial deposits that are worked for gold; often they are attached to loose pieces of hematite, and sometimes to a conglomerate of quartz and chalcedony cemented by a soft clay. It is not certain in which geological formation the diamond was formed.

Diamonds had long been known in India, Java, Sumatra, and Borneo before they were known in any other country of the world. The region between Cape Comorin and the Bay of Bengal, including the noted mines of Golconda, supplied the entire world with these precious stones until 1727, when they were discovered in Brazil by a Portuguese, who noticed their use as counters by some negroes who were playing cards. They were taken to Europe. At first it was thought they were not genuine, but when carefully examined by experts they were found to be the true article. The discovery produced much excitement in European countries.

In 1829 Humboldt discovered diamonds in the Ural Mountains. A few years later they were found to exist in Rutherford, Connecticut; and subsequently in Manchester, Virginia; Hill County, Georgia; in North Carolina, California, Arizona, Mexico, and Alaska. In 1852 they were discovered in Australia, and in 1867 in

South Africa, where children playing with bright stones led to the discovery of the great South African mines.

There is a legend in Borneo that diamonds are found in the valley of death, and are obtained by throwing down a piece of meat, which is seized by vultures, who, frightened by the diamond-hunters, drop the piece of meat, which is then picked up covered with the precious gems.

There is much expense, labor, and risk connected with diamond-mining, which makes the profit very uncertain. The methods of working the mines are the wet and dry processes. In the early part of the century diamonds were usually found in rivers, or in cavities and water-courses on the summits of mountains. By turning a stream from its natural course the diamonds are found deposited on the gravel. By the process of washing the sands the larger specimens are obtained, after which the pulverized earth is placed in the depositing ground and worked for smaller specimens.

It may not prove uninteresting to give a short description of diamond-mining in Brazil. When the dry season, which lasts from the middle of October until April, has decreased the depth of the river, the waters are diverted at various places in canals, dug for the purpose, so as to leave the bed of the stream dry. The soil of the stream is then dug ten or twelve feet and deposited near the work huts. As long as the dry season lasts the workmen continue to dry the *cascalho*, the name given to the diamondiferous earth. The quantity of diamonds yielded by a given amount of *cascalho* can be ascertained with almost absolute certainty. When the dry season is over the labor of working begins, and that of digging terminates, in consequence of the water brought down by the heavy rains. The washing-huts, which are constructed near the heap of *cascalho*, are provided with long troughs, called *canoes*, which are provided with elevated seats for the overseers, who are always present.

The workmen, who are all negroes, take a mass of diamondiferous earth, enough to fill the trough, and allow a stream of water to flow through it. They continue to stir it up with their hands until the water is clear and the earthy particles are washed away. They then examine the remaining pebbles, one by one. When a diamond is found the signal is given to the

overseer by clapping the hands; the overseer puts it in a vessel filled with water, which hangs in the hut. After the labor of the day is over the stones are weighed and the weight entered in a book. When there is a sufficient quantity they are taken to some large city in the vicinity and sold to dealers. The work of diamond-washing is very hard on the eyesight, therefore children, whose vision is considered keener than adults, are regarded as the best workers. It takes four hundred workmen three months to remove fifty thousand dollars worth of diamonds from a piece of *cascalho*. The work is done by slaves, and, to encourage honesty and industry, a slave who finds a diamond weighing seventeen and a half karats is given his freedom; he is allowed to work on his own account and is crowned with a floral wreath. The lack of half a karat of the required weight has been fatal to the finder's claim.

Notwithstanding the great premiums offered for large stones and the penalties incurred for stealing them, a great number are smuggled by the diggers, who hide them in their hair, in their ears, between their toes, between their teeth, or swallow them. Sometimes they are thrown away in the hope of finding them again after working hours. The finest gems in the market are offered for sale by the smugglers, who secure at least one third of the precious gems in spite of the strictest precautions. These smugglers are usually runaway slaves, who examine the most remote parts of the diamond districts, or steal the stones from the working-house at night; confederates receive the plunder and escape with it. The thieves practice all kinds of tricks, even in the presence of the surveyors. The person who arrests a smuggler is rewarded, while the captive is imprisoned for ten years and his property confiscated.

In purchasing rough diamonds they should be tested by rubbing the stones close to the ear, and listening for the clear, ringing sound produced by genuine stones. This test, however, requires much accuracy.

When diamonds were first discovered in Brazil they were thought to be worthless pebbles until they found their way to Lisbon and Amsterdam, where their real value was recognized. At first the discovery of the South American diamond districts acted like a curse, for as soon as

the Brazilian government found out how valuable they were it took possession of them by force, expelling the original inhabitants and declaring the diamond trade a monopoly and the government its proprietor. It is said that the diamond district was so rich that the gold was abandoned to the slaves as unworthy of being picked up. Children collected grains of gold that lay strewn along the sands after the heavy rains. The stomachs of dead animals were examined, and were frequently found to contain precious gems. It is said that a negro once found a diamond weighing five karats adhering to the roots of a cabbage he had gathered for his dinner.

The amount of this precious commodity found in Brazil exceeded the expectations of those interested in the discovery and supplied the demand of Europe and India. It is estimated that Brazil, during the first century of the discovery of diamonds there, exported sixty million dollars worth of these rare stones. The Brazilian gems are mostly small ones.

The oldest diamond mines known in the world are those of Borneo. As early as 1738 the exportation of diamonds was one of the main commercial pursuits of the Dutch inhabitants, who were the first of the civilized nations to make permanent

settlements there. The mines are situated at the foot of the mountains, and are about thirty feet deep. The largest and best specimens are found in the lowest strata.

The art of diamond cutting and polishing is not so recent as some people are inclined to think. The Phœnicians learned the art of cutting and polishing precious stones from the Assyrians, who diffused it among their colonies; it was also known in India and Great Britain during the Roman period; but we are not certain that the diamond was included among the precious gems of ancient times.

Amsterdam has held the highest rank for many years in the art of cutting and polishing diamonds; several thousand people, mostly of the Jewish faith, being employed in the work. London is the best market for selling diamonds in the rough state. In purchasing the gems their color and the required skill in cutting and polishing them are taken into consideration. Perfectly colorless stones, resembling a drop of pure water,—thus said to be gems "of the first water,"—are of great value. Gold is frequently used in setting the gem, but silver is preferred by some lapidaries, as it adds to its brilliancy.

JESSICA COHEN.

CLEVELAND.

DEATH OF CASTELAR, THE SPANISH STATESMAN

IN THE death of Señor Emilio Castelar Spain loses one of her worthiest sons, who was at once a Republican and a patriot. An opponent of monarchy in general and of the restored dynasty in particular, few public men in Spain have been the nation's truer friends, or shown themselves to be more honest politicians and statesmen than the whilom dictator and president of the Spanish Republic.

Born at Cadiz in 1832, Castelar was but in his sixty-seventh year. He was only twenty-four when he was appointed Professor of Philosophy and Literature at the University of Madrid, and ere he reached his thirty-sixth year he was a member of the Cortes and known far and wide as the most eloquent of parliamentary orators. By this time his democratic proclivities had involved him in an insurrection, and for two years after the rising in 1866 he was an exile in France.

In 1868, when Queen Isabella was de-throned and a Republic was formed under General Prim, the revolutionary enthusiast returned to the land of his birth and stumped Andalusia in the interest of a democratic Republic based upon manhood suffrage. His triumph was such that when Amadeo abdicated he entered the Spanish Cabinet as Minister of Foreign Affairs.

For some months in 1873-74 he was President of the Republic, with dictatorial powers, which enabled him to stamp out the Carlist rising in northern Spain, suppress a communistic mob in Carthage, and effect a reorganization of the army. His period of absolute rule was, however, brief, owing to the monarchical predilections of the nation and the reassembling of the Cortes, which had practically been closed during the period of his dictatorship. When a provisional government

was formed with Marshal Serrano at its head, Castelar retired from office and sought safety in Switzerland.

At the beginning of the year 1875, Alfonso XII, the only son of Isabella, came to the throne; and a year after this the orator returned to Spain and entered the Cortes as deputy for Madrid. By this time his political opinions had become somewhat modified, and much of his leisure was now spent in literary work. He published a number of books on political and economical subjects, some autobiographical sketches and romances, a work on "Old Rome and New Italy," with lives of Byron and Columbus.

During his period of power Castelar showed many of the qualities of a statesman, and the nation, crippled and enfeebled though it had become, began to awaken from its benighted and superstitious condition and to give signs of progress and enlightenment. The restoration to political life was but fitful, however, for corruption, intrigue, and chronic revolution has always held the nation back, while industry has been hindered by dynastic and civil strife, by monarchism, ecclesiastical bigotry, and the multiplicity of the church festivals. Against the domination of the Church Castelar has often lifted his eloquent voice, since to it is due Spain's declension from her old-time national primacy. It is Loyola's jesuitry, he has told us, that has put the Spanish mind in fetters, prescribed what it is to think and believe, and at the same time robbed the people of enduring and self-reliant manhood.

For the United States Castelar had ever a most kindly feeling, and often he longed to visit it as the great land of freedom, as he used to designate this country. How much he thought of our government we knew when, in 1874, during his Presidency of the Spanish government, he interposed in the "Virginus" affair to prevent war between Spain and America, arising out of the filibustering operations of our people in Cuba. Spain, it will be remembered, had captured the "Virginus" in Cuban waters, and the captain of the Spanish vessel had summarily executed some of the more notable American filibusters then on their way to aid the Cuban insurgents. This severity, though bitterly denounced by this country, was upheld and applauded by Spain, and when reparation was demanded Castelar stood forth almost alone among

Spanish ministers to disavow and make amends for the act. For revolution, Radical though he was, he had little inclination, preferring less violent modes of obtaining the redress of political wrongs and the alleviation of the condition of the people. With education and the unchecked use of the suffrage, he thought that nations and communities alike could obtain and preserve their constitutional rights.

Castelar's enthusiasm for a republican system of government is, with his passion for liberty, characteristic of the man. Here is an extract, unearthed in "Literature" the other day from the author's chapters on "The Republican Movement in Europe," which appeared in "Harper's Magazine" during the years 1872-75. The chapters were translated by the Hon. John Hay, now Secretary of State. They contain, as will be seen, a eulogium of the United States:

"As good is to-day inconceivable without liberty, every constitution should recognize as its two primary principles the self-government and independence of peoples, the equality and universal rights of man. The constitution, therefore, which should be the natural organism of this restless modern spirit, excludes the monarchical principle of the aristocratic hierarchy, condemning the existence of lords and slaves. The transformation of all the monarchical states of Europe into republican states is a necessary law whose fulfilment, retarded by the opposition of vested interests, will be at last completely realized through ideas. The monarchy is a relic of barbarous times . . .

"Those who bring forward, to maintain us in reaction, the pretext of the lack of mature capacity among the people to carry on the republic, knowingly commit an error and accept a sophistry. No fruit will ripen except in the vital conditions of warmth, light, and air. No man in chains can move freely. No republic can be founded and consolidated except in the atmosphere of liberty. Rights become in such a manner a second nature with us, that many peoples have held them from ancient times, practised them, and loved them. Will it be necessary, after our long liberal education, to wait, before changing the monarchy into the republic, for the time when the change shall have the universal consent of the citizens? In every age, minorities, armed with the force of an idea, have conquered majorities which have only the force of numbers. The greatest and the most glorious political and social development of our times has been attained, in virtue of the republican form, in the United States of America."

G. M. A.

THE WORLD AND ITS DOINGS : EDITORIAL COMMENT

*Arbitration
and the Peace
Conference*

It is premature to discuss what the Peace Conference, now in session at The Hague, may accomplish. Much interest is unquestionably manifested in the meeting, which is presided over by M. de Staal, Russian ambassador to England. The representation of the nations is large, while the delegates are happily men of great experience as statesmen and diplomats and of commanding influence. From what has so far leaked out, it is understood that the delegations representing England and America are exercising a marked influence at the Conference, and are actively shaping opinion in the weighty subjects under discussion. In the forefront of these topics is placed the question of mediation and arbitration, followed in importance by questions relating to international law and the methods by which war is to be rendered more humane. The next important place in the programme is that taken up by questions that relate to the reduction of armaments — perhaps the least practical of the matters to be influenced by discussion at the Conference. International arbitration, it was known, is one of the subjects to which the nations interested in the Conference looked for hopeful results. The idea of an arbitration tribunal has long been a project dear to the heart of this country, and it would seem that the principle, which is likely to take form as a permanent institution, promises to be accepted by the Conference. The project, if realized, will be a triumph for humane American ideas, and doubtless will do much to secure the peaceful adjustment of international controversies. England is understood to be standing by the proposal, and her leading delegate, Sir Julian Pauncefoot, is said to be coöperating with our representatives at The Hague in framing a statute for the creation of the tribunal and rules for the practical working of the court. It is, of course, not designed to force the tribunal upon nations who have fallen out and are in danger of resorting to war. It is not compulsory, but voluntary, arbitration

that contending Powers are to be invited to take advantage of for the settlement of their differences. The tribunal, however, will have great moral weight, such at least as shall make it almost criminal in a nation to refuse to submit its grievances to it for adjustment before taking up the sword.

Two other schemes for arbitration, besides the more acceptable American one, have, it is understood, been propounded at the Conference, — one emanating from the British and one from the Russian delegates. The objection to the proposal of Russia was its more cautious provisions, which were opposed on the ground that they opened too wide a door of escape to the nation that, while subscribing to the principle, might arbitrarily set it aside as a practical expedient, and one that an autocratic Power might, under certain circumstances, not wish to abide by. The English proposal was merged in that of this country, minor objections to it having been withdrawn for the sake of unanimity and the gain thereby to be secured.

The neutralization of private property at sea in time of war is another topic likely to be favorably reported upon by the Conference. Under this provision, privateering by a nation at war with another would of course be abolished; while private property would be exempt from capture save in the case of contraband of war. Under the action of this agreement, if adopted and made a part of international law, the condition of prisoners of war would be ameliorated, and their exchange and humane treatment would become obligatory upon the nations. It is intended, we believe, that the work of this section of the Conference will considerably ameliorate the existing laws of warfare, and abolish the use of the Dum-Dum and explosive bullets. Some objection (ultimately waived, however) was, we believe, raised by the English representatives against the latter proposal, since explosive or mushrooming bullets were favorably regarded by military men in the case of war with savage tribes, whose fanatical

onrushes could only, it was argued, be arrested by a death-dealing projectile. Humanity, however, won the day, and the proposal is to be among those recommended to the Powers.

The proposal to reduce international armaments, as we have hinted, is not regarded by the Conference as a practical measure. Each nation naturally sees its own defensive strength in its own light, and would be sure to regard adversely any limitation imposed upon a stronger by a weaker Power. Hence disarmament is not likely to gain adherents at the Conference, while, if accepted, only weak would be the authority that would seek to impose it upon the Great Powers. The proposal has a stronger ally in the financial burdens of the nations, as well as in the feeling that seeks relief from taxation for war purposes. We are not of those—for the writer has himself been a soldier—who deem war only and always an evil. But in these days reason has taken the place of Moloch worship, and the romance of war is largely dispelled by the havoc occasioned by the appalling scientific projectiles of destruction. Nor are its prizes—witness the possession of the Philippines—always those that we have cause to rejoice in. We may therefore pray for its mitigation, if not for its abolition, in the interests alike of humanity and civilization.

★

The Crisis in the Transvaal A meeting has been arranged between the stiff-necked ruler of the Boer Republic and Sir Alfred Milner, the High Commissioner of England at Cape Town, to deliberate over the Uitlanders' grievances in the Transvaal. The burden of these grievances is the exclusion from the franchise of the alien population of the South African Republic,—consisting of English, French, Germans, and Americans,—that since the great Afrikander trek has contributed to the opening up and enrichment of the Rand. The perversity of President Krüger and the Pretoria Volksraad in keeping disenfranchised the alien wealth-producers of the Transvaal has, as we stated last month, driven the latter into an insurrectionary mood, and caused an appeal to be made to England as the paramount Power. The condition of affairs, owing to the injustice done to the Uitlanders and the continued procrastination of Mr. Krüger and his reactionary burghers, may any day precipi-

tate a crisis, unless the Conference which is now being held at Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, tends to a pacific solution of the difficulty.

The present resolute intervention of the paramount Power may, however, bring up the whole question of British supremacy and the quashing of England's rights secured her by the London Convention. Much will no doubt depend not only on the tact of the English High Commissioner, but on the attitude of the neighboring Orange Free State, which, like the Transvaal, is composed of colonial Dutch, though of a more progressive and less reactionary type than their kin in the Rand. The Free State is supposed to be friendly to Britain; it at least grants to the English citizen rights which the South African Republic has, from racial motives and from fear of being outvoted in the Volksraad, jealously refused to grant to the Uitlanders. It may, however, be induced to play the Krüger game and aid the Transvaal in setting aside British suzerainty and erecting the Republic into a sovereign state. In such an event the whole of South Africa would at once be in a blaze, though the end of so appalling an occurrence, did it come about, can hardly, in the long run, be adverse to Britain. England—no doubt remembering Majuba Hill—has so far not contemplated the use of force in dealing again with the Boers; but should Mr. Krüger continue intractable the necessity of resorting to force can, we think, hardly fail to arise.

★

Justice to Dreyfus Justice, legal as well as poetic, seems at length about to be done to Captain Dreyfus. France is at last awakening from her frenzied condition and realizing to what depths her military chiefs were sinking the good name and honor of the nation. The men responsible for imputing to Dreyfus the crime of betraying army secrets to foreign Powers are now pretty well known, and the author of the famous *borderneau* is admitted to be, not Dreyfus, but that weak tool of the army chiefs, Major Esterhazy. M. Zola and the Jewish world of France rejoice, for already arrangements have been made to bring the monstrously ill-used Dreyfus back from exile and to retry the case, while Colonel Picquart is to be released, and Colonel du Paty de Clam, who masqueraded as the "veiled lady," takes his place in prison. Nor will the

devoted wife of the victim condemned by secret evidence to life imprisonment on Devil's Island be the least among those whose hearts are made glad by the new turn of affairs in France. She and her counsel are rewarded, as are all those who regarded the Dreyfus conviction as an infamous miscarriage of justice, aggravated tenfold by the inquisitorial examination which the unhappy officer had to undergo and the physical and mental torture he had to endure under a sense of outrage, dishonor, and wrong. The whole business has been a colossal fraud, as well as a shame and disgrace to France. The pity is that Esterhazy, the real culprit, is in hiding in London and cannot be reached by the law. Though this perjured scamp confesses his guilt and reviles his military superiors, whose pitiful instrument he was, he has not the grace to take himself silently out of the way, after the grim fashion of that other victim of the conspiracy, Colonel Henry. Nemesis will no doubt, however, dog his steps, and we may perhaps hear of that ere the drama and the whole diseased business closes. Meanwhile very notable is the reversion of public feeling in France in favor of Dreyfus which follows closely upon the change that has come over the political and official mind. The cry now is "Vive la justice!" instead of "Vive l'armée!" Who shall estimate, however, the mischief that has already been done by the tyrannous prejudice that was permitted to play its senseless part in the early stages of the affair! What is wanted now is not only the vindication of a cruelly wronged man, but some evidence that the French nation bewails its fit of passion and injustice, and, reasserting its right mind, seeks restoration of its good name as a sane and justice-loving people. In the struggle for the truth and right not a little is due to the courageous line taken by the Paris "Figaro," in defying Dreyfus's accusers and daring the authorities by its persistent publication of the most damning as well as awakening testimony.

★

Canada and the Joint High Commission In seeking adjustment of the international differences between the United States and Britain, Canada is blamed for stubbornly resisting a possible settlement. But is this more than Canada's right, where the issue is one not only vital to

her, but which she judges is her just due? In any case, to charge the neighboring colony with stubbornness is to imply that we, her opponent, show a like characteristic in the way of obstruction and resistance. There is here, however, a qualification to be made. In the point contended for we may be equally stiff with our neighbor; but, as we understand the case, this country is willing to refer the matter in dispute to arbitration, while Canada refuses to join with us in doing so. The difference is, we believe, over the Alaskan boundary, one of the knottiest points which diplomacy has been called upon to settle. The general question of the international boundary in Alaska, the Canadians, it is said, are willing to refer to an umpire; the specific matter in dispute—namely, her title to Pyramid Harbor and to a strip of territory on the Lynn Canal, valuable to the Dominion as a means of ready access from the sea to the rich Klondike—she is *not* willing to have either deliberated or questioned. This is the crux of the matter, and the main cause, it is understood, of the failure hitherto of the Joint High Commission to reach a settlement. Other contentious matter, particularly that with regard to lumber regulations and imposts, incited the Commission to take a recess; but the *impasse* in the matter of the Alaskan boundary was the real excuse for deferring action and postponing the report. That this vexed subject will entirely block proceedings and destroy hope of a treaty, we do not believe. Sir Wilfred Laurier, the Canadian Premier, is too much of a Liberal, and too seriously pledged to the cause of reciprocity between the two countries, to take an untenable position or one that would defeat the objects which this country and Britain, with her dependency to the north of us, have earnestly at heart. Some middle way out of the difficulty will, we doubt not, be found that will satisfy all reasonable scruples and leave room for an advantageous and wide-reaching treaty in the interest of all parties. As we have said before, in discussing the matter in these pages, it is a misfortune that the Commission was called upon to deal in the lump with so many delicate questions that have long been the cause of international friction. It would obviously have been better to have dealt with a few causes of difference at a time, rather than have placed in peril the

adjustment of some in the attempt at one Conference to settle all.

★

A Royalist Out-break in France It is always disappointing to look to France for steadiness, that true test of national character. We have seen into what vortexes of frenzy she has been cast by the Dreyfus affair, and even the return of a simple explorer like Marchand has turned the heads of the people and driven them wild with a delirious enthusiasm. At one time the nation seems to be the dupe of some unprincipled adventurer, at another she becomes the prey of her ill-regulated ambitions. It would be trite to say that she has never lived down the lawless madness of the Revolution, and never got the fever out of her blood that raged during that infamous era in her annals. To-day she is once more in the throes of political upheaval, which menaces the stability of the Republic and makes her friends dread what the morrow will bring forth. The new explosion occurred at the races at Auteuil, on Sunday, the 4th of June, while the chief executive of the nation and his party were present. The offensive demonstration was not a socialistic but a royalist one, though of the most foolish and inconsequential character. It was directed against the present government of the Republic, and especially at President Loubet, whom the revolutionary society hot-heads desire to depose or force from his high office. The originators of the trouble were a band of young royalist sympathizers, acting in concert with the anti-Semites, and with what is known as the "League of Patriots," who seek the restoration of the Empire and the dominance of the French Army. Among the leaders in the affray were Count Christiani, who had the hardihood to make a personal assault upon President Loubet, Count de Dion, Count de Castellane, Count D'Assy, a son of Count de Mun, and other sprigs of French aristocracy—all of them royalty idolators and incense-burners at the altar of the Army. The affair had a lame issue so far as the conspirators were concerned, for most of the patrician partisans of royalty found themselves opposed by the sane populace and were speedily handed over to the ignoble custody of the police. About one hundred and fifty arrests were made, which has created a panic in high social circles in Paris.

The following day (Monday) there was

a stormy sitting in the Chamber of Deputies, when it became known that the President and his Cabinet had determined to proceed against the traitors of the Republic, and at the same time to prosecute those who are concerned in the Dreyfus and Déroulède affairs. These and other disciplinary measures of the government were happily endorsed by the majority of the Chamber, though to what length the army *claqueurs* will proceed in their hostility to the present Republican régime it is futile to conjecture. A recurrence of the royalist outbreak is not unlikely, especially if the army can put forward "a man on horseback," with courage to strike a blow for the Empire, and popular enough to become the hero of the hour.

★

Germany Adds to Her Colonial Possessions

Germany has just gratified her ambition for colonial extensions of empire by purchasing from Spain the remaining islands in the South Pacific which have until now been under Spanish sovereignty. These include the Caroline, Pelew, and Ladrone or Mariana groups, the island of Guam excepted, which was lately taken possession of by the United States as a coaling-station. The islands adjoin the Marshall group, already the possession of Germany, and all lie between the Hawaiian and the Philippine archipelagoes. The price of the purchase is understood to be 25,000,000 pesetas, or \$5,000,000,—Spain receiving some tariff advantages in addition to the money value. The islands are partly of coral and partly of volcanic origin, are densely wooded, and have a rich and well-watered soil, capable of raising cotton, sugar, rice, maize, tobacco, besides yams, cocoanuts, etc. The population of the several groups, roughly estimated to exceed 40,000, belongs to the brown Polynesian stock, with an admixture of Spanish blood. The advantages of the transfer of these islands, 600 English square miles in area, to a strong colonizing and trading Power like Germany, will be apparent; while with the United States and England as neighbors in the Pacific the character of the administration and protection given to the region will be greatly raised.

In Germany some exception is taken to the cession of the islands by socialists in the Reichstag, but this will little affect the Berlin Ministry of Foreign Affairs, particularly if consent to the transfer is given

by the Spanish Cortes. Here and in England the acquisition by Germany is favorably regarded. The importance of the transaction lies in the benefit Spain will gain, apart from the monetary consideration, in making a firm friend of the German nation. American interests are not necessarily, however, menaced in this; nor need we be concerned over the extension of German sovereignty in the Pacific, save as it introduces in new fields an active commercial rival. Diplomatically considered, the bargain and sale extends the area of cordial feeling and helpful co-operation in which Germany and Anglo-Saxondom are interested, and so ought to be hailed with approval.

★

Renewing Relations with Spain

The reception at Washington the other day, by President McKinley, of the Duke d'Arcos, the newly accredited Minister of Spain to the United States, marks officially the resumption of diplomatic relations with Madrid. The two countries are friends again — perhaps all the better friends for the brief interruption of last year in the amity which had long existed between the two nations. The interrupted relations this country at least has had little reason to regret, so far as victory over an enemy is concerned and considering the prestige gained by our military and naval achievements. Nor is Spain, in a sense, the worse off for the loss of her colonies and the stoppage of the drain of men and money which their possession and administration has cost her. True, she has lost old-time possessions, the ownership of which connected her historically with a proud period of world-mastery; but which have long been a drag and a detriment to her, both morally and economically. Freed from them, and from those she has happily just sold to Germany, she is now in a position to recover her political and economic health, and to turn the attention of her sons to the rich inheritance she possesses in the peninsula of southern Europe, which, as all know, is most inadequately and indifferently developed. For the ancient nation one epoch closes and a new and better one opens; and though sentimentally she may sigh for her old colonial domain and recall with fond regret the era of the great maritime supremacy which gilds her annals, she will do well to look hopefully on the new day that has dawned

for her and take heart of grace for the tasks that lie invitingly before her. In the Iberian peninsula — almost all that is left to her of her once mighty possessions — she has, if she will see it, not only the fair and ample home of the race, but a field of richest promise for the industry and enterprise of her sons. Shorn of her colonies, she may well now lay aside the ambitions as well as the entanglements of empire and turn to the practical, if prosaic, duty of cultivating the long-neglected native soil. There may not at first be glory in this, but there will be more reward than she would reap from extensions of empire, which she never had the art of governing, and from the conquest of subject races, contact with which has not only unnerved her arm but has infected her national life with poison. Unlike the French, the Spaniards, we imagine, have no long memory for humiliations. They should therefore get quickly over the loss of their fleets, while they ought to recognize that the lopping off of their colonies, like those of Central and South America, is both politically and industrially a blessing in disguise. In renewing relations with the United States, Spain need hardly be reminded that this country is sincere in its desire to blot out the memory of the recent estrangement, and that with the reinstating of peace it harbors no resentments.

★

The Race for the Speakership Among the few possible candidates for the Speakership of Congress, as successor to the Hon. T. B. Reed, it would appear that General D. B. Henderson, of Iowa, stands the best chance of being elected. That he distances all other rivals for the post proves that he has qualifications, actual and potential, for the office to which he aspires in the popular branch of Congress. Though a Scotchman by birth, he is a good American, has an honorable war record, and a political reputation in the national legislature gained during sixteen years in Congress. Besides his legislative standing, he is a man of weight and influence in his own State, a sound lawyer, a broad-minded man of affairs, and popular with his fellows. The support he is receiving over the country from State caucuses augurs well for his election, as it vouches for the General's official qualifications and marks the attachment and admiring fervor of his many personal friends. A gratify-

ing feature in General Henderson's candidacy is the unanimity in the caucuses and the absence of sectional feeling in deliberating on the best man. Already the party vote in twelve of the most influential States, including New York and Massachusetts, practically decides the issue in favor of the Iowan's nomination. Though understood to be an anti-imperialist, General Henderson supports the McKinley Administration, and with his party is sound on currency and financial questions. Less autocratic and more genial than the late Speaker, General Henderson bids fair to receive generous support from both sides of the House in the LVith Congress and to make a good record for himself in directing its legislation.

★

*Affairs in
England*

England, in addition to her home controversies in Parliament and the Church, and having also to keep her eyes on what is transpiring at The Hague, at present has her hands full of imperial problems. Hardly were the ministerial banquets over, which were given in honor of the sovereign's eightieth birthday, when the Cabinet was called upon to deal with a rather menacing phase of the Transvaal imbroglio. This was occasioned by the reported failure of Sir Alfred Milner to induce President Krüger to make concessions in the Boer republic to the disenfranchised Uitlanders. If the report be true, the situation will become grave indeed in England, since much was hoped from the conference at Bloemfontein between the Boer President and the British High Commissioner in South Africa; and if the hope is frustrated, there will, as we have said elsewhere in these pages, be likelihood of war. The Premier's well-known peace predilections, added to those of the sovereign, seem the only bar to that unhappy outlook.

Another perplexing matter which Lord Salisbury's Government has at the moment on its hands is the adjustment of the Alaskan boundary between the United States and Canada. This is a problem which seems to defy diplomatic solution, and, despite Mr. Choate's genial presence in London, is likely to cause grave complications between the two countries. On this side the line Canada is angrily blamed for causing the Joint High Commission's labors to miscarry and for the deadlock

that has ensued. A way out of the difficulty lies in referring the view contended for by the Canadian Government to special and separate tribunals, and in the meantime to fall back upon a *modus vivendi*—some working provisional boundary—pending arbitration. The matter will doubtless be adjusted when Sir Julian Pauncefote is set at liberty by the close of the Peace Conference at The Hague. Another cause of uneasiness in England is the advancing strides of the bubonic plague, which has reached the Levant and threatens to extend its ravages over Europe. Still another cause is the unfortunate economic condition of the West Indian colony of Jamaica. The injury to the sugar industry of the island, occasioned by the large production and improved methods of manufacture elsewhere, has for some time troubled the Colonial Office and precipitated a crisis in the colony, which to pay its way has had to face heavy additions to the local tariff. Hope, however, is looked for from the royal commission which the Imperial Government has appointed with the view of bringing relief to the colony.

The sea of local politics has been greatly ruffled of late by the hostilities of the rival Liberal leaders, Sir William Vernon Harcourt and Lord Rosebery. The two men, though calling themselves Liberals, are at the opposite poles of political thought, the one being an out-and-out Imperialist, while the other is a "Little Englander," a Radical, and a Gladstonian Home Ruler. Both are able men, but Rosebery has the advantage of having the younger Liberals and—as we would say on this side—the Expansionists with him; though we cannot say that he is discreet in satirizing the Parliamentary Liberalism of his older and somewhat testy rival. Mr. John Morley, another Liberal, though of the doctrinaire type, has in the past few days been adding to the political ferment. As a Gladstonian he not only opposes imperialism, but also disapproves of the government's Egyptian policy. Holding these views, Mr. Morley took occasion, when the grant of £30,000 to Lord Kitchener came up in Parliament, to denounce the payment of the money, justifying his opposition on the ground that the conqueror of the Derivishes had desecrated the Mahdi's tomb and mutilated his remains at Khartum. Notwithstanding the indignant protest, for which there is not a little to be said, though

the disinterment and scattering of the Mahdi's remains were necessary to the pacification of the Sudan, the appropriation was passed and the thanks of both Houses were accorded to the Sirdar.

★

The Philippine Commission and the Fighting in Luzon

It would seem a delicate business to keep from clashing the military and the civil interests at Manila entrusted with the pacification of the Philippines. Nor can it be easy for the authorities at Washington to take and maintain an undeflected line of action while having, in a measure, to shape and direct the military and naval operations at the islands, and at the same time to angle for peace through our own commissioners and the native envoys of Aguinaldo. The difficulty in maintaining a just balance is seen in the alternate blowing hot and cold in the prosecution of the war, and in the conflicting reports given out in regard to its duration. There is little doubt that we are far from seeing the end of the conflict, and, if we may trust the statements of officers who have returned from the Philippines, that issue, however desirable on all scores, is as yet a remote one. To subjugate the Filipinos, well-informed judges, indeed, tell us that 50,000 additional soldiers will have to be sent to Manila. At present the rainy season, which has now set in, interferes with the operations of the troops, while it increases the sick list, already abnormally heavy, and seriously weakens the fighting strength. Not a few of the volunteer regiments, on whom the burden of the war has fallen heavily, are moreover getting restive and demanding to be relieved. This is only their due, as they have had a most arduous campaign and borne uncomplainingly grievous discomforts. We are glad to be assured that, contrary to certain reports, they have not disgraced the name of an American soldier by atrocities in the island, which, if indulged in, would have lowered them to the level of the Tagals, who have only too well copied the inhuman methods of the extruded Spaniards. Prof. Worcester, a member of the Philippine Commission, who had inquired on the spot into the truth or falsity of these charges, finds them pure inventions and without any foundation whatever. We could wish that the same might be said of the insurgents, whose methods of warfare are alike brutal and treacher-

ous. So utterly devilish appears to be the native character, as exhibited in the fighting, that even the Red Cross badge or the white flag of a non-combatant envoy is no protection on the field; while it is said that among the natives is a secret brotherhood or Ku-Klux organization, known as the Kapunans, whose designs include the extermination of every foreigner, or the resort to such anarchic plots as will incontinently drive them from the country. This is part of the cost of fighting barbarians and of giving heed to the mandates of Destiny and the allurements of the gospel of war.

★

The Philippine Campaign and the Attitude of the Nation

The pacification of the Philippines does not proceed as fast or with such satisfactory results as either the Washington Administration or the country naturally expected or desired. The order to "smash" the Malayan "fuzzy-wuzzy"—to adopt Mr. Kipling's picturesque phrase in the mouth of the British Tommy Atkins in the Sudan—has not been carried out by the American troops in Luzon (small blame to them!) with that direct, decisive, and dramatic despatch which characterized Lord Kitchener's subjugation of the Dervish warriors of the Mahdi. Had it been possible, all would like to have seen a result comparable with that great feat of arms. We could and did match it at sea; but with the army which invaded the Philippines the conditions were altogether different.

The undertaking, which from the first we ventured to say was as serious as well as an inexpedient and impolitic one, has proved, from the nature of the country and the climate in which our forces have had to operate, as well as from the half-savage character of the islanders, both protracted and difficult. We say this, however, in no spirit of smug self-complacency, in the "I told you so" sense, still less in the unpatriotic spirit of anti-imperial rejoicing. It is true, we held that we should have departed from Manila when the work that took Dewey there was promptly and efficiently done. We were there not wildly seeking empire, or for the mere sake of glory and gunpowder. At that time, at least, we did not wish to fasten upon our shoulders the "white man's burden," or to throw off, with feverish and undemocratic haste, the restraints that have set traditional bounds

to the territory and the policy of the New World Republic.

For holding these opinions it has never occurred to us to apologize, nor do we see reason to-day for doing so because Mr. McKinley's Administration then took another and a contrary line, and perplexity and calamity have come of it. This, in brief, is the answer to those who in this matter would fasten the charge of something like treason upon the sober-minded and reflecting half of the nation. The responsibility for the course pursued is one that rests with our rulers and their advisers, and is not to be got rid of by impeaching either the judgment or the patriotism of the conservative portion, at least, of the people.

With this statement, so far as SELF CULTURE and its conductors are concerned, we leave the case; and, as becomes us and all right-minded and non-partisan citizens, we take the position and continue to assume the rôle, not of intractable and implacable censors, but of fair-minded, reasonable, and, we trust, helpful reviewers of current events and exponents of public opinion. The national government has taken its own line, and it is one which, however unhappily assumed or foolishly drifted into, both it and the country have for the present to stand by and endeavor to help along to the best possible issue. It is a course to which the nation is now—tentatively at least—committed, and in the working out of which its self-respect and honor are involved.

For the present the Philippines are part of the national domain, and it is the duty of the people to treat it as such, and to maintain in it its authority, as it is that of the military arm of the nation, called upon to deal with local rebellion, to reduce it to subjection, and that as speedily and as effectively as possible. This is the undertaking with which we have falteringly at home, but steadily and pluckily in the Philippines, been wrestling. Until the task is accomplished—and obviously it is no mere military junketing—it behoves us loyally to support it, and with all the earnest, strenuous purpose characteristic of our race. We are not sure that the news-censorship, either at Manila or at Washington, which often and from day to day conceals rather than discloses the real truth of the situation, is a wise procedure on the part of the authorities; it has as little, it seems to us, to commend

it as the lying reports of American losses and discomfiture industriously circulated among the insurgents at the bidding of the unscrupulous Aguinaldo. But not less objectionable, we submit, is the division among our people, at this critical period in the struggle, with reference to the war, which gives encouragement to the enemy and misleads them as to our inflexible determination to suppress the rebellion and assert over the Philippine possessions the national authority of this country.

Mr. Charles Francis Adams, himself a strong anti-imperialist, has recently taken pretty much this view, in his letter to the Anti-Expansion League, of Boston, in which he excuses himself for non-attendance at a meeting to discuss "the way out" of the Philippine entanglement. In this letter he frankly states that "the way out is not clear, and is rapidly growing less so." Four months ago, he observes, the situation admitted of easy shaping; but now he thinks the only thing to be done is to acquiesce in the course being shaped for us in the Philippines, eliminating as far as possible the evils likely to attach to it under our party spoils system. Not having taken the line which was the true American one, he sees nothing else for it now but to pursue the course we have weakly entered upon—analogous to that of Great Britain in Egypt—namely, a protectorate reduced to the minimum of interference by this country.

For conscientious opinion in regard to expansion, on whatever side it lies, we have the utmost respect; but the peril at present is undoubtedly great in this matter, lest it become a mere party affair instead of a national issue; while divided opinion, which certainly finds its way, and at once, to the Tagals, leads to a half-hearted support of the war and incites the enemy contumaciously to hold out for better terms, or, as they hope, even for the American abandonment of the struggle. To any one who thinks, it must be clear that, as things are, we cannot pause now; nor in the interests of humanity and civilization can we afford to turn aside from the grim duty that has been imposed upon the nation. Let the civil commission at the Philippines accomplish what it may, the strong arm must neither be stayed nor weakened if law and order in the islands are to be asserted and the reign quelled—the evil legacy of Spanish dominion—of defiant lawlessness and anarchy.

CORRESPONDENCE

WAGES AND THE PRICE QUESTION

To the Editor of SELF CULTURE:

NOT wishing to be placed in a false position I am compelled to ask space for a brief reply to Prof. Laughlin's rejoinder to my unpublished criticism of his recent article "Socialism in the Price Question."

To have fully stated my position would have required the presentation of my entire article, and therefore, however fair may have been Prof. Laughlin's intention, it was impossible, in his brief rejoinder, to avoid conveying to many readers a false impression of the purpose of my criticism. That purpose was not the upholding of the free-silver contention, for that I have opposed as strenuously as has Prof. Laughlin. It is true that I took part in the discussion at the Monetary Congress at Omaha at the request of free-silver advocates, but this was in the interest of truth and to expose the fallacious character of official wage statistics quoted as conclusive proof of the improved condition of wage-earners. At that time I expressed my opinion that Mr. Atkinson, with whom I may include Prof. Laughlin, had done more to convince wage-earners of the desirability of free coinage than any avowed advocate of that policy.

The free-silver movement has been essentially a protest against existing conditions by those who misapprehend the real causes of these conditions, and it cannot be met by the presentation of juggled statistics to prove that the conditions complained of do not exist. Wage-earners know from bitter experience that their condition is not improving, but growing constantly more desperate. Such arguments as those of Prof. Laughlin and Mr. Atkinson but excite their animosity against those who they are led to believe intentionally misrepresent their condition. The only ones deceived by such arguments are these gentlemen themselves, and those who like them have but limited opportunity for observation.

Prof. Laughlin, in his rejoinder, not only fails to present my argument, but misquotes me in important particulars. Thus I am represented as pointing out that gold has probably not changed relatively to rents. On the contrary I maintained that in its relation to land, and to monopoly franchises conferring the use and control of land, the purchase power of gold had greatly decreased. What I attempted to point out was that, all things considered, there was no evidence of the increased purchase power of gold. My criticism was directed equally against advocates of free coinage and against

advocates of the gold standard who attempt a solution of the price question without considering the most important factor of the problem, namely, the enormous increase of monopoly values.

In his original article Prof. Laughlin declares:

"The facts, in short, were dead against comparisons between the masses of business transactions and the quantity of gold as a means of explaining the level of prices."

Yet the business transactions compared are the purchase and sale of commodities only. Are not the purchase and sale of land and franchises, and the payment of rent, business transactions? And are we to ignore the greatly increased value of the most important species of property, and, because there has been a fall in the prices of commodities merely, conclude that there has been a fall in the level of prices and that gold has increased in value? Is not the value or purchase power of money determined by what it will exchange for, not only in commodities, but in everything which it is used to purchase?

While taking quantity theorists to task for the omission of powerful factors in the problem, Prof. Laughlin declares my argument as to the land factor aside from any point connected with his article. Yet one of the points was prices, and in his rejoinder he asserts:

"Anything which changes either term of the price ratio will affect prices. Change either (1) the demand for, or (2) the supply of gold, and either (3) increase or (4) diminish the cost of obtaining goods, and prices will be affected."

Does not an increase in the value of land and in rents increase the demand for gold, and does it not also affect the cost of obtaining goods? Prof. Laughlin says also:

"His figures showing the great increase in the value of land prove only that some land has been thus greatly enhanced in value."

On the contrary my figures from the census, the correctness of which he does not challenge, show that land as a whole has enormously increased in value. It is true that I also showed but a small increase in the value of agricultural land in the last census decade, and that the principal increase was in business centres; but this does not alter the fact of an enormous increase in the value of land as a whole, and in the demand for money in its purchase and in the payment of rent.

"But" (declares Prof. Laughlin) "the city property used for business is not the kind which keeps the laborers' food high, nor prevents him from improving his position." Space will not permit an adequate discussion of this assertion,

but I maintain that this is precisely the kind of property the increased value of which does deny the laborer opportunity for employment and increase his living expenses. Because of the high value of land in business centres wage-earners are compelled, every day they work, to pay from ten to twenty cents of their wages in car fare to enable them to reach their places of residence where rents are less. To thousands of wage-earners this alone amounts to ten per cent of their earnings. While paying these car fares and the rent of the land on which they live, as consumers, they also pay the rent of the business sites on which the goods they purchase are produced or sold. The landlord is in the receipt of an enormously increased amount of rent, and the value of land, and of franchises conferring the use of land, constitutes the larger proportion of the property of the country. Do these values represent anything but the value of the power enjoyed by nonproducers to appropriate the wealth produced by others?

Admitting the excellence of my work on wage statistics, which has been but a demonstration of the fallacious character of official wage statistics, Prof. Laughlin declares that he still believes that there is good ground for holding that wages have risen. It is undoubtedly true, as Prof. Laughlin asserts, that more gold is given for a day's labor than in 1850; but this assertion is but an evasion of the issue. There has been no complaint that there has been no increase in wages since 1850, and this I have not undertaken to maintain, as might be inferred from Prof. Laughlin's rejoinder.

The complaint is, that notwithstanding the enormous increased productivity of labor in recent years wages have not increased, but have actually decreased. As proof of this I refer the Professor to the data of the Aldrich report, which, while showing a very consider-

able increase in wages as measured in gold prior to 1872, indicate an actual decrease since that period.

It is only by the most palpable juggling of figures that Prof. Falkner, the statistician of the Aldrich report, has been able, in his summary, to show a slight increase in the gold value of wages from 1872 to 1891. This is simply a question of mathematics, and any person capable of correctly computing averages may, on investigation, discover the true character of the statistics which our official statisticians are employed to falsify.

If we consider annual earnings, the decrease in recent years is unquestionably most decided. This the writer, as an employer of labor and as a wage-earner, knows from observation and experience of thirty-five years.

H. L. BLISS.

CHICAGO.

In reference to the foregoing (a proof of which was submitted to Prof. Laughlin), the latter writes:

"When writing a brief rejoinder to several papers sent to me, my quotations were made on the assumption that the papers would appear with my reply. Hence a possible injustice to the meaning of the writers may have been unwittingly committed by the attempt to condense my points. I am glad Mr. Bliss has given his views above. They are in the interest of the truth.

"In one respect, I beg to object to his suggestion that an 'increase in the value of land and in rents increases the demand for gold.' It does not at all follow, in my judgment, that more gold will, as a consequence of high land values, be used as a medium of exchange and hence increase the demand for gold."

CHICAGO.

J. LAURENCE LAUGHLIN.

WILL the Editor of SELF CULTURE inform me of what use are the hose pipes found on the upper floors of lofty buildings? Is there sufficient pressure in the mains of our large cities to carry water to the top of a twenty-story structure?

AN important test has recently been made by the New York Fire Department. There has long been a feeling of insecurity about the tall office buildings commonly called "sky-scrapers," it having been supposed impossible for firemen to throw water to more than one third or one half of their height. The St. Paul Building, on the corner of Broadway and Ann Street, New York, is 317 feet (twenty-five stories) in height. During its construction a six-inch stand-pipe system, extending from the basement to the top story, and having hose connections on every floor, was installed; and the Fire Department recently determined to ascertain the capacity of the system for the building's own protection and that of the many

other edifices commanded by the St. Paul's lofty roof. A steam fire-engine, stationed at a fire-plug across the street, was connected by a Siamese coupler with the stand-pipe, and with 180 pounds pressure forced the water to the roof of the building, whence, with a nozzle pressure of 60 pounds, the stream was thrown across St. Paul's Church, and beyond, to a distance of 250 feet.

Although the test was incomplete, owing to the bursting of a defective coupling in the stand-pipe, the fact has been established that with flawless pipe and couplings 260 gallons of water a minute could be raised to over 300 feet vertically and thence thrown laterally 250 feet, and this with a low pressure. Chief Bonner, late of the New York Fire Department, considers that under proper conditions and with 300 pounds engine pressure, it would be possible to attain a height of from 500 to 550 feet,—surely sufficient to cover all extensions of building height likely to occur for the next ten years. Some further experiments have tended to confirm this opinion.

WOMAN AND THE HOME

WHAT IS HOSPITALITY?

SHOULD home be "mere selfish shelter for two mated folk?" or should hospitality consist in the giving of duty-dinners and the holding of "afternoons" to repay similar social favors? There is none who will be willing to answer "Yes" to such questions, but there are very many who practically limit home and hospitality to these things. We have many reasons for congratulating ourselves upon our Anglo-Saxon antecedents and traditions, and a few reasons for regretting them. One of the latter is the idea that a man's home is his castle, and that whoever enters it must cry: "What ho! Within there!" and await the lowering of the drawbridge. So it comes about that many of the best and most gracious of persons, who are so unfortunate as to be without home or family, remain in boarding-house limbo because they never have the courage to challenge the warders of the households. It is true, however, that America has not kept quite so greedy a hold upon its seclusion as has England. At least, in the earlier stages of our rapidly developing civilization, America has shown genuine hospitality, and thereby has aroused the contempt of many Englishmen—even of those who have profited by this spirit of broad friendliness. Kipling has the sneer direct for it. Speaking of the American, he says:

*His easy unswept hearth he lends
From Labrador to Guadalupe;
Till, elbow'd out by sloven friends,
He camps, at sufrance, on the stoop.*

But indeed this generosity is confined largely to the edge of things, to what may be termed the border States. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, home is used as a convenience or is looked upon with selfish pride. It is not often considered as a sacred charge to use for God and for humanity.

Of course women will be ready to retort that they are not prepared to make eleemosynary institutions out of their homes, and that they believe in the organization of charities and the scientific exercise of their benevolences, etc. They contribute to holiday dinners at hospitals, act on boards for half-orphan asylums, and consent to have their names printed among the vice-presidents of homes for crippled children. No doubt. But it is not to the lame, the blind, and the halt that the exercise of hospitality is particularly recommended. The State looks after such in quite a punctilious manner and makes neat statistical tables about them. Those

for whom hospitality is besought are not likely to come under the perceiving eye of the statistician except in census-taking years. They are, in fact, the unattached.

To a person who has never been one of the unattached, but who has enjoyed popularity at her home, at the summer resort, at school, on shipboard, abroad, at church, and at the theatre; who is greeted with hand-shakings and cries of welcome wherever she goes,—the loneliness of the unknown person is as unguessed a thing as is the vastness of the heaven to one who has never looked through a telescope.

Did you never notice how lack-lustre that young man looks who keeps books in your husband's office, and how unanticipatory is the expression of the young woman who does the typewriting? Can you blame these two poor unattached if, when evening comes around, seeking out each other in their silence and abjectness, they lunch together at the restaurant, and confide in each other and comfort each other, and are betrayed into unconventionalities which offend you? If they had been asked up to your drawing-room, madam, they would not have been forced to be unconventional, and it is just as likely as not you would have found them better company than many of the pretentious folk who rustle and strut into your presence on your day at home. There is no use in saying that it is not practical to be intimate with people of that sort—meaning employees—because you remember very well what your grandfather and your father were before you. But, tut, tut! Let us not be disagreeable.

The truth is, no one can escape the law of equalization. If you have the privileges of a home you are under moral contract to assume its responsibilities, and just where those end no one but yourself can decide. The question is, Does the woman next door need you? Who is that young man who goes twice a day, and twice only, to the fly-haunted eating-house next the grocery where you trade? You say you do not know how to get acquainted with these people? Pshaw! Why, then, are you a woman, and what has become of that inimitable tact which enables you to make the acquaintance of the persons whom it will benefit or pleasure you to know?

The most remarkable case of bravery I have known on the part of the unattached was shown by a certain beautiful and very

young lady. An unfortunate marriage had left her estranged from those who had loved her in childhood, and she had used the one talent of which she was possessed and had gone upon the stage. It was not a life which she enjoyed, excepting during the hours of actual participation in the drama. The nomadic existence, the bohemian character of her associates, the hotels, the aimless vacations, and all the rest of it, were distasteful to her. The end of one dramatic season found her in New York with enough money in her purse to carry her comfortably through the summer months. But though she knew many persons in the great city, she was acquainted with none who lived a quiet homelike existence. She had a fearful nostalgia upon her for peace, for affection—for Home! So desperately did she desire this that she decided to make one determined effort for it. Walking along a certain tidy cross street, lined on both sides with three-story red-brick houses, she marched up to one and rang the door bell. A pretty maid answered. She asked for her mistress. The mistress came—gray-headed, sweet-featured, rather domestic-looking. The actress looked her over, noted the white apron, the little cap, the inquiring motherly eyes, and decided that God had guided her footsteps. So she asked for a home—she had the presumption to request that the lady like her.

"I do not belong to any one," she said. "And if some one does not consent to let me belong to her I think I shall die!"

If she had been ugly, or awkward, or loud—and she might have been all these things and still have been entitled to pity—she probably would have been turned adrift as an adventuress. But it chanced that her ancestors had made her a gift of fine manners and enriched her with an inheritance of dignity and grace. So the lady believed her and asked her in, and they lived together in much happiness that summer and other summers.

But here is a story of quite another sort. There was once a woman who had a pleasant home. Also she enjoyed the acquaintance of many charming folk, most of whom wrote, or painted, or made good music, or had some other signal recommendation. Quite accidentally she chanced to make the acquaintance of a certain exuberant creature who was just ripening into womanhood. This girl had talent of so high an order, and a nature so reckless, so eager, that the woman almost decided to call her a genius. She good-naturedly ventured to ask the girl to her home and to introduce her to some of her friends. But she was a busy woman, and, though she did not seem to be so, really rather a selfish one. So she had not the patience—and thought she had not the time—to help the girl out of her astounding self-consciousness, nor to explain away her *gaucheries*, nor bear with her assertive cleverness, nor condone her almost impertinent beauty, and so she let her go. The

rest of the story isn't pleasant and may be left to the imagination. Of course a girl like that had to be amused some way. She had to laugh at something. She had to have applause somewhere. And she got all these things—the amusement, the laughter, the applause! But the lady with the pleasant home has made the acquaintance of a horrid rodent with sharp teeth which is called Remorse, and at night he comes out now and then, timidly, and gnaws at the very best furniture in her self-complaisant heart. Because she knows that if she had remembered early and late that her home was a trust, God would have no reason to exercise his divine mercy on behalf of that exuberant young creature who *had* to laugh!

The fact that hospitality is often abused is no argument at all against the moral obligation entailed by the possession of a home. All good things are abused—the evil in the world must touch everything. Confidence is betrayed now and then; favors are forgotten. But then, the higher amenities are not exercised with the expectation of any reward. Of course it is irritating to be poniarded with steel-cold indifference by some one who has been fed on your bread and salt, but after all, the hurt is only skin deep. Apropos of this, I am minded of a certain gentleman who, being graduated from Yale, went out to Omaha to live. One day an old classmate walked into the office and said that he was *en route* from San Francisco to his home in New York, and that his wife was ill at the hotel. The Omaha man was busy, but he put his work aside, got a carriage, and took his old classmate and his wife to his home, called his own physician, and labored in every way to offer practical comfort. The result was that in twenty-four hours his guests were able to proceed upon their way. A year later the Omaha man went to New York, and as a matter of course called upon his friend. His card was taken in, but he was asked to wait, which he did, for three quarters of an hour. Then he was admitted. The New York man was seated at his desk, and he continued to write for a perceptible moment after the Western man entered. Then he wheeled about in his chair and said:

"How do you do, Jones? What can I do for you?"

The office boy had placed a chair, but the Omaha man did not take it.

"Thank you," he said quietly, "but you can do nothing. I do not wish to be accommodated at your bankers; I am put up at the club; I need no letters of introduction; I do not wish to be told how to find the theatre. Good day."

"Eh? What?" gasped the other man. "You needn't be so sharp. You see, in the city we are so confoundedly busy——"

"Not busier than in other cities, I think. But no apology is necessary. I simply blundered. I had forgotten that the same code does not exist here and in the West."

And while he does not really believe the last, he complains, as do most Westerners and Southerners, that, take it for all in all, the claims of true hospitality are not so readily recognized in the East as they are elsewhere in this country.

One of the most serious forms of inhospitality may be denominated intellectual inhospitality. It exists in homes where ideas are put above material things—that is to say, in the finest homes in the land. It is particularly prevalent among young men and women who, leaving college full of ideals, and marrying and setting up house together, endeavor to keep their lives up to a certain standard. These young people guard their hearthstone as the angels with the flaming swords guarded Eden. They are afraid lest any of a dissenting view from theirs shall enter and defile their stream of pure ideality; or lest their complaisant dogmatism may be impertinently arrested by a conflicting argument. If these young folk read Herbert Spencer, and are rationalistic and devoted to a scientific point of view, they may object to a call from a ritualist or a Theosophist or a Christian Scientist. The reasoning of these people is wrong—they are therefore stupid or wicked. The folk next door have mistaken ideas of commercial integrity. They speculate with stocks and bonds, and while the young critics owe their own modest fortune to speculations in real estate, they somehow look upon themselves as perspicacious and worthy and the others as reckless and unworthy. They have heard, too, that the quiet young girl who ventured to call the other day is the daughter of a man who is in the liquor business. The young couple are total abstainers. They decide that if they yield an inch they may yield an ell, and the quiet young girl's call is not returned, though it may be that the glimpse she had of the new nest and the happiness in it stood for much sweetness to her.

Hospitality of the heart and mind are truly hard to obtain—harder, no doubt, for those of rigor of life than for the less conscientious. But there is no denying that if a woman of influence wanted a mission she could hardly find a better one than that of undermining the prejudices of the people whom she knew, by an unselfish exercise of hospitality in its widest sense. If the clergyman and the actor met at her table; if the scientist and the writer of fiction sat side by side; if the hearty boy from college and the grim old gentlewoman were there; if the socialist met the virtuous and kindly conservative; if the bitter young newspaper man met the wise elderly poet; if souls came from psychic antipodes to reconcile their differences around her board,—how surprised they all would be at the attractions and the excellent motives and ideals of the others! The actress would remind the clergyman that good art is a part of good living; the socialist breathe warmer sympathies into the conservative; the college boy set weary

pulses in motion; the fictionist insinuate to the scientist that there are things which cannot be reduced to a formula; the poet might lead the sceptical young worker back into the paths of optimism. "Come, let us reason together," might be the motto which the hostess at this home might have cut upon the chimney of her room.

It often happens that sorrow is the cause of mental inhospitality. The bereaved woman nurses her grief under the impression that by so doing she is proving her fidelity. Knowing herself to be "widowed indeed," such sorry vanity as she had left from her life's wreck rigs itself in the weeds of her grief and vaunts itself in melancholy wise. Devotion to the dear dead could hardly show itself in a less idealistic fashion than by the indulgence in fruitless regret, in torturing memories and seclusion. I am myself a strong advocate of what I have long called "the yellow-dog theory." That is, if you cannot get man, woman, or child to share your life with you, then get a yellow dog and serve it and feed it and comfort it. In other words, there is almost no excuse for not being of use to someone or something. Life has little zest or beauty to her who lives to herself alone. However excellent she may be, however long her prayers and chaste her thought, it seems as if she would have poor claim on heaven,—heaven wherein abides Him whose message was that of service, and who, with mystic and unspeakable pain, served all men to the uttermost. There are so many forgotten children to be cared for; there are such numbers of the old who have outlived their own; there is such a company of workers about you whom the cruel time reduces to machines, and who are such save for their aching hearts,—that concentration of life on self is made a crime indeed. But when all the forgotten children have been mothered, and the sad old have been daughtered, and comrades have been found for those who walked the road alone, still there remains the yellow dog who can bark beside your hearth, reward you with exhilarating tail-waggings, and show you the depth of canine fealty.

It is an old truism that the world pays you in the coin which you give. If you have not observed it for yourself, add to your experience by doing so. Give love and friendliness and disinterestedness, and lo, these things will be returned to you in kind. Give suspicion, and coldness, and the sidelong look, and the world extends to your palm the same evil currency. Open your doors in the name of true hospitality, and the doors of the world shall be opened to you. Squint out of the cautiously parted door to see if your visitor be sufficiently aristocratic and respectable and well attired, or to your liking intellectually and agreeing with you in politics and religion, and you also shall see the prying eye at the peep-hole when you knock.

ELIA W. PRATTIE.

ART AND MUSIC

ROSA BONHEUR

THE death of Rosa Bonheur, which occurred on the 26th of May at Fontainebleau, near Paris, has deprived France of one of her most interesting artists. She is one of the very few women who have attained a permanent place among the world's great painters. In her own specialty, as a delineator of animal life, there are even few of the stronger sex who equal her. All of her works show a strong, almost masculine individuality. Her technique is perfect, the color-work wonderfully rich and harmonious. What distinguishes her paintings, however, more than all this, and impresses the stamp of genuine merit upon them, is her power of characterization, her intimate knowledge of the animal soul, which finds vivid expression in her subjects. Her animals live on the canvas, and the landscape that forms the background is as much a vital part of the picture as the animals themselves.

This love for animals which her pictures betray, though inborn in her, was doubtless fostered and developed to a great extent by having spent much of her youth in the country. Her father, a modest painter at Bordeaux, had been compelled by the death of his wife, in 1833, to put his children to board on a country farm, while he himself went to Paris, where he hoped to find a better field for his art. Rosa was then eleven years old. Here in the fields and forest, in close touch with nature, her artistic mind was deeply impressed and found welcome food for imagination and study. When, a few years later, her father's attention was drawn to his daughter's remarkable talent, he was surprised and delighted. He took her with him to Paris, to guide her artistic development with loving care and teach her the technicalities of painting.

It was not an easy life she had to lead. Her father's income was but a modest one. The small household required much care and economizing, and its duties lay heavy on Rosa's shoulders. But she had the courage and strength of genius. With unabating energy she worked, dividing her time between her duties and her art. In 1840, at the age of eighteen, she had the satisfaction of seeing her first work exhibited in the Paris Salon. This was "The Two Hares." Though the necessity of contributing to the meagre income of the family compelled her to make copies from well-known pictures in the Louvre, for which she found a ready market, she still managed in the meantime to do original work.

Near her house was a sheepfold, where she could make her studies. Her studio itself looked like a stable, for there she used to keep the animals which she needed for models. Very frequently she visited the slaughter-houses—in male attire, in order to avoid the coarse jests or probable insults of the rough workmen—not heeding the repulsive surroundings. With unremitting zeal she sought every opportunity to study the characteristics of different animals, and one by one the creations of her genius followed each other. In 1841 she exhibited her "Goats and Sheep." In 1845 she was awarded a medal of the third class, and in 1848 one of the first class. With increasing success her material conditions began to improve. Yet it must be said her own country-people appeared rather slow in recognizing her great talent. Her success was due chiefly to the English, who showed more appreciation of her art, and most of her paintings were sold to England and America.

Just when she had finished her admirable painting "Labourage Nivernais" ("Farming in Nivernais"), which is now in the Luxembourg Gallery, a terrible blow fell upon her. Her beloved father, who had with such unremitting care and tenderness watched and assisted the development of her talent, died.

Rosa was almost prostrated with grief at the loss of her parent, and for months she was unable to resume her work. At last her love of work and of her art gave her fresh strength. In this she sought and found consolation. Other pictures followed in rapid succession. Indeed, she could hardly fill the orders that came to her from all quarters. Honors were bestowed on her, which few artists—certainly few women—enjoy. In 1849 she received the Salon gold medal; in 1865 she was decorated by the Empress Eugénie in person with the Cross of the Legion of Honor; in 1868 she was elected a member of the Antwerp Academy. Many foreign sovereigns awarded her high decorations, and during the siege of Paris, in 1870, the Crown Prince Frederick, who was an ardent admirer of her art, gave orders to have her villa and studio protected against injury.

Perhaps the most famous of her paintings is the "Horse Fair." It was completed in 1853, and had been sold, even before its exhibition in the Salon, to the English art-dealer Gambard, for the sum of forty thousand francs. After having been exhibited to numberless audiences in England and America it was sold to Mr.

Vanderbilt for sixty thousand dollars, and later was presented by his son to the Metropolitan Museum in New York, where it is one of its chief art treasures. Among her other paintings deserving special mention are: "A Foraging Expedition," "Haymaking in the Auvergne," "On Guard," and "The Lion at Home." The latter was exhibited in London in 1882, and was the result of special studies of two splendid Nubian lions which had been presented to her by some friends.

In private life Rosa Bonheur was somewhat eccentric and whimsical. She dressed usually in men's attire and led a rather secluded life, though she had travelled through England and Scotland, the results of which tours were several paintings of Scotch scenery and cattle. In her "Château By," in Fontainebleau, which is filled with numerous curios and rarities, she had a

large plain room filled with working material of all kinds, carpenter tools, photographic apparatus, and the like, where she employed her leisure hours in hammering, sawing, planing, and other handiwork. In another room she kept her collection of studies, with which she was never willing to part. In the grounds surrounding her villa she had a veritable menagerie: wild goats, sheep, stags and hinds, dogs, monkeys, parrots, and other animals. The few people who have obtained admittance to her atelier and have gained her friendship assert, however, that though an exceptional nature, she was a noble woman, with a kind heart and a most lovable character. As an artist she has won a firm and exalted position among the masters of the world.

EDUARD ACKERMANN.

HENRY FULLER ON ANGLO-SAXON ART

A SHORT time ago, Mr. Henry Fuller, the cleverest of American satirists, in talking about the futility of art among the Anglo-Saxons, said: "I know you will confront me with the English cathedrals, the Elizabethan age, and the modern English novel. But I think I can wipe these out of the way. Others have done it—Mr. Bernard Shaw and Mr. Hamlin Garland have done it. Therefore will I. The English cathedrals were built by Frenchmen, the Elizabethan age was not England settled and come to her own, but England exuberant, adolescent, with the excitations and elation of eighteen. Many young men are poets at eighteen, but they mean nothing by it. It is not their temperament—it is merely their time of life. As for the English novel, that really is not art. It is a selfish form of amusement devised by the insular Englishman who prefers to take his pleasures within his 'castle' behind closed doors." This is not Mr. Fuller's speech verbatim, but it is the spirit of it. Not to undertake to defend England or Shakespeare or the English novel, and realizing that it would be a foregone conclusion, from Mr. Fuller's point of view, that all the stupid persons who could not create anything artistic or beautiful would be the first to rush to the defence of English art, one may nevertheless remark that it is interesting to note that M. Édouard Rod, one of the most celebrated and daring of French critics, has been talking in Chicago about "Shakespeare and His Influence in France," and this before the echoes of Mr. Fuller's complaints have died upon the air. Glorious eighteen! Immortal adolescence! That, after three centuries, remains the intellectual delight of Gaul, Teuton, and Saxon. It is futile to attempt to gainsay Mr. Fuller, for it is true that the Anglo-Saxons do not produce that complete, neatly trimmed, circumscribed, and elaborately

finished product to which Mr. Fuller refers when he thinks or speaks of art. Neither have the Anglo-Saxons that passion for beauty or that power of producing it which the Athenians had and the Parisians have. The epic, the landscape painting, the hymn, the novel, the poem of nature—these are the things which the Anglo-Saxons produce. All are reflective, subjective, and consciously moral. One admits so much—and one always rejoices in Mr. Fuller's epigrams, his elusive contumely, his mocking praise, his delicate caprice. The jest delicious comes too near being a lost art with us; we are fortunate indeed to be able to have a satirist with whom we may flatter, and with whom all that is obstinate, self-approving, and distinctly Anglo-Saxon in us may disagree. But one must still maintain that it is a pleasing thing to have the Alliance Française send such a man as M. Rod to thank the English-speaking race for the gift of William Shakespeare.

It is amusing to note the indignation which Mr. Fuller's remarks have aroused. But there is no occasion for indignation or for depression. Mr. Fuller may be right—it is possible that we cannot produce works of art according to his definition—or he may be wrong—in which event the best possible thing to do is to create a work of art that shall confute his statements. It is true that Americans do much that is atrociously bad in their endeavor to create, and that whole communities sometimes appear to be oblivious to beauty. Man—American man—appears to be forever at war with nature, and to aim to thwart it. He will not put himself in accord with his environment, nor construct his dwellings to suit his locality; but on every frontier he erects his shanty of glaring pine—unshapely, meaningless, obtrusive, and inhospitable in appearance. The plains and the mountains, the forests and the fields are

alike affronted with these unsympathetic dwellings by which the landscape is marred, and which prove the American to be unappreciative of the magnificence with which he is dowered. It was not so with the men who built by the banks of the Rhine, or among the Alps, or beside the sad fiords of Norway or the wild lakes of Scotland. Our frantic egotism, which makes us attach more importance to ourselves than to anything else, which has, indeed, propelled us to our unheard-of triumphs, has been the cause of it. We have never been will-

ing to subordinate ourselves; we could not conceive of the propriety of playing an accompaniment in nature's symphony. We must stand at the front and toot a cornet. It is our way. It is at the bottom of all of our absurdities and excesses. Perhaps it is at the bottom even of such crimes as the last most fearful lynching at Georgia. We cannot submit ourselves to the laws we make; but when it suits us, in our egotism, to flout these laws, we do it with profane bravado.

E. W. P.

VOICE-CULTURE

TO CULTIVATE the voice so as to obtain the best results in the production of musical tones, it is essential to learn the elementary rules which constitute the foundation of voice-culture. Nature reigns supreme here as elsewhere, and her laws must be obeyed. Experience and observation have shown that evil effects follow when these laws are ignored and improper methods used. This appears later, when naturally good voices are injured, and, as sometimes happens, ruined.

The first step is to study the physical structure of the voice-producing organs,—the throat, lungs, and diaphragm. This necessary information may be obtained from any standard work on physiology. After thus ascertaining how the voice is produced (paying particular attention to the muscles which modify the different tones in the air-passages), its range must be found. To do this, strike on the keyboard of a piano the lowest note that can be sung easily; then ascend the scale, pausing after each note to inhale a deep breath. When the highest note that can be attained without difficulty is reached, the natural compass of the voice will lie within these two notes. Judicious and constant practice will enable the beginner to extend the primary range.

Amateurs usually imagine that most of the work in singing is performed by the throat, while the rest of the body merely assists; but the reverse of this is true. The throat should be used only to modify the different tones, the greater part of the work being done by the chest and diaphragm.

To learn how to breathe correctly while singing is very important, as the volume of the voice and the ease with which it is produced depend largely on the amount of air in the lungs. To illustrate this, take any note within the compass; inhale a deep breath and expel it slowly, on the note selected. Let the volume of sound be smallest at the start and increase gradually to the full capacity of the voice. Of course the lungs should not be inflated to the extent of causing discomfort. The breathing-exercises are intended to relieve the throat of as much exertion as possible and to develop volume, strength, and clearness.

The position of the body while singing is very important. By standing erect, and throwing the head well back and the chest forward, the throat is left free and open, and the body assumes an easy, graceful position.

The tones are divided into three classes, known as chest, middle, and head, corresponding with low, medium, and high tones. The production of the different tones will be greatly assisted if the word *ah* be used for the low tone, and the vowels *o* and *e*, respectively, for the medium and higher tones.

The mouth should be opened tolerably wide while singing, especially on high notes. This prevents the voice from being muffled and indistinct, and increases its volume.

Flexibility is another necessary quality and is obtained by such exercises as running up and down the scale rapidly, or by taking combinations of notes in the same manner.

In practising, the best results are obtained by regular work of from half an hour to an hour every day or twice a day. The time devoted to practice should be divided into short sections of about five or ten minutes each, with brief intervals for rest. The amount of time that can be profitably devoted to practice must vary with different persons. The individual must determine how much practice is beneficial, but a safe rule is to stop when tired. If possible, always practice in a comfortable room. Practising directly after eating interferes with digestion. Professional singers usually let several hours elapse between their last meal and the performance. Never practice when the throat is out of order, as with cold; for sore throat, gargling with raw glycerine and honey will prove beneficial.

A word of caution might be added about overwork, as most beginners are too anxious for quick results and injure the voice by overtaxing it at the start. It takes time to accustom the delicate muscles of the throat and chest to the production of the various tones, and too much forcing may permanently weaken, perhaps ruin, the voice.

Like all other accomplishments a good voice cannot be developed without plenty of time and careful practice, even where the basic materials

are present to commence with. To become even a passably good vocalist requires not only steady and persevering effort, but a large amount of enthusiasm. The student must love music for its own sake; and where this exists, voice-culture, far from being tedious or tiresome, becomes a source of genuine pleasure. More progress will thus be made than under contrary conditions.

A taste for music is to a great extent inherent, and the sweetest singers and finest musicians, like poets, are born, not made. They feel the power stirring deep within, and something urges them with irresistible force to give it outward expression. It is as natural for such persons to sing as it is for a bird to warble, expressing in this manner the pure delight of mere existence. The freshness and spontaneity of such voices is what renders them so peculiarly charming.

To learn the mechanical rules governing the production of the different tones, and even to sing correctly, is not the real test of a good singer. To be able to put one's whole soul into the performance, the power of losing one's own individuality in giving expression to the feelings and sentiments of the composer, is where the real excellence consists, for, without this, "something will be lacking and that something is everything."

The best singing consists of "tones beautiful and sonorous, and fitted for the expression of every variation of feeling." Music is one of the highest forms of poetry and has a language of its own. Where words fail or become inadequate to convey the finer shades of feeling and emotion, music accomplishes the task perfectly. The human voice is the best, because the most direct medium of transmission, for expressing emotion of any kind, be it grave or gay, tender or passionate. What can give more lively sensations of pleasure than a sweet, appealing,

sympathetic voice, vibrating with feeling direct from the heart? We respond to it instantly, realizing — perhaps unconsciously — that the singer is giving us a part of himself and that part the highest and purest in his nature.

A noted writer, speaking of the object of voice-culture, has summed up in a few beautiful and expressive words its principal aim. She says:

"The art of singing transmits to us in sound the expression of emotions as they rise on the human soul and connect themselves one with another. It is the expression of our inmost life in its tenderest and finest processes, and is therefore the most ideal of arts. . . . Good singing, like all forms of perfect art, tends to awaken in us the feelings of repose and pleasure."

The cultivated voice will be round, smooth, and clear, with flexibility, strength, and sweetness.

Brilliant coloring, or "flowers of song," depend largely on the personality of the singer. Brilliance is the result, primarily, of the possession of an overflowing abundance of force and vitality, which seeks to dissipate itself in this manner; this might be appropriately termed the "electrical quality." Singers are in the highest class when they know how to electrify an audience, stirring even the most *blasé* out of their usual state of languor and indifference into one of interest, expectancy, and even enthusiasm. Persons having this characteristic are not apt to be capable of expressing the deeper emotions, such as grief, sadness, and melancholy. As a rule, they are all on the surface, and have no sympathy with, because they cannot understand, anything that is not bright and joyous. Their nature craves this, hence they are more at home when interpreting lively and animated rather than heavier, deeper music. A combination of these two qualities is the very acme of art, and is only found in the consummate artist, the very Shakespeare of song.

E. J. COLEMAN.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

ART NOTES

"THE ART INTERCHANGE," one of New York's brightest and best art monthlies, in its June issue celebrates its twenty-first anniversary. The editor says:

"Since its beginning, in 1878, it has followed a consistent course, its growth being the addition of one feature after another, until it now aims to fully cover the field of fine and applied art, and present a monthly record of the art movements of the country."

Its color supplements are genuine works of art; its illustrations excellent and abundant. Its correspondence is full of the best information, and its house decoration department of useful hints.

From an article on "Advice to Amateurs" we select a few suggestive thoughts:

"He has entered the heaven of harmony who can paint what he sees so that he suggests what he hears. . . . O ye little amateurs, as the world styles you, con-

temptuous of all save marketable talent, find out for yourselves some of the truths of nature. There is nothing in the world, or in art, so great as truth. We are in too great a hurry to fly to books for our ideas, to schools for our methods of painting. . . . Walk alone across fields, along cliffs, where sea and land and sky create a trinity worthy of your reverence and study. . . . Speak the truth as it is in you, paint the truth as you see it, and, however amateurish in style, your work cannot be valueless: but it must be the truth as you see and feel it, not as your master sees and feels it. There is nothing so untruthful as imitation of another man's work, even though he be the greatest and truest man on earth. . . . Don't believe the men who tell you to work on at drawing till you get it right; you may learn from looking at your subject until you see it right. . . . Don't be afraid of failure, search after truth, never mind how often you fail, try again."

The whole article is packed with good things, and we commend its reading to every young and struggling artist.

THE LITERARY WORLD

Stead's "The United States of Europe" The Peace Conference summoned by the Tsar has, as we know, begun its labors at The Hague. On the eve of "the Parliament of Peace," the interesting work of Mr. W. T. Stead, proprietor of the English edition of the "Review of Reviews," will be found instructive reading. The volume, which is entitled "The United States of Europe" (New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.), was called into existence by two unexpected but significant events. One of these events, deemed historical paradoxes, is the resort to war by a pacific republic in the West, which, as Mr. Stead has said, has for more than a hundred years proudly boasted of its haughty indifference to the temptation of territorial conquest, and, despite its protestations of absolute disinterestedness, has suddenly abjured its secular creed and carried through a successful war against the old-time and historic power of Spain. The other apparent anomaly Mr. Stead points to is the fact that the Tsar of Russia—"a sovereign autocrat, commanding the bayonets of four millions of trained soldiers and the implicit obedience of one hundred and twenty millions of loyal subjects"—has "amazed and bewildered mankind by formally and publicly arraigning the armaments of the modern world, and summoning a conference of all the Powers to discuss practical measures for abating an evil which threatened to land civilized society in the abyss." The significance of these two events, Mr. Stead affirms, constitutes them landmarks in the evolution of the race: "it is the pacific republic," he observes, "that makes war, that multiplies its army fourfold, and seizes by the right of conquest the colonial possessions of Spain." On the other hand, "it is the imperial autocrat of a military empire who impeaches the war system of the world, and, himself the master of a thousand legions, invites the nations to a Parliament of Peace."

To discover the import and what was thought of the Tsar's peace proposals, Mr. Stead, in the autumn of 1898, made a tour of the chief capitals of the European continent, interviewing ambassadors and statesmen, and even calling upon and interrogating Tsar Nicholas himself. The result of his self-appointed mission is the book before us, which is brimful of interesting matter of the deepest concern, especially throughout Europe. What he saw and heard, with his deductions therefrom, are set forth in a lively and entertaining manner, and oftentimes with much and characteristic vigor and serious thought. The author's survey of the European situation and what he is able to elicit from statesmen and diplomats, not, as a rule,

given to discussing international politics with enterprising journalists, afford instructive reading; while the sketches of character and glimpses of personalities known at least by name to the world are replete with interest. The work possesses the additional attraction of being profusely illustrated—there being nearly a hundred portraits of royalties and prominent statesmen scattered throughout the book. Among the sketches not the least interesting is that of the Tsar, drawn from life, during the interview granted the author by the Emperor at Livadia. Mr. Stead's portrait is not the traditional one of the "Autocrat of all the Russias." On the contrary, as may be expected, Mr. Stead's impression of him is that of a decided humanitarian, full of generous impulses—a man of large mind and wide intelligence, yet not lacking in force and will-power.

★

Risley's "Men's Tragedies" "Men's Tragedies," by R. V. Risley (New York: The Macmillan Co.), contains much strong, intense work in the form of tales which possess an alluring though grim fascination for the reader. The author, who, it may be remembered, contributed a striking article on "The New Woman" to the May issue of *SELF CULTURE*, has unusual dramatic gifts for the writing of fiction, as the nine tales in the present volume—"studies of intensity" Mr. Risley terms them—bear witness. Though the stories are gloomy and sombre, as befits their tragic character, they nevertheless appeal powerfully to the imagination and in some of them win the reader's sympathies as tales of heroic suffering, exhibiting also strong mental emotion and instances of sturdy, manly endurance. They are the work, manifestly, of a man of the world, familiar with German life and thought, and gifted with imagination and the power of conceiving strong situations and of depicting them with terse vigor and concentrated, passionate force. Each tale has its own individuality and a more or less original plot, narrating what befell "The Man who Loved," or who Hated, who Cared, who Fell, who Sneered, or who Died. All are written on a high plane of literary excellence, and this adds to their dramatic effect. Mr. Risley has struck a strong note in the volume, which augurs well for the success of his future work.

★

Edward Everett Hale's Works A collected library edition of the notable stories of Dr. Edward Everett Hale, author of that famous incentive to patriotism, "The Man without a

Country," has been long in coming. Thanks to the enterprise of the publishers (Little, Brown & Co., Boston), we have the initial volume of the series, in good type and in a tasteful dress. Besides the familiar opening story which gives the title to the present volume, the work contains a number of other tales, in the author's characteristic manner, that well deserve preservation in this definitive and autobiographical edition. A delightful preface in the form of a parable salutes the reader on opening the volume, and puts him in the humor to enjoy the literary feast. To "The Man without a Country" is prefixed the note written by Dr. Hale in 1897, in which he gives some account of the circumstances and incidents connected with the writing and first appearance in "The Atlantic Monthly" of the remarkable story, "a tale ringing with genuine patriotism." Among the other contents of the volume are the realistic stories, "My Double and How He Undid Me," "The Skeleton in the Closet," "The Rag-Man and the Rag-Woman,"—tales that have secured for their author an enduring place among the writers of the short story in America. The second volume, presently to appear, is already announced. It will bear the title, "In His Name, and Other Stories"—chiefly, we understand, those that have a Christmas origin, and were inspired by the genial spirit of the season. Hardly could one put into the hands of youth in our day stories more kindly in spirit or more full of cheery optimism than these from Dr. Hale's pen. Their earnest, helpful, humanizing influence, added to their literary attractions, assure them permanent popularity and fame.

★

Marquis's "Marguerite de Roberval"—Mr. Thos. G. Marquis, whose romance "Marguerite de Roberval" (London: T. Fisher Unwin), has just reached our hands, is a Canadian educator and ardent student of French-Canadian annals. This new work from his pen is a tale of the days of Jacques Cartier, the famous sea-captain of St. Malo who discovered the St. Lawrence River and was the first European to make known the Indian villages on its banks, now the cities of Montreal and Quebec. The heroine who gives the title to the novel is a niece of the Sieur de Roberval, of Picardy, whom Francis I commissioned lieutenant-general of Canada and sent out on an expedition, with Cartier's assistance, to found a colony in the country and open up trade. Historically little is known of Roberval's enterprise: as a matter of fact, neither his expedition nor Cartier's was successful, and France ceased for a time to contest the field against a savage people and an arctic winter. The era and the character are those, however, taken advantage of by Mr. Marquis as the background for a stirring, well-conceived, though sad story, the scenes of which are laid partly in Brittany and

Picardy, and partly in Canada, with some exciting incidents which have their occurrence on board the Viceroy's caravel at sea. The chief personages that figure in the story, besides Cartier and De Roberval, are the latter's niece, Marguerite, and her two knightly lovers, Claude Pontbriand and Charles de la Pommeraye. The two men were sworn friends, but De Pontbriand was Marguerite's choice, though fiercely opposed in his suit by De Roberval. How it fares with the lovers and what tragedies the heroine has to suffer and witness in her pitiful exile, in consequence of the cruelties of her guardian, and of what devotion she was afterward the object on the part of De la Pommeraye, the reader must discover from the entrancing pages of the novel. The pathetic but spiritedly written story will be found thrilling reading and a delight to lovers of the historical romance.

★

Richard Realf's Poems—A consideration of Richard Realf's life and writings (New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.) raises anew the question of genius *versus* morality. In Realf's case the high gifts of the poet were undoubtedly his, and, as literature, very admirable was much of his work; but we can have little save censure for many acts of his life, especially those that exhibit his relations with women. It is true that he paid sorely for these acts by a sadly marred life, and by periods of mental torture and remorse culminating at last in suicide; as well as by the Nemesis of wrong-doing and the injury to his brain which he suffered early in his manhood as punishment for a foul and inexpiable crime. With all in the way of chastisement he had to suffer, we do not wonder at the sad note of much of his verse, or at his frequent and despairing cry for human sympathy and fellowship. He was a man of strong passions and wayward moods, and these too often gained the mastery over him and brought him into trouble. Nevertheless there was much that was noble in him, both in thought and in deed, and it was the better nature and impulse in him that gained him his many and staunch friends. To these he was always a puzzle, as well as an object now of pride and anon of pity and commiseration. The balance-wheel was evidently wanting in his mental structure, though there were periods in his life, particularly during his soldiering days, when he was grandly sane, reputable, and patriotic. It was this want of equipoise that unsettled him for steady work in journalism and led him into his quixotic relations with Brown of Harper's Ferry. Undoubted, however, were his gifts of oratory and of song, as Colonel Hinton, his biographer, points out in the volume before us. Of his prose work we get no example, highly as it is spoken of by those who knew and heard him on the platform. The representation of

verse, however, is ample and testifies to his qualities as a poet. The chief characteristics of his poetry, besides thought and imagination of a high order, is its subjectivity. It is moreover pure, often soulful, and always melodious. In his war lyrics his strains are both fervent and stirring. Colonel Hinton's memoir of the poet, prefixed to the poems, is at once sympathetic and frank. As an example of Real's verse we append a stanza from his fine poem "Indirection,"—probably his most admired composition:

"Fair are the flowers and the children, but their subtle suggestion is fairer;
Rare is the roseburst of dawn, but the secret that clasps it is rarer;
Sweet the exultance of song, but the strain that precedes it is sweeter;
And never was poem yet writ, but the meaning o'er-mastered the metre."

★

"*The Span o' Life*": a Tale of *Louisbourg and Quebec* This spirited story, which enshrines a delightful romance, has for its historical background the Stuart rising in Scotland in 1745 and the American part of the "Seven Years' War," better known on this side of the Atlantic as "The French and Indian War." The Jacobite rebellion forms really no part of the story, save as a reminiscence, when the novel opens; for the hero, Chevalier Maxwell, is a proscribed rebel of '45 in hiding in London, who escapes from England to take service with the French army in Acadia and afterwards at Quebec. Interest in the novel is heightened by the fact that the authors are Canadians, who, like Mr. Gilbert Parker and other native *littérateurs*, love to deal historically and romantically with Canadian annals, and especially with the stirring era of the struggle of France and England for dominion in the New World. The authors of "*The Span o' Life*" (New York: Harper & Brothers) are Mr. William McLennan, who has made English readers familiar with the boat songs and woodland lays of French Canada, and Miss I. N. McIlwraith, an accomplished Canadian author, who has hitherto written under the *nom de plume* of "Jean Forsyth." Young Maxwell, who had fought at Culloden, yet was bold enough to enter Hanoverian London when Jacobite heads were being chopped off, had the good fortune, in a street brawl, to aid a lady whom he afterwards finds to be a *protégée* of his own aunt, Lady Jane Drummond, who has hitherto been his financial support. He and the young lady (Margaret Nairn) fall in love with each other, though the latter is affianced to a French diplomatist. Before avowing his love, Maxwell finds that his wife, a Scottish peasant lass whom he had married when very young, is not dead, as was reported to him when on foreign service, but is in London with her son, a fine manly youth. A great change, however, had meantime come over the wife, who had become a Methodist of a stern and

rigid type, and had renounced the world of her husband's social life and refused stiffly to recall the past. Maxwell nevertheless offers her his home and heart again, which the wife refuses, and, to escape from the complications which Fate has made for him, he enters the French army, a portion of which is about to sail for Canada.

In Canada Maxwell occasionally finds work for his sword, though he has difficulty in whiling away the time in frontier forts until the siege of Louisbourg occurs and the era approaches which saw the fall of Quebec. Meanwhile Margaret Nairn, who has inherited the fortune of her now deceased aunt, Lady Jane Drummond, comes to Canada in search of a kinsman, and with her as a waiting-maid is Lucy, Maxwell's wife. They both are taken prisoners by Indians, but ultimately reach safety and afterward find their way to Quebec at the period of the English assault. Maxwell shares in the fighting of that stirring period, and his son, Lucy's child, having become separated from his mother in the turmoil of the time, is taken care of by him, though he is restrained by a promise to his wife from making his relationship known to the lad. What follows during the eventful siege of Quebec, in bringing Maxwell and Margaret Nairn together again, and what befalls Lucy and the French diplomat and priest that make for the happiness of the two noble-hearted lovers who are the essential figures in the romance, we may not here tell. These things the book itself reveals, and to the reader's unfeigned delight. The story is thrilling in its interest, and, despite its collaborative authorship, will be found very pleasant, indeed delightful reading.

★

"*The Statesman's Year-Book for 1899*" (London and New York: The Macmillan Co.) comes to hand this year with a decided and welcome innovation. The issue is the thirty-sixth annual one of the well-known and most useful British publication, revised from official returns, and edited with conspicuous ability by Dr. J. Scott Keltie and Mr. I. P. A. Renwick, LL.B. The ground covered by the work is that which has given it its hold upon its large consulting constituency of statesmen, professional and business men, journalists, publicists, etc., and all who seek information of a reliable nature in the varied departments of statistics and official returns concerning the different countries of the world. To this mass of invaluable matter has been prefixed in the present issue an enlarged section dealing with data useful to editors and searchers for information, connected with the United States. This portion of the work has been intelligently and carefully compiled by Mr. Carroll D. Wright, U. S. Commissioner of Labor at Washington, and president of the American Statistical Association. We welcome this new feature of the book, which, for use in this country, greatly enhances its value.

FOR NURSERY, CLASS, AND SCHOOL READING

A CAPITALLY planned and attractive little volume designed as a first reader, with the title of "Child Life," has just been issued by The Macmillan Company, of New York. The work, which is prettily illustrated, has been compiled by two New England educators, Etta A. and Mary F. Blaisdell, and appears to adapt itself well to the wants of teachers of the young, in furnishing a first reading-book on a methodical and progressive plan, dealing with the child as seen in relation to the home, to the school, and to nature. Care has been taken to give practical attention to the long and short vowel sounds, the sounds of consonants, and some of the more common diphthongs, while material for seat-work is furnished by the script sentences, by the phonetic drills, and by the outline drawings.

Another acceptable volume from the same publishers is "A Collection of Poetry for School Reading," suitable for boys and girls from ten to fifteen, compiled and arranged with notes by Marcus White, principal of the State Normal-Training School, New Britain, Conn. The work includes many old favorites from English and American authors, endeared by their historical and literary associations, and accompanied by brief biographical sketches and lucid and helpful notes. The work should be found in every household as an aid to culture, as well as in the class-room.

An excellent service has been rendered by Dr. R. G. Moulton, Professor of English Literature in Chicago University, by preparing a children's series of his admirable "Modern Reader's Bible"—a series of works from the sacred Scriptures presented in modern literary form (New York & London: The Macmillan Co.). The present volume treats of the New Testament Bible stories which relate the chief incidents and teachings in the life of Jesus and the Acts of the Apostles. The stories are told in the language of Scripture altered only by omissions, while to the maturer reader there

are instructive and helpful introductions and notes. The design of Dr. Moulton's work has met a great need and has given a fresh stimulus to Bible reading and study and helped one to a higher appreciation of the literary beauties and wisdom of the books of the Bible.

What is the Bible, who wrote it, and what is its history? are the subjects treated of in an excellent handbook of Bible study by the Rev. A. W. Hitchcock (New York: Thomas Whittaker). The specific title of the little volume, which is intended for use in schools and classes and for private reading, is "Questions and Answers About the Bible." It will be found a useful guide, not only on the questions indicated, but on expansions of them which treat of how the Bible shall be read and studied, whence came our English Bible, and what we have in it of poetry, prophecy, and parable. The author, we note, does not shrink from pointing out the need of, as well as the service rendered by, a scholarly Biblical criticism.

A like important service is rendered by the Rev. Dr. W. R. Huntington, of Grace Church, New York, in the preparation of "A Short History of the Book of Common Prayer" (New York: Thomas Whittaker), with an appendix containing the prayers of "The Book Annexed." The author intelligently sets forth the historical facts connected with the origin of the Anglican liturgy and its varied ritual, and then discusses its authoritative sanctions and revisions—matters of important study to all Churchmen.

"Jingle and Jangle, and Other Verses for and about Children," by Wm. S. Lord (New York & Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Co.), indicates by its title the pleasant motive of a dainty but unpretentious little book. The rhymes, which are unambitious, deal with familiar features of child life. The best bit of verse in the book, as it is the most serious, is the appended "In Memoriam,"—an apostrophe, evidently, to Eugene Field, the child-lover.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Dennis, Rev. Jas. S., D.D.: "Christian Missions and Social Progress: A Sociological Study of Foreign Missions." In 3 vols. Vol. II. 8vo. 486 pp. Illus. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Co.

Dexter, T. F. G., and Garlick, A. H.: "Psychology in the Schoolroom." London and New York: Longmans, Green, & Co.

Hale, Edward Everett: The Works of. Library Edition. Vol. I. "The Man Without a Country, and Other Stories;" Vol. II. "In His Name, and Christmas Stories." 12mo. Portrait. Boston: Little, Brown, & Co.

Hinsdale, B.A., Ph.D.: "The Old North-West: The Beginning of Our Colonial System," Revised Edition, with Maps. Boston, New York, & Chicago: Silver, Burdett, & Co.

Thompson, Sir Henry: "Food and Feeding." Tenth Edition, with an Appendix. London and New York: Frederick Warne & Co.

Todd, Prof. David P., Ph.D.: "Stars and Telescopes: A Handbook of Popular Astronomy." 8vo. Illus. Boston: Little, Brown, & Co.

Trent, W. P.: "John Milton—A Short Study of His Life and Works." New York: The Macmillan Co.

Wilkins, Mary E.: "The Jamesons: a Story." New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.; Philadelphia: Curtis Publishing Co.

Winterburn, Florence Hull: "From the Child's Standpoint: Views of Child Life and Nature: a Book for Parents and Teachers." New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.

Winterburn, Florence Hull: "Nursery Ethics." New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.

Wright, Carroll D., LL.D.: "Outline of Practical Sociology, with Special Reference to American Conditions." [American Citizen Series.] 8vo. New York: Longmans, Green, & Co.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD

THE ART OF PUBLIC SPEAKING*

BEFORE any one can speak well upon a subject, he must have something to say about it that is worth hearing. A choice and fluent collection of high-sounding terms alone will not do. There must be thought, and there must be knowledge. If the speaker has not the material for a speech, he will be apt to tire his audience very soon. There are various means of gaining knowledge and of stimulating one's ideas; namely, by observation, by reading, by thinking, by hearing, and by using one's memory. Having secured material, the incipient orator would do well to write down all that he intends to say, selecting what he considers telling arguments and facts, and rejecting anything weak, trivial, or not bearing on the subject. The next step is to place the material in order, by arranging the ideas, facts, arguments, illustrations, and even the very words, in such order as will be calculated to produce the greatest effect. This arrangement is just as important in preparing a speech as is the marshaling of forces on the field of battle in the art of war. Take the best passages in English literature, and slightly change the order of the ideas here and there, and in many cases the effect will be completely spoiled. Not only does the proper arrangement of words, sentences, and paragraphs produce a good effect on the audience by reason of their rhythm, clearness, and the logical sequence of ideas; but it also gives the speaker a better grasp of his subject, and, while affording greater ease to himself, will add force and authority to his utterance. Of course, in throwing the material into the proper order, care and sound discretion are required, and often it will be found necessary to make changes and eliminations in order to give harmony to the whole.

Having thus selected and grouped the material, the next thing to be attended to is the style. The very best language should be employed; all ungainly compounds, slang phrases, obsolete words, or anything that would mar the diction, should be avoided. The sentences should not be too long or labored, but should reveal clearly and forcibly what the speaker intends to convey. A great deal here will depend on the education of the speaker; natural talent alone will not suffice. If he has been accustomed to read the best literature

and to move in cultured society, he ought to have no difficulty in clothing his ideas with fitting language. Reading aloud the works of the best English and American writers is a great help to one in this matter of composition.

The next step is to use the memory. The speaker should become familiar not only with the ideas to be expressed, but also with the language that is intended to be used, even supposing that in the delivery he does not conform to it word for word. The fact that a person has his ideas properly arranged and fittingly expressed in his own language will make the task of memorizing the substance, general order, and diction of a speech less difficult than at first it might appear. The use of notes is advisable even if they are not utilized during the delivery of a speech, for they afford a certain amount of confidence and relieve the speaker of anxiety caused by the fear of losing the thread of any part of his discourse.

While these preparations will involve no little labor, the time so devoted will by no means be valueless. The speaker will derive therefrom a lasting benefit, which will be apparent if he has subsequently to speak on a similar topic in future.

In the delivery of an address, voice, countenance, and body should conform to the subject, and this, of course, implies considerable painstaking, training, thought, and good sense. Here natural tone and natural manner have the greatest effect. A speech should be nothing more than a talk to many. In addressing one person we use a certain tone and manner; in addressing two or three we slightly modify our voice, countenance, and gestures to suit the altered circumstances, and as the number increases we change our tone and manner accordingly; so that the nearer a speech approaches the conversational tone, the more successful the effect is likely to be.

A well-constructed speech may be considered under the following arbitrary divisions: (1) Exordium; (2) statement; (3) proof; (4) peroration.

The exordium is merely an introduction, preparing the minds of the hearers for what is to follow. It will be almost useless for the speaker to proceed unless in or after his opening remarks he has gained the attention and sympathy of the audience. Since a favorable hearing is the main object of the exordium, the speaker should take into account the probable feelings of the audience and their attitude for or against him, or indifferent.

* Condensed from an address on the theory of public speaking, delivered before the Teachers' Institute, Charlottetown, P. E. I., February 11, 1899, by B. F. Messervy. Charlottetown: Murley & Garnhum, 1899.

When the audience is known to be in the speaker's favor it should be an easy matter to frame a suitable exordium. It is never well, however, to take too much for granted concerning the indulgence or forbearance of an audience. It should be approached in a conciliatory and respectful manner, and it must be remembered that the audience has a right to expect something in return for its time and attention.

If the audience be prejudiced against or hostile to the speaker, it is necessary to allay those feelings by the use of tact; the circumstances of each case being his guide as to the best mode of procedure.

If the audience be indifferent, it is necessary to arouse attention; as by showing that the subject under discussion concerns it, or is otherwise worthy of consideration.

Demosthenes, being indirectly accused by Æschines, his political opponent, on some technicalities, for accepting a golden crown as a reward for services rendered by him to the republic of Athens, his enemy seized the opportunity of reviewing the whole record of his public and private life, and heaped upon him abuse and accusation based on charges which were in some degree well founded. When Demosthenes came to reply, he so worded his exordium that he succeeded in winning the hearts of his countrymen, and in enlisting their support, in spite of his misdeeds. The charges against him were not sustained, and Æschines found such a revulsion of public opinion against him that he was obliged to go into banishment. While in exile he taught a school of rhetoric, and one day he read the speech that he had delivered in this trial, to his pupils. On their applauding it, he read the speech of Demosthenes, which was received with much greater applause, causing him to exclaim: "How must you have been affected had you heard him!"

In composing an exordium one should closely examine the conditions under which the speech is to be delivered,—such conditions as centre around the speaker, the audience, the time, and the place. The study of the best examples, ancient and modern, is also recommended; and as the exordiums of the best speeches are not very long (in fact length is generally considered a fault), this will involve no great labor.

The statement of facts is the next division of a speech, but does not call for any lengthy treatment. It should be clear, concise, and probable, setting forth all that the audience should know, for an intelligent understanding of the question and the arguments bearing thereon. Its language should be plain and unadorned.

The next division is the proof, which may be subdivided into argument, testimony, and finding fault. The speaker should first establish his own arguments, and then overthrow those of his opponent logically and in a regular manner, bringing forward telling arguments and

weighty evidence; using well-chosen examples and illustrations; occasionally relating a story or fable with a moral or point bearing directly on the question; sometimes resorting to sarcasm, irony, and other forms of wit; striking a contrast; or rising to a climax. It will not be out of place here to set forth some of the wiles and methods of an accomplished orator, as observed by Cicero:

"He often treats one and the same thing in many different manners, and dwells a long time on the same idea. He often extenuates some point, and often turns something into ridicule. He occasionally appears to change his intention and vary his sentiments. He proposes beforehand the points which he wishes to prove. . . . He winds up his arguments with fresh reasons. He beats down the adversary with questions. He answers questions which, as it were, he himself has put. He sometimes wishes to be understood as meaning something different from what he says. He often doubts as to what he had best say, or how he had best say it. He arranges what he has to say under different heads. He leaves out or neglects some points, while there are others to which he devotes special attention beforehand. He often throws the blame on his adversary for the very thing for which he himself is found fault with. He often appears to enter into deliberation with his hearers, and sometimes even with his adversary. He describes the conversation and actions of men. . . . He diverts men's minds from the subject under discussion. He often turns the discussion into mirth and laughter. . . . He adduces comparisons. He cites precedents. He attributes one thing to one person, and another to another. He checks anyone who interrupts him. He says he is keeping something back. He adds threatening warnings of what his hearers must beware of. He often takes a bolder license. He is sometimes even angry. He sometimes utters reproaches, deprecates calamity, uses the language of supplication, and does away with unfavorable impressions. He sometimes departs a very little from his subject to express wishes, or to utter execrations, or to make himself the friend of those men before whom he is speaking."*

In this connection such studies as logic, science, history, philosophy, grammar, and rhetoric will prove useful,—in fact, nearly every study can be turned to some account by an able speaker. Knowledge combined with skill is power—and the person of limited and defective information must almost invariably yield in argument to the man of learning and attainments.

The peroration is the conclusion of a speech. A speaker should always aim at making a good beginning; but a good ending is of paramount importance, as it will tend to carry the audience with him. On the other hand a poor ending will create a sense of dissatisfaction in the hearers and may spoil the effect of a speech well constructed and almost faultless in other respects. In the peroration ornate language will usually find a place, great latitude being here allowed to a speaker in the use of figures of speech as well as in giving expression to exalted sentiments, exaggerating his side of the question, heightening the effect, working on the feelings of his hearers, influencing their will or arousing their energies, and even in stirring up their passions, as the case may justify.

* *De Oratore*, XI.

Enumeration, which is merely the summarizing of the chief points that have previously been made by a speaker, is not infrequently employed as a fitting way in which to bring a speech to a close, with the view of refreshing the memories of the hearers.

In regard to this division it is very difficult to lay down particular rules. A speaker's good sense ought to suggest what is suitable to any special occasion. Moreover, one can master such details only partially by precept. Practice will give ease and expertness; while example must be our chief guide. The perorations, then, of the most finished speeches of the greatest orators should be read and studied.

This short paper can deal with nothing more than the theory of public speaking. Those who would follow the art should study books on the subject, especially Cicero's "De Oratore," and other rhetorical works of that author, many of whose principles are embodied herein.

A knowledge of oratory is useful in business meetings, conventions, parliaments, societies, and the pulpit; as well as at the bar and the lecture desk. The orator in every age and in every country has risen to distinction. It is surely, then, a subject worthy of our consideration and one to be fostered in our schools and colleges.

B. F. MESSERVY.

SUCCESS OR FAILURE

Two great forces constitute life,—one giving impetus to men, the other controlling his destiny. One is the power that would carry him safely to the consummation of natal intention, the other deflects his course from the point aimed at. These two forces are known as heredity and environment. We inherit the animus that gives life an aim,—the raw material out of which character is to be formed, the germ out of which our lives are developed.

Alongside of and coexistent with the given germ of life is the germ of destruction. Life and death are brought into existence, one a close companion of the other. The forces are put in motion by suggestion, and very early in the race suggestion takes its place as the driver of this antagonistic team. The germ of life is always disposed upward and onward; its fellow would delay or take the declining path. All good results from the one, all evil from the other. Suggestion controls both, and upon it the force of either depends. The harness of these human elements is not so tightly fitted that it will not allow of material difference in the running, and when the whip of suggestion is applied it is often a question which horse—the white one of good, or the black one of evil—will take the lead. No matter which it may be, whether the one or the other, that one which acts first will dominate the course of its mate.

Past generations made this condition for us. We inherited from our ancestors this heredity. Our dispositions were born in us, and if no interference came in our pathway we would go to an inevitable end the conclusion of which would not vary to any appreciable degree in any number of cases. As the ball from the rifle would, without opposition, travel in a straight line to an inevitable target, so would each life reach the aim of its heredity were there no interference.

This force is not of our making; we are its creatures; it drives onward and still onward, never ceasing, always active; the conclusion in every case being inevitable, irresistible.

All mankind come into the world on an even footing; all spring from the same natural cause, all make their appearance in the same raiment,—that one perfect-fitting garment designed by the creating power, and which no human skill has been able successfully to counterfeit or improve upon. The intention seems patent that equality among men is of creative origin. No material difference exists in the relative size of human beings when they are carefully considered. The only reason for apparent difference is that we are not correct in our estimates, and herein lies one great and conclusive evidence of the fallibility of man. If the human atom was not interfered with, and a perfect development in accordance with the individual heredity was had, the result in each case might be almost identical; but such is not to be. We are collectively considered in the universal plan, hence the other great force, directly a being is born into the world, takes its place and is felt in all its power.

Environment is the maker and destroyer of men. None can escape its influence; in itself life is. Heredity is herein educated; the good and the evil in man is herein developed. Suggestion is its instrument, and action the illustration of its effect on man.

Environment is the "luck" of the fatalist, the "divine intention" of the theologian, the "intention of creation" of the scientist. Cursed or thanked, accepted prayerfully and with resignation or with joy, taken as means whereby the fittest may survive, what it is, we all experience; why it is, a matter only explainable by the originator of life.

As in the kaleidoscope the innumerable changes puzzle the eye and mystify the senses, so in life an unending mutation is wrought by the dwelling together of individuals. The multitudinous changes taking place in society, as each individual comes in contact one with the other, as the acts of some one greater than his fellows for the time affects perhaps the whole social order within the range of his

influence, these are impossible of comprehension only so far as the conditions thus wrought may affect our immediate surroundings; but if it be true that the dropping of a pebble in the lake moves the universe, so it may be counted how far-reaching is the effect of each individual act on the social world.

Can man interfere with what might be termed his destiny? If environment develops the inheritance of man, what can he do to improve or to degrade his condition? Is his effort of avail? Has he within himself any power to exert, or is it the power exerted upon him and through him, using him as a vehicle for the carrying out of a higher purpose? Or is he the controller of his own individuality, and can he, within his own body and mentality, develop a nature for good or evil, building, as it were, a secret habitation, wherein he can dwell secure, in his own philosophy, against the attacks of his external surroundings?

To deny to man the power of discrimination would be in itself an insult offered to the Supreme Creator. On the other hand, to accord to man the power to control his destiny and to shape it to suit his own desires and ideas as to what it should be, would never do, for the position could not be maintained from any point of view.

As children we have desires suggested by appetite, impulse, or association. The child gratifies the desire. The parent corrects the child in the event of the act committed being harmful or not in accord with accepted usage. Note the effect. A repetition of the act does not so quickly occur. Possibly it may never openly be committed again. If the parent is wise and does not instill the idea of fear of truth in the culprit, but explains and admonishes in a kind manner, in this case there may be a suggestion contained that will be lasting, and the disposition to indulge in that wrong may be permanently removed; but if fear is inculcated the evil side of the character is appealed to, and a secret current sets up in opposition to restraint.

The first impressions are the most lasting, and have an effect on our lives that we do not in any measure appreciate. It were useless to try to illustrate. By a short introspection everyone can for himself, in some degree, measure the effect of early training. It takes a long time to unlearn, much longer than to learn. Childhood is the school of youth, and then we take a higher course in life's academy, heredity forcing us on and giving us an object and aim. We have our environment to suggest to us, but within us is the inherited determination.

Comes youth then, and with it all of the beautiful promise of spring. Heredity, always at work, always watchful, compels us to look into our own personality and measure the world by what standard we make. Environment has to do with the argument, and much

to do with the result, as each day's total is footed up in our book of small experiences. It were useless to go into detail and speak of friendships turned to enmity, love to hatred, joys to sorrows, as we have all had the experience,—an experience which proves that some slight circumstance over which we had no control, that could never have been foreseen, oft-times destroyed the most prized condition of our youth.

It is in youth that the true value is placed on enjoyment; in after years we prize it less, for the reason that only youth can enjoy. Even the folly of youth is wisdom; for it is the seizing of the gem as it comes within the grasp. Once allow the opportunity to slip by, it can never be found again. Environment has much—in fact, all—to do with this. No man who is continually on the treadmill of life can indulge in the follies of youth. Such a man has no youth; he is old before his time, and can never be said to have lived. Heredity may give him all the capacity to philosophize, and he may ameliorate his lot by a system of reasoning, but had his environment been different he would have enjoyed, not drudged.

Graduating from the school of childhood and youth, manhood, with the responsibilities of existence, comes upon us. We strive to attain success as we have pictured it in varying hues since childhood. We recognize our force and vigor and feel equal to any emergency. We look at the world and wonder why others are not so strong as we are. Prosperity crowns our efforts, we have wealth to meet our needs. We come to look upon ourselves as the arbiters of our own fortunes, and take very little interest in the man who cannot get along in the world. We become disciples of the creed that "any man who will work can do well." We know that this matter of environment is of small moment. Man contains within himself the measure of his success or failure. Self-confidence grows; power of will and personality grow; money increases; all things are as they should be. It has been one straight road with nothing but helps all the way along. Environment had nothing to do with your success. When you started you had in you the inherited strength of a long line of honest ancestors who were in trade before you. When you were ready to embark in life a proper provision was made for you. With good habits, proper training, and sufficient provision for business success, all was well.

Your schoolmate was a bright, steady, honorable fellow, with good aspirations. His ancestors were as good as yours mayhap. He had parents living who did not believe in providing for children; who argued, Let them look out for themselves,—self-made men have been our greatest men. The people who talk thus of self-made men only note the number who by accident rather than by design come to the top; they do not consider how much good material is wasted

in the process of self-manufacture. Your school-fellow's gifts did not lie along the same lines as your own; he was imaginative, perhaps; creative in his mentality; possibly one of those sensitive natures with a poetic turn and a genius for music and art. All of this being overlooked and no account taken of his gifts,—perchance he is laughed at for his attempts along the line of his natural bent,—the time comes when his services are required to aid in the care of the family. He finds himself in an environment that tends to choke and smother the promptings of his heredity. He is to make himself, but the material in him is unfitted to the task. It takes years to unlearn that which the school of childhood and youth has allowed to grow in him, and the result is that he is a misfit in the architecture of society, and by the world is pronounced a failure.

Thus, it would appear that life is made up of the result of the force of heredity as exerted upon environment. Granting the environment to be favorable and the early training careful and intelligent, the result will in every case be success.

If the early training be vicious, or careless and indifferent, and the environment be unfavorable, the result will be failure, or probably such as produces criminals or tramps.

It behoves parents, teachers,—all, in fact, who have the training of the world in hand,—to look well into these matters, and in every case to see that the heredity is so schooled and directed that it may be prepared for the inevitable encounter which is sooner or later bound to come, which encounter means success or failure.

JAMES W. WATERS.

THE ATTITUDE OF PARENTS TOWARD TEACHERS

SELF CULTURE for December, 1898, gives an extract from Mrs. Vesta Cassedy's paper read before the Mother's Congress at Omaha. In the comments upon the paper occurs the following:

"How hurried the teachers are in the public schools of the great cities may be indicated by the fact that it is not infrequent for them to call pupils by a number instead of a name. Poor '55' answers to the call as if he were a convict instead of a pupil in the educational halls of a republic. . . . In one household, where the individuality of each child is regarded as something sacred—indeed, as an inviolable birthright—the children have been forbidden to respond when addressed by a number.

"The children protested to their parents that, by raising any objection, they would make themselves unpopular, disturb the school, and possibly bring on suspension.

"It does not matter' said their mother to them. 'Let it go to the board of education, or to the courts of the country, or any other place where it may or can go. Those incidents are immaterial. Your father and I will stand by you and see you justified. What we insist upon is that your personality shall be recognized and respected. You have a family name which is associated with honorable deeds and with honesty and attainment, and a Christian name, registered in heaven as well as upon earth. To that name and no other must you answer. Even a teacher has no right to forget that you are gentlemen, though very young ones.'

"But, indeed, the first objection made by the boys to responding to the number call was treated with respect. It had not occurred to the teacher that in using this indolent method she was hurting the self-respect of her pupils."

This incident illustrates in a striking manner the attitude so often, unhappily, assumed by unthinking parents toward the teachers of their children. Granted that the hurried teacher, under necessity instantly to name anyone of fifty or perhaps a hundred children, violated the individuality of her pupils; surely a mother of superior courtesy, kindly in feeling, and mindful of the difficulties and the rights of the teacher, would have seen her personally, and kindly have made known her objection to the course pursued; or, if that were too great a sac-

rifice of time and inclination to make for her children and their teacher, she would have instructed the former quietly to request a change of practice.

There is nothing to show that either of these simple expedients occurred to her. Perfectly willing to wreck the discipline of the entire school, she commands the children to open rebellion, and in a strain of high-flown eloquence overrules their objections. When such a spirit is fostered in an educated, Christian household, what can be expected from the uneducated, un-Christian?

But lofty defiance was wholly uncalled for in this case, it seems; for "the first objection made by the boys to responding to the number call was treated with respect."

Which of the two women showed the nobler spirit? Which of the two was the better fitted to teach those boys the lesson of respect for others which is quite as important as that of respect for self?

It is this unfortunate attitude, so often assumed by parents toward the teacher, that makes her already heavy burden tenfold more grievous than it need be. Granted there are teachers who fall below the ideals of their profession, as there are parents who are unworthy of their high calling; the mother of fine instincts, obliged to entrust her children to such an one, has one course open to her. Let her seek out that teacher, and with the tact and kindly feeling that such a woman inevitably will possess, do what she can by personal intercourse to show the superior beauty of refinement and good breeding. If she feels no sympathy for the girl struggling against adverse conditions, her solicitude for her children should make her willing to do this; and until she does, she fails to do her whole duty by those children.

M. E. ANDREWS.

MINNEAPOLIS.

YOUTHS' DEPARTMENT

A POPULAR NAVAL HERO—VETTOR PisANI OF VENICE

"LET none who wish me well say, *Viva Pisani!* but, *Viva San Marco!*" It was Vettor Pisani, admiral of Venice, the idol of the people and the loyal patriot, speaking to the excited populace. And the people, who would have made him dictator, answered back: "*Viva San Marco e Vettor Pisani!*"—thus uniting the man and the country whose welfare he loved better than power.

Pisani, a man of unselfish patriotism, of dauntless courage, and of able seamanship, lived, fortunately for Venice, at the time of the first momentous crisis in her history. After the downfall of the Roman Empire, and out of the confusion and barbarism which followed its ruin, two strong races of mariners rose to reestablish the naval and commercial power of Europe. And these two races, the Genoese and the Venetians, as they grew in strength and influence, grew also in jealousy and rivalry. For three centuries they waged a fierce struggle with one another,—a contest for supremacy which would now and then weaken and abate, only to be renewed later with increased vigor and intensity. The second half of the fourteenth century saw one of these fresh outbursts. Venice, with the glory of her conquests, her riches, her commerce, her naval importance, had roused to new life the animosity of Genoa. And this conflict, culminating in the famous siege of Chioggia, almost cost Venice her life. It was the moment of her greatest danger. Was it to be death or liberty? The fate of the Republic hung on a promise of Vettor Pisani.

Vettor Pisani, son of Nicolo Pisani, who had won more than one naval victory for Venice, was born in 1324. He acted as subaltern on the fleet of Marco Michieli in 1354, and from 1355 to 1361 served with distinction in the navy. In 1364 he went as governor to Candia at a time when civil war was rife in the island. Under Doge Andrea Contarini, who was a distant relative, he figured in a number of prominent positions as naval officer, military engineer, and diplomatist. He became a favorite with the people, and was ultimately appointed admiral-in-chief at the time of the renewed struggle with the Genoese Republic.

War was formally declared in 1378. Genoa was anticipating the complete subjugation of the rival maritime power. She already foresaw the moment when the banner of Saint George would float above the Square of Saint Mark. Meanwhile Venice flew to arms. The fortifications were strengthened, the lagoons

were barricaded, every available man was pressed into the navy, and a new fleet was equipped. In the Basilica of Saint Mark, Vettor Pisani was solemnly invested with supreme command of the fleet, and as the banner of Venice was delivered into his charge Doge Contarini said: "We confide to you this victorious and dread standard which it will be your duty to restore to us unsullied and triumphant."

On the 24th of April, 1378, Pisani sailed with his fleet of fourteen galleys from the Lido. His first meeting with the Genoese leader, Luigi de' Fieschi, near the promontory of Porto d' Anzio, off Central Italy, brought triumph to the arms of Venice. Near the mouth of the yellow Tiber, in full view of the spot where the ancients had erected a temple to Fortune, the two hostile fleets came in sight of one another. A fierce storm lashed the waves into mountains of foam, the sea beat furiously on the rocks, the rain fell in torrents, and a violent wind tossed the ships hither and thither like toy boats. Some of the vessels were unable to reach the scene of action, and each fleet was reduced to nine galleys, thus making the chances equal. It was a strange fight, in which the elements struggled to keep the opponents apart and the rival vessels struggled to come to close quarters. Scarcely had a Genoese and a Venetian galley thrown the grappling-irons onto each other's decks than a great billow would sweep them apart and the vessels had to battle with the gale instead of with each other. Boarding was almost impossible, a hand-to-hand fight on the decks was impracticable, and the rain made some of the arms useless. Yet as the day closed the advantage was on the side of Venice. Four of the Genoese galleys were set on fire, one was carried off as a prize, and Fieschi himself was taken prisoner along with eight hundred of his followers.

The victor of this fiercely contested battle soon found himself master of over thirty galleys, and with this increased force spent several months endangering the interests of Genoa in the Mediterranean. He searched the waters for Doria, the great Genoese leader, anxious to destroy his rival and end the struggle. But a whole year passed before the duel took place.

In the meanwhile Pisani's fleet suffered heavy damage, for the winter of 1378-79 proved to be an unusually severe one. The Venetian admiral requested the privilege of wintering his galleys in the harbor of Venice. But the

home government judged otherwise, and he was forced to put up in the bay of Pola on the Austrian coast. The Genoese, on their side, had spent the winter months in fitting out a formidable armament, and were better prepared for the approaching contest. The month of May in the previous year had seen the battle of Porto d'Anzio, and now a beautiful May Day in 1379 witnessed another great fight. Doria, at the head of twenty-five galleys, suddenly appeared in the roads of Pola and challenged Pisani, who was stationed with his fleet in the harbor. Had Pisani, at this critical moment, been allowed to follow his own judgment, the result would probably have been far different. His force was inferior, numbering only eighteen sail; sickness had broken out among his men, and many of his sailors were raw recruits from the mainland. Prudence dictated a policy of defence. But his captains were impatient of inaction and clamored for an immediate attack. The council of war accused him of cowardice, and unanimously declared in favor of giving battle. Pisani was forced to yield against his will and to lead his fleet into an uneven contest ending in a defeat, the dishonor of which fell entirely on his head.

He went into battle doing his utmost to inspire his men. "Let not the name of Luciano Doria terrify you," he said. "It is not the names of commanders that will decide the conflict, but Venetian hearts and Venetian hands!" He led the attack with the word, "He that loves Saint Mark, let him follow me." The attack was bravely made, and at the outset the bold intrepidity of the Venetians carried everything before them. The Genoese admiral, Doria, fell dead upon the deck of his flagship, pierced by a Venetian lance, and for a moment the victory inclined to the side of Saint Mark. But the Genoese were roused to fresh fury by the loss of their leader, instead of being dispirited; and, making use of a feint, they retreated several miles to draw the enemy in pursuit. Then suddenly they turned upon them, threw them into confusion, and after a vigorous struggle ended by gaining a complete victory. Pisani strove to redeem the day by his example, but personal prowess and activity were of little avail. His line of battle wavered, the enemy rushed in, and fifteen Venetian galleys and nineteen hundred prisoners decked the triumph of the Genoese.

The news of the terrible disaster of Pola spread rage and consternation throughout Venice. Although in giving battle Pisani had been forced to act against his own wishes, the whole of the blame was thrown upon him. His reputation, his character, the memory of his former victories, all were forgotten by a fickle populace and a jealous aristocracy. His political enemies fanned the hostile spirit of people and government. In the Senate he was accused of incapacity and negligence. The Great Council decreed his deposition from the command of

the fleet and his immediate recall. He was brought to Venice in chains and was thrown into prison without being accorded the privilege of justifying his conduct. In the Senate a motion was brought forward, "that the accused shall be beheaded between the Red Columns," the odious place of public execution. Fortunately for the lasting honor of Venice even the grim severity and ingratitude of her rulers recoiled at this inhuman proposition. The motion was rejected, but the final sentence deprived him of all office during five years, and condemned him to six months' imprisonment. Such was the fate that Venice reserved for her defeated patriots.

Pisani served his sentence, and meanwhile the war with Genoa went on. After the destruction of the Venetian fleet at Pola the enemy raided the Adriatic, and town after town fell before the Genoese. They plundered and burned; they ravaged the coast; they took Palestrina; they threatened Venice itself. But Venice was thoroughly defended. A long chain of islands, forming a series of natural fortifications, protects the city on the side of the sea. These islands cover a length of thirty-five miles, yet the openings between them, which here and there form outlets from the lagoons to the sea, are not more than a thousand feet in width. These openings were now barricaded, palisades were thrown up, and a triple row of chains was stretched from shore to shore. Large vessels armed with formidable war-machines were stationed at intervals, and a sort of floating defence was improvised by binding together huge beams. In this way every approach to the city was closed. At Brondolo alone, twenty-five miles along the coast from Venice, and directly in front of Chioggia, there remained a free entrance. Here the Genoese concentrated their forces and made their main attack. Having first taken possession of the channel, they next captured a small suburb called Little Chioggia. Between this point and Chioggia proper the only means of communication was by a bridge a quarter of a mile in length, which spanned the lagoons and marshes.

On the 11th of August, 1379, the Genoese made their first assault on this bridge, which was still in the hands of the Venetians. The forces of the besiegers numbered 24,000, those of the Venetians only 3,500. Yet with these tremendous odds against them the troops of Saint Mark for six days repelled their adversaries. But on the 16th the balance turned. A Genoese sailor contrived to place a fire-ship under the bridge, and the sudden outburst of flames and smoke deceived the Venetians into thinking that the whole structure was on fire. At the same time the Genoese threw themselves upon the enemy's ranks with terrific force, and the bridge became a scene of fearful carnage. Finally the overwhelming numbers of the Genoese won the day, and they entered Chioggia in the retreating footsteps of the Venetians.

Chioggia was the key to Venice, and when Chioggia fell, Venice despaired. Terror spread throughout the city. The Popular Assembly met. The Campanile bell, rung only in times of danger, was tolled. The people gathered in a dense mass in front of the ducal palace. They called for peace—peace at any cost. The nobility were still ready to fight, but Doge Contarini, realizing the extreme danger of the Republic, yielded to the wish of the people. He sent ambassadors to Pietro Doria, the Genoese commander. They were instructed to sue for peace at any price, and with them they carried a sheet of white paper on which Doria was asked to have inscribed "whatever terms it might please him to dictate." Doria's answer, haughty and insolent, roused the indignation of the whole Venetian people. "You shall never have peace," he said, "until we have put a bridle on the bronze horses which stand in front of Saint Mark. When we hold them firmly in hand we shall know how to keep them quiet!" All desire for peace, even among the populace, was now at an end, and Venice to a man rallied around the standard of Saint Mark. From all sides was heard the cry, "To arms!"

Soon another feeling shaped itself into words: "Under one leader alone will we serve, and that leader is Vettor Pisani!" This feeling grew into a popular cry, a menace, a demand, and the Tribunal was forced to submit. Two days after the fall of Chioggia the senators, followed by an excited populace, went to the prison and ordered the release of the admiral. The dishonored hero had suddenly become the idol of the people, the only man able to save his country. It was Pisani's triumph. Borne aloft on the shoulders of his own sailors, he was greeted from a hundred thousand throats with the cry, "*Viva Vettor Pisani!*" "Long live our victor!" But he chided them and answered, "*Viva San Marco!*"

All Venice now enrolled itself under the beloved commander. The work of strengthening the defences went on with vigor. The Grand Canal and the Giudecca were barricaded, large vessels armed with artillery were stationed at the entrances of all the canals, and scout boats kept watch in every direction. But the situation in Venice daily grew more serious. The people were starving, and the distress and misery increased with alarming rapidity. Pisani felt that the safety of the Republic depended upon an energetic and decisive step. His plan was to recapture Chioggia. It was a hazardous project. The superiority of numbers on the side of the Genoese was overwhelming, but Pisani counted on the speedy return of Carlo Zeno, who had long been cruising in the Mediterranean with his squadron, and with whose help he expected to come out victorious. To aid the work of preparation, the Senate published a decree which, by a wise combination of promises and penalties, brought out an almost unprecedented offer of money, galleys, and personal services

from the whole Venetian people. In this way it was possible, in a short space of time, to equip a fleet of three squadrons of sufficient strength to assume the offensive.

It was a beautiful, bright night in December, 1379, when the banner of Venice was unfurled and the Venetian fleet of thirty-four galleys, sixty barks, and four hundred small boats sailed from the harbor of Venice. The enemy's armament counted fifty galleys and eight hundred light craft, besides 30,000 men. The plan followed by Pisani was to imprison the Genoese within their own lines by cutting off all outlet to the sea. This necessitated the blockading of three channels: the Straits of Chioggia, those of Brondolo, and the Canal of Lombardy. In the very teeth of the enemy, and under the raking fire of the artillery of the fleet and the cannonading from the forts, the Venetians gallantly built their dykes. Across each of the three entrances they submerged old hulks laden with stones, and on top of these they formed artificial barriers by stretching chains and sinking loads of marble and granite. In one week the blockade was completed, and by this feat of brave audacity the Genoese were caught in a trap.

But the Venetians were meanwhile suffering intense privations. Hunger, hardships, and exposure, bad arms, bad food, and bitter cold had begun to have their effect on the raw recruits. The men stood in water up to their waists at the dykes, working under the ordeal of murderous volleys from the forts, which mowed them down like stubble. The condition became daily more insufferable, until at last men, officers, and sailors declared that the limit of endurance had been reached and clamored to return to Venice. Pisani knew that a retreat at this juncture meant the death of the Republic, and he brought forward all the energy and determination of his character to persuade his men to stand at their posts. After renewed entreaties he promised that if by New Year's Day, in forty-eight hours from then, the ships of Carlo Zeno could not be descried on the horizon, the whole fleet would return to Venice.

The next two days were a time of agonizing suspense. Eagerly the men strained their eyes as they had never strained them before, watching the horizon with ill-repressed anxiety for the shadow of a sail. The 30th of December passed, and yet no friendly vessel hove in sight; the 31st came and went and the tension grew hourly greater. Night fell upon the watchers and no help was at hand. With the first rays of daylight on the morning of January 1, 1380, the men were again at their posts, and then a great shout of delirious joy went up from every galley. Fifteen sail were looming in the distance, and as they approached the banner of Saint Mark could be seen floating from the masthead of Zeno's flagship. Venice was saved.

After the arrival of Carlo Zeno the conclusion

of the war of Chioggia became only a matter of time. It lingered on for several months, but little by little the situation of the enemy grew more hopeless, their resistance weaker, and they were forced to retreat step by step from their positions. At last Chioggia surrendered unconditionally, and the Doge, accompanied by Pisani and Zeno, made his formal entrance into the city, and the banner of Saint Mark replaced the standard of Saint George. Venice was now once more mistress of her possessions and of her independence.

But the single-hearted and beloved admiral who had by strenuous effort and unflinching bravery succeeded in preserving the life of his country was now suffering from the terrible privations to which he had exposed himself like

any common sailor. Night and day he had toiled and watched at the dykes, he had shirked neither duty nor labor, however severe, and he had passed weeks without sleep or rest. Wounded, and racked with fever, he died in harness like a stout war-horse, giving orders on deck up to the last moment in a slight engagement with the enemy. He was fifty-six years old when he died. A magnificent public funeral was given to him, and on that day a great concourse of people followed the dead hero. The doge, the nobility, and the clergy joined to do him homage, and the procession was so long that it covered half the city. And thus did Venice honor her successful heroes.

JESSIE P. FROTHINGHAM.

PRINCETON, N.J.

A NEST-BUILDING FISH—THE STICKLEBACK*

THE first care of the male stickleback, before courting, is to build a suitable home for his future mates and offspring. With his mouth he picks up stems of grass and water-weeds, and weaves them into a compact nest as perfect as a bird's, though different in shape and pattern. It resembles a barrel, open at both ends: this form being necessary because the eggs have to be constantly aerated by a current of water through the nest. When the building operations are completed, the little householder sallies forth into his pond or brook in search of a mate who will come and stock his neatly built home for him. At this period the colors of his wedding garment become more brilliant than ever; he gleams in silver and changeable gems: when he finds his lady-love, he flashes around her, looking his handsomest and best with his lustrous colors glistening like an opal. If she listens to his suit, he coaxes her into the nest with most affectionate endearments. One wife, however, does not suffice to fill the nest with eggs, and the stickleback is a firm believer in large families. So, as soon as his first mate has completed her egg-laying, he sets out in search of another. Thus he goes on until the home is full of eggs, bringing back one mate after another in proportion to his success in wooing and fighting. For the stickleback is a terrible fighter. The males battle with one another for possession of their mates; in their fierce duels they make fearful use of the formidable spines on their backs, sometimes entirely ripping up and cutting to pieces their ill-fated adversary.

When the nest is full of eggs, the father fish comes out in his best light as their guardian and protector. He watches over them with ceaseless care, freeing them from parasites and warding off the attacks of would-be enemies who seek to devour them, even though the intruder be several times his own size. The spines on his back here stand him once more in good stead; for, small as he is, the stickleback is not

an antagonist to be lightly despised: he can inflict a wound which a perch or a trout knows how to estimate at its full value. But that is not all the good parent's duty. He takes the eggs out of the nest every now and then with his snout, airs them a little in the fresh water outside, and then replaces and rearranges them, so that all may get a fair share of oxygen and may hatch out about simultaneously. It is this question of oxygen, indeed, which gives the father fish the greatest trouble. That necessary of life is dissolved in water in very small quantities: and it is absolutely needed by every egg in order to enable it to undergo those vital changes which we know as hatching. To keep up a due supply of oxygen, therefore, the stickleback ungrudgingly devotes laborious days to poisoning himself delicately just above the nest, and fanning the eggs with his fins and tail, so as to set up a constant current of water through the centre of the barrel. He sits upon the eggs just as truly as a hen does: only, he sits upon them, not for warmth, but for aëration. For weeks this exemplary parent continues his monotonous task, ventilating the spawn many times every day, till the time comes for hatching. It takes about a month for the eggs to develop; and then the father's position grows more arduous than ever. He has to rock a thousand cradles at once, so to speak, and to pacify a thousand crying babies. On the one hand, enemies hover about, trying to eat the tender, transparent little fry, and these he must drive off: on the other hand, the good nurse must take care that the active young fish do not stray far from the nest, and so expose themselves prematurely to the manifold dangers of the outer world. Till they are big enough and strong enough to take care of themselves, he watches with incessant vigilance over their safety; as soon as they can go forth with tolerable security upon the world of their brook or pond, he takes at last a well-merited holiday.

* Condensed from the "Strand Magazine."

ROUND THE TABLE

A GOSSIP ON GOSSIP

Gossip has fallen into disrepute, and a venerable word which once signified a familiar friend or a sponsor in baptism has come commonly to suggest an idle tale or its bearer. It is this usual signification which made it a matter of course for a well-known professor in a New England university to refer his class for a critical estimate of a certain figure in English literature to an author whom it will here suffice to call "Dryasdust," and then slightly to add that B and C were the best among the "gossiping biographers." He did not lack, in truth, his scholarly precedents; chief among them Mr. Freeman, with his fling at the "turn of mind which is more concerned with gossip, old or new, than with real history." A hard name has gossip, and without either advocating the restoration of an obsolete meaning or undertaking a plea for gossip *in toto*, from the libels of the press to the scandal of the sewing-circle, it is against the wholesale degradation of the term that this unassuming remonstrance is directed.

We have given a bad name to not so objectionable a dog after all, but a much-used, thoroughly domesticated animal in which we are all in some degree concerned. That this concern has its limitations is of course past gainsaying, and the sanity of Lowell's protest against the "indecent exposures" of biography is obvious. This much premised, the fact remains that interest in the personal details of life—the gossip, so-called, of biography and history—is an inherent trait of human nature and is, in its proper sphere, as legitimate and praiseworthy as the curiosity which extends the scope of science. What is it but the presence of the picturesque, natural, flesh-and-blood incidents and details, the gossip imaginatively treated, that makes most people prefer the historical novel to the orthodox history, or turns us from one biography which contents itself with a dispassionate, critical examination to another which draws a graphic picture? Aside from their choice of subjects or their respective merits or demerits, is it not in large part the skilful use of gossip that leads thousands keenly to relish Macaulay or Froude while they vote Stubbs or Freeman tiresome? It will carry us through Parton's three large volumes on Andrew Jackson with less exertion and more pleasure than we experience with Professor Sumner's one small octavo; it induced many, during the recent Napoleonic renaissance, to read the sketchy "Life" published by one of the popular magazines to the neglect of

the masterly study which appeared simultaneously in the "Century;" and it is the taste for it which welcomes the never-failing supply of personal memoirs and makes salable the trash of Sunday journalism. We cannot help it; we inherit the craving with our social instincts.

Doubtless it is not of great moment for a biographer to chronicle that Julius Cæsar was bald and was vain enough to wish to conceal the fact; that the first Napoleon wrote a shocking hand to cloak his no less shocking spelling; or that Washington could on occasion swear with ease, had ill-fitting false teeth, and wore a thirteen boot; but if the knowledge of these trifles will make Cæsar, Napoleon, or Washington seem less like shadowy demigods to us who live after them, let them be told. It may not be deemed important that a biographer should state that the youth of Frank Stockton—to take an unquestionably modern instance—was given over to such pranks as the substituting of cold mush for the usual filling in his mother's mince pies designed to furnish forth a dinner for Methodist parsons; but if such a story will throw light upon the development of Stockton's whimsical genius then the incident is worthy of record. This is of the nature of small beer, of course, but the principle is broad of application. It is the specific touch and familiar image that best convey an idea, and every intelligent being recognizes that an illustration will better drive home a truth and serve a larger, fuller use than will alone the unillustrated though deftly-worded paragraph which tickles the palate of a brahmin few and is as an abomination to a majority among whom caviare is unknown. Confessedly this is trite truth and platitude unabashed, but none the less a truism crying in the wilderness. The Ten Commandments are among the neglected platitudes.

To history no whit less than to biography is this applicable. The ideal of the historian should be something beyond the uniting of scholarly accuracy with a palatable style, although the masters of this, even, are few. The historians themselves begin to realize this, and one of them told us not long ago that "the picturesque writers of history have all along been right in theory; they have been wrong only in practice." The admission is prophetic of better things. If some day the historians come to regard it as a worthy ideal to strive to impart accurate ideas of men and institutions in such a way that they shall appeal to the greatest number, then the judicious use of gossip will not be overlooked.

Some of the books which the world loves best are gossip. Such is Smiles's "Self Help," which has been read, printed, and translated again and again, and such, let us be grateful, is Boswell's "Johnson." Truly the gossips are good company, and there are some among us who, when in quest of a picture of a past age which shall have verisimilitude and life, will promptly betake ourselves to their not always decorous, but altogether delectable society. Glance at four of them; men whom we all know well as names, but seldom read.

Is it the age of chivalry we would reconstruct? An hour with Froissart, and the times of unrest are before us. Kings and queens, knights and ladies, tilts and tournaments, dress and food, the fashion of speech, the clank of armor, the flashing of banners, the besieging of castles, the pillaging of towns, brave deeds and black deeds,—all as it appeared to Sir John and his fellows who were so fortunate as to be born in the glittering upper stratum and not in the mire with the commonalty and Wat Tyler.

Is it the Renaissance that attracts? Cellini will draw the picture, and with him we may visit Titian at Venice; dine amid music, jessamines, and the laughter of women with grave Michael Angelo; look upon Clement VII in a rage over an unfinished chalice; view Francis I, Charles V, or Cosmo de Medici in the kindly light of patron of the fine arts; or watch with feverish interest the casting of Cellini's own great "Perseus."

And there is Pepys,—Samuel Pepys, sometime Secretary to the Admiralty in the reigns of Charles II and the second James,—a matchless gossip and most minute chronicler of the tweaking of the nose of Mrs. Grundy by the overblithesome Stuarts; a Londoner of the period of the Great Fire and the Plague, and an eyewitness of the troubled times which saw Charles I beheaded and Cromwell's body torn from its grave and strung upon a gibbet. We may lounge in the dressing-room of Nell Gwynn at the playhouse, or attend the hanging and quartering of Harrison at Charing Cross; the choice of entertainment is as varied as the life of the Commonwealth and the Restoration. Mark this vivid etching of bygone royalty:

"They came to Sir G. Carteret's house at Cranbourne, and there were entertained, and all made drunk; and, being all drunk, Armerer did come to the King, and swore to him by God, 'Sir,' says he, 'you are not so kind to the Duke of York of late as you used to be. —' Not I! says the King. 'Why so?' — 'Why' says he, 'if you are, let us drink his health.' — 'Why let us,' says the King. Then he fell on his knees and drank it; and, having done, the King began to drink it. 'Nay, sir,' says Armerer, 'by God you must do it on your knees!' So he did, and then all the company: and having done it, all fell a crying for joy, being all mandlin and kissing one another! the King the Duke of York, and the Duke of York the King! and in such a maudlin pickle as never people were: and so passed the day!"

Eighty years of life in the eighteenth century as a subject of the first three Georges are of themselves a rare qualification for a gossip;

but when we reflect that, in addition to this, Horace Walpole was the son of a prime minister of England whose term of office covered over twenty years; that he was himself a member of Parliament; that he was courted by the society of both France and England; that as a novelist he was one of the forerunners of the romantic movement which gave us Sir Walter Scott, and that he was the most finished letter-writer among English men of letters,—we who delight in the sparkle and wit of his "gossiping gazettes," as he called his letters, thank the kindly Fates that he was not above gossip. Artificial like his age, he is never dull, and the picture of Georgian society and that extraordinary eighteenth century which fascinates while it repels, is as vivid as it is complete. The same light touch charms and amuses whether it deal with a reception at Versailles or a party at Vauxhall, a bet at White's or the funeral of a king. How are the dead made quick, the past and present bridged by the comment on the rise of Methodism, the American Revolution, and the upheaval in France; by the chat of the theatres and actors, of Peg Woffington and Cibber, Garrick, Kemble, Mrs. Bracegirdle, and Siddons, the new opera by Bach, and the success of the "School for Scandal;" by the criticism of the *new* books—"Tom Jones," "Sir Charles Grandison," "Tristram Shandy," "The Sentimental Journey," Percy's "Reliques," "The Spirit of Laws," "The Rights of Man," Hume's "England," and Gibbon's "Decline and Fall;" by the opinions and anecdotes of his contemporaries,—Voltaire, Pope, Gray, Rousseau, Burke, Wesley, Chatham, Pitt, Newcastle, Chesterfield, his father Sir Robert, Lady Montagu, Hannah More, Miss Burney, Dr. Johnson, Boswell, Herschel, Hume, Sterne, Richardson, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Fielding as a magistrate, Hogarth at Calais,—one might go on and on; his acquaintance was boundless.

One "little picture painted well," from his description of the funeral of George II, is characteristic of Walpole, of his century, and of human life:

"When we came to the chapel of Henry the Seventh, all solemnity and decorum ceased; no order was observed, people sat or stood where they could or would; the yeomen of the guard were crying out for help, oppressed by the immense weight of the coffin; the bishop read sadly, and blundered in the prayers; the fine chapter *Man that is born of a woman* was chanted, not read; and the anthem, besides being immeasurably tedious, would have served as well for a nuptial. The real serious part was the figure of the Duke of Cumberland, heightened by a thousand melancholy circumstances. He had a dark brown adonis, and a cloak of black cloth, with a train of five yards. Attending the funeral of a father could not be pleasant: his leg extremely bad, yet forced to stand upon it near two hours; his face bloated and distorted with his late paralytic stroke, which has affected, too, one of his eyes, and placed over the mouth of the vault, into which, in all probability, he must himself so soon descend; think how unpleasant a situation! He bore it all with a firm and unaffected countenance. This grave scene was fully contrasted by the burlesque Duke of Newcastle. He fell into a fit of crying the moment he came into the chapel, and flung himself back in a stall, the archbishop

hovering over him with a smelling-bottle; but in two minutes his curiosity got the better of his hypocrisy, and he ran about the chapel with his glass to spy who was or was not there, spying with one hand, and mopping his eyes with the other. Then returned the fear of catching cold; and the Duke of Cumberland, who was sinking with heat, felt himself weighed down, and, turning round, found it was the Duke of Newcastle standing upon his train, to avoid the chill of the marble."

Very suggestive of pleasant conceits is that story from the heart, "The Gates Ajar." Undeniably attractive is that materialized Heaven, with its spiritualized ginger-snaps and pink blocks for the children, its machines for the mechanical, its heavenly carrara for the sculptor, its building of cathedrals for the architect, its books, its music, its forests, its meadows, and its flowers. If one only could know that the unseen world would mean tales from the very lips of Scott, new music from an etherialized Keats, comradeship with Lamb, or walks by the water-brooks with Izaak Walton, what most wizened old sceptic of us all would escape captivation! In some such world it is pleasant to fancy a gathering of the gossips. They might meet at the "Mermaid Tavern,"—surely there will be one; a kind of "Mermaid," "Forty Immortals," and "Johnson's Club" rolled in one. Doctor Johnson should preside; for the Doctor loved presiding, and without him there would

lack Boswell, an indispensability at a symposium of gossips. What if Walpole did once upon a time allude to them as "a mountebank and his zany." A hundred years' contemplation of posterity undoubtedly chastens any ghost, and Walpole had no foolish crotchets about consistency. Yes, they would harmonize, and Walpole should uphold the Doctor's right with Boswell on the left; and at Walpole's side should sit Cellini, for he liked him. Plutarch, Herodotus, and Vasari should be there; they would prove congenial; and Froissart, Philip de Commines, Saint Simon, Bassompierre,—all the gossips worthy of the honorable title. Were it ladies' night one might meet Lady Mary Montagu, or Mme. Roland, or Mme. Sévigné. Then, when the uneaten fragments of ambrosia had been removed and the nectar had begun to flow, Boswell might ask all the leading questions that he chose, Pepys boast of his speech at the bar of the House of Commons, Saint Simon tell of Louis Quatorze, Walpole repeat George Selwyn's good things or his own, Bassompierre vilify Richelieu, or Cellini brag again how he killed the Constable of France. There should be talk, good talk, and the very cream of gossip.

MARK LEE LUTHER.

NEW YORK.

THE LENS WE USE

S AID a mother recently: "Mary would like to go eight blocks to the Q— school, to get into Miss B's room, rather than a block and a half to the M— school, with some one else as her teacher. That proves to me that Miss B is an excellent teacher!" This suggested the thought: "True or false be the lens, the child constitutes the glass through which many a mother sees the world."

I wonder if we—all of us—realize how prone we are to magnify the virtues or vices of another, the strength or weakness of an undertaking, because of the lens through which we gaze. How apt we are to slight worthy features because the breadth of the lens fails to take them in, and either we have not learned to move it over the entire surface under inspection, or the mind is too greatly centred in the one thought. How much, even are we given to seeing through the lens what the mind's eye throws there rather than what really exists.

It was the careless, albeit enthusiastic astronomer who was forced to the humiliating confession that he had not, after all, discovered a new world in a wonderful state of heat, paling and glowing at intervals, as he had published in a moment of excitement, but that he had been deceived by the light of a fire-fly imprisoned between the lenses of his telescope.

The extreme club-woman reads the signs of the times and foretells a glorious era of emancipation for woman where the progressive little housewife sees but an opportunity to gather stores of fresh thoughts for the minds of the home circle and a restful change from domestic routine that will give new strength for entering upon another round of duties.

The spirit of envy turns the restful verdure of many a word or deed to a sickly green, and sees only stunted growth where there actually springs from the rich soil of the heart the earnest effort of loyal friendship.

The narrow nature spells "license" where the spirit of charity sees at a glance "genuine conviction;" the sensitive soul reads "Self" where the sensible mind finds no focus upon the word. The coldly constituted nature glances at the hopes of another and marks the broken column where the sympathetic heart gazes with joy upon the laurel wreath destined for another; and the bilious temper reads, in capitals, "DON'T," where the ardent spirit sees, in flaming letters, "DARE!"

Even as clay is hardened and wax softened by the same sun, so the use we make of the lens through which we gaze influences our present and determines our future. How important, then, the choice and the use!

FANNIE DAY HURST.

SELF CULTURE

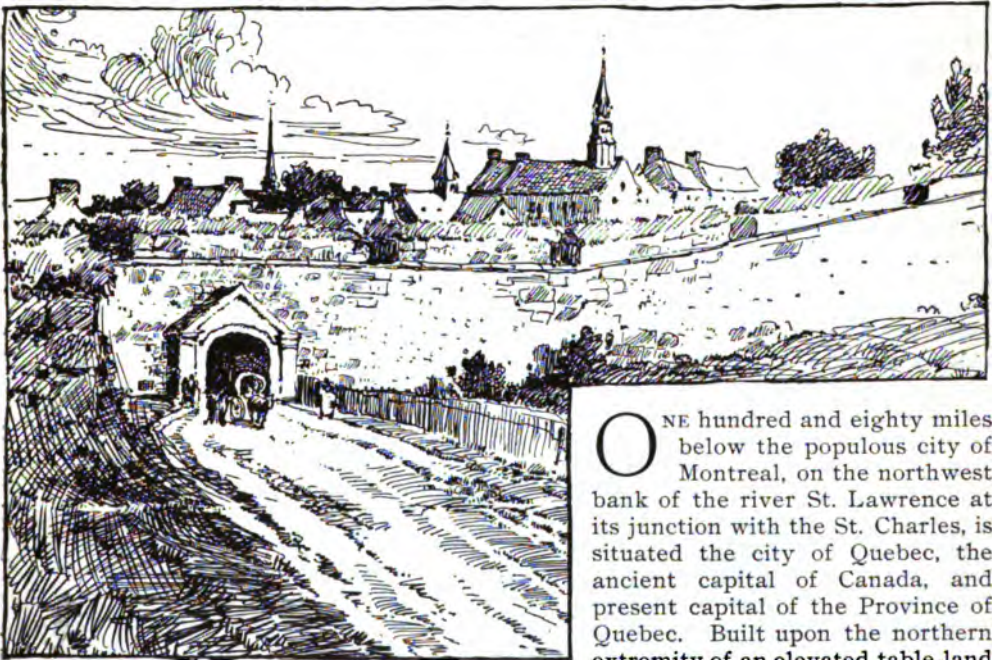
A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. IX

AUGUST, 1899

NO. 6

QUEBEC



OLD ST. JOHN'S GATE, FROM OUTSIDE THE WALLS
(From a sketch by Waller Griffin)

ONE hundred and eighty miles below the populous city of Montreal, on the northwest bank of the river St. Lawrence at its junction with the St. Charles, is situated the city of Quebec, the ancient capital of Canada, and present capital of the Province of Quebec. Built upon the northern extremity of an elevated table-land which forms the left bank of the St. Lawrence for a distance of eight

or nine miles, it rises in picturesque grandeur and commands a view which is unsurpassed on this continent. The highest part of this headland is Cape Diamond, 333 feet above the level of the river, and crowned by the fortress which occupies an area of more than forty acres of ground. On the southeast side a bold and precipitous front is exposed, while on the north and west the declivity is sloping and gradual. At the head of ocean navigation, about three hundred miles from the Gulf, Quebec possesses a harbor which is spacious and capable of accommodating vessels of the largest tonnage, while its docks and tidal basin, constructed of limestone and iron, and including the graving-dock on the Lévis side of the river, rank among the most perfect works of the kind in the world. The beautiful island of Orleans divides the river into two channels and protects the harbor on the northeast.

Mr. William Dean Howells thus writes of this quaint old city:

"Quebec is but a pantomimic reproduction of France; it is as if two centuries in a new land, amidst the primeval silences of nature and the long hush of the northern winters, had stilled the tongues of the lively folk and made them taciturn as we of a graver race. They have

kept the ancestral vivacity of manner; the elegance of the shrug is intact; the talking hands take part in dialogue; the agitated person will have its share of expression. But the loud and eager tone is wanting, and their dumb show mystifies the beholder almost as much as the southern architecture under the slanting northern sun. It is not America; if it is not France, what is it?"

There are two Quebecs, the old and the new. In half a century great changes have taken place. Many ancient landmarks have been removed. The city gates—once the glory of the place—have all gone, and in their stead there are two arches. The beauty of the town remains, however, and every inch of ground has its history, military, sacred, social, and industrial. Quebec is always interesting, and eminent pens of almost every nationality in the world have not hesitated to describe her attractions and to tell the story of her remarkable career.

It was in July, 1608, that Samuel de Champlain, navigator, soldier, scientist, and patriot, sailed up the river St. Lawrence in a little barque of fourteen tons, and anchored before the steep cliffs of the headland which was destined to become the seat of French power on this continent. Champlain was deeply impressed with the sight which met his eyes. He had never seen a spot, in all his travels and wanderings, which could compare with it. Its position was superb; its natural strength filled him with hope; he had no doubt of its possibilities. He gave the place its present name, though long before his arrival the Algonquin tribe of Indians had called it Quebio or Quebec, the translation of which from their tongue was "a narrowing." But the early name was Stadacona, according to Jacques Cartier. Hawkins has strong grounds for believing that Quebec is a Norman word, and not Indian at all. Major Walley's *Journal of the expedition against Canada under Phips in 1690* uniformly terms it "Cabeck."

Champlain at once began the work of colonization and defence. His sturdy companions felled the mighty trees of the forest, and in their stead substantial buildings soon appeared. Every precaution was taken to guard against attack from the savages, as well as from the blasts of the approaching winter. Champlain was a born leader and master of men. He had courage and a dauntless bearing. He

could be gracious and kindly, but he had a temper also with which it was dangerous to trifle. Jean Duval, a reprobate "of the first water," had good reason to regret that in a moment of greed he formed a conspiracy against his chief. His object was robbery, and his scheme included the murder of the leader of the expedition. Fortunately Champlain heard of the plot and seized four of the ringleaders. Duval was promptly hanged, and his head, exhibited for days from the highest point of the fort, afforded a ghastly proof of the Governor's vengeance. The other three conspirators were sent in irons to France. From that time forward good order prevailed in the little colony of less than one hundred souls.

From Quebec, from time to time, Champlain made numerous expeditions into the interior of the country, and regularly sent home particulars of his discoveries and adventures. He returned to France and gained the favor of the king. In 1611 we find him again in the colony. The fur trade became unprofitable, owing to sharp competition, and Champlain went back to France and prepared a scheme for a new association which was to embark in the peltry business. He arrived in New France on the 7th of May, 1613, only to return to the old land in the following year. When he reached Quebec again it was in 1615, and this time he was accompanied by missionaries. A chapel was erected and put into the charge of Denis Jamay and Pacifique du Plessis. Champlain was disappointed at the slow growth of the colony, and communicated his views to the court. Cardinal Duc de Richelieu dissolved the old fur-trading company, and formed the society known as the "Hundred Associates," with a capital of three hundred thousand livres, and full jurisdiction over New France and Florida. Artisans of all classes were sent to Quebec, and the company promised to support them for a space of three years and grant them as much land as they could cultivate. All settlers had to be natives of France and members of the Roman Catholic faith, Huguenots being debarred.

The expedition sailed in the spring, but was overtaken by an English fleet, and ships and transports were carried to England. When David Kirke arrived at Tadoussac, he sent word to Champlain, ordering him to surrender the town, which summons, however, was declined. Kirke

bided his time, the supplies of the French were cut off, and starvation was imminent. On the 19th of July three English vessels reached Quebec, and once more surrender was demanded. To save the lives of his famished followers Champlain gave up everything. Those who wished to remain were allowed to do so, but the greater number asked to be conveyed to France by way of England. By the time that they had reached Plymouth the war was over, and by the terms of the treaty all conquests made prior to April 24, 1629, were to be restored. Champlain was taken to London as a prisoner, notwithstanding his strenuous protests. A ransom was demanded, but he would not allow it, and a month later he was released. The company's losses were so heavy that

and improve the seat of his administration. He began the construction of the Chapel of Notre Dame de Recouvrance. His health became broken two years later, and on Christmas Day, 1635, he died in

the fort which he had built. The city is full of memorials to him, but it was not until September, 1898, that a monument was put up in his honor. As a work of art it takes fitting rank with any shaft on this side of the Atlantic. It is about fifty feet high, the bronze statue itself being fifteen feet in height. It is placed on Dufferin Terrace, one of the finest sites in the world for such a purpose. Messrs. Le Cardonnell and Chevré, sculptors, of France, executed the commission at a cost of \$30,000, which sum was raised by popular subscription among the citizens of Quebec, through the instrumentality of the Hon. Judge Alexandre Chauveau, President of the Committee.

In 1663 the colony of New France became a Royal Government, and Quebec was



CHAMPLAIN'S MONUMENT, DUFFERIN TERRACE

the expansion of the colony was retarded for several years, but, having faith in the future of the enterprise, Champlain crossed the ocean again in 1633 at the head of a large party of colonists. Masse and De Brébœuf, the Jesuit missionaries, were with him. Still holding the office of governor, he set about vigorously to repair

made its capital. An English fleet under the command of Admiral Sir William Phips, arrived before the town from Boston, Mass., in 1690, and attempted to take it, but Count de Frontenac, an imperious soldier, who had seen service on many a battle-field, answered the insolent summons to surrender, by the mouths of



DUFFERIN TERRACE AND CHATEAU FRONTENAC

his guns, and the invaders were forced to fly after meeting heavy loss. The little church of Notre Dame des Victoires commemorates that triumph of arms. From that date until September 13, 1759, the French held possession of the colony, when it fell into the hands of the British under General Wolfe at the memorable battle of the Plains of Abraham. A splendid monument marks the place where Wolfe died victorious, and another shaft in the Governor's Garden, facing Dufferin Terrace and the river, has been erected to perpetuate the memory and renown of Wolfe and Montcalm. On the front is this inscription in Latin, "Valor gave them a common death, history a common fame, and posterity a common monument." About one mile from the city a monument marks the scene of the battle of Ste. Foye in 1760. It is dedicated to the memory of the French and English soldiers who fell in the engagement between Generals De Lévis and Murray, when France sought to regain Quebec and undo the results of the conquest, and was erected by the St. Jean Baptiste Society in 1860. It is built of iron on a stone base, and at the top is a statue of Bellona, the gift of Prince Napoleon. Four bronze mortars stand at the corners of the capital of the pedestal. The names of Murray, the British general, and De Lévis, the French commander, appear on the right and left sides respectively. By the treaty of

1763 Quebec was ceded to Britain by the French.

In 1775 General Montgomery, with an American force of 700 men, attacked the city, hoping to carry it by storm, and expecting support from the French inhabitants, who were reported to be disaffected. He advanced on the Lower Town from the west, along the road between the river and the foot of Cape Diamond, while Benedict Arnold had instructions to proceed from the General Hospital by way of the St. Charles. A junction of the two bodies was to have been made at the lower end of Mountain Hill, and together the united force was to push through Prescott Gate. The plan failed, however, the British being on the alert, and Montgomery was killed at the head of his little army. His body was taken up and carried within the walls, where it was identified by the widow Prentice, the famous landlady of the old Free-Masons' Hall, where Montgomery had lodged while in the British service years before. Since then Quebec has been free from attack.

The city is divided into Upper Town and Lower Town; access to the former from the latter being obtained by a steep and winding street, several flights of narrow steps, and an elevator. In the Lower Town are situated the principal banks, warehouses, wholesale establishments, and merchants' offices. The narrow and irregular streets are in striking contrast

with the wider thoroughfares of Upper Town, where are situated the dwellings of the well-to-do, the public buildings, most of the churches, the public parks, retail stores, and small shops. To the west are the suburbs of St. John, St. Louis, and St. Rochs. The latter occupies the lower plain and is a place of great commercial importance, boasting of shops which would do credit to New York or Boston. Victoria Park, which contains a large statue of the Queen, has lately been opened to the public, and affords accommodation for more than ten thousand persons. The other two suburbs are on the same level with the Upper Town. Southwest of St. John stretch the historic Plains of Abraham, the Mecca of all tourists who visit Quebec. Four Martello towers occupy commanding positions.

Dufferin Terrace, which is an extension of the old Durham Terrace, is one of the finest promenades in existence. It fronts on the river, and affords a view of water and hill and valley, for miles away, of unsurpassed beauty. It is 1,400 feet in length, and 200 feet above the level of the river. Part of this terrace is now the site of the Chateau Frontenac, one of Canada's palatial hostelrys, which replaced the old Normal School and the Chateau St. Louis, once the homes of the governors under both the French and English régimes. In

front of the Chateau Frontenac is the new Court-House, substantially built and handsome in appearance. The Post-office is on Buade Street. In its northern façade is the famous tablet of the Golden Dog, which William Kirby, poet and novelist, has immortalized in his powerful romance of "Le Chien d'Or."

There is much to tempt the sight-seer in Quebec. But, naturally enough, he is first attracted by the citadel, fortifications, and gates, about which so much has been written and said. The first of these may be seen without inconvenience. On passing through the chain gate which admits to the trenches, and Dalhousie Gate which is sentinelled by a guard, the visitor finds himself in the hands of a Royal Canadian artilleryman, who will escort him about the premises and show everything that is to be seen. The little gun captured at Bunker Hill by the British is always exhibited with a triumphant air, especially to American tourists. The King's Bastion, where the noon and half-past nine o'clock guns are fired, gives the best view of the city and surrounding country that may be had. It stands over 350 feet above the St. Lawrence. Besides the officers' quarters there is the summer residence of the governor-general of Canada. It occupies a very striking position, and affords from the platform a glorious prospect



The Citadel

King's Bastion

Dufferin Terrace

Laval University

QUEBEC FROM POINT LÉVIS

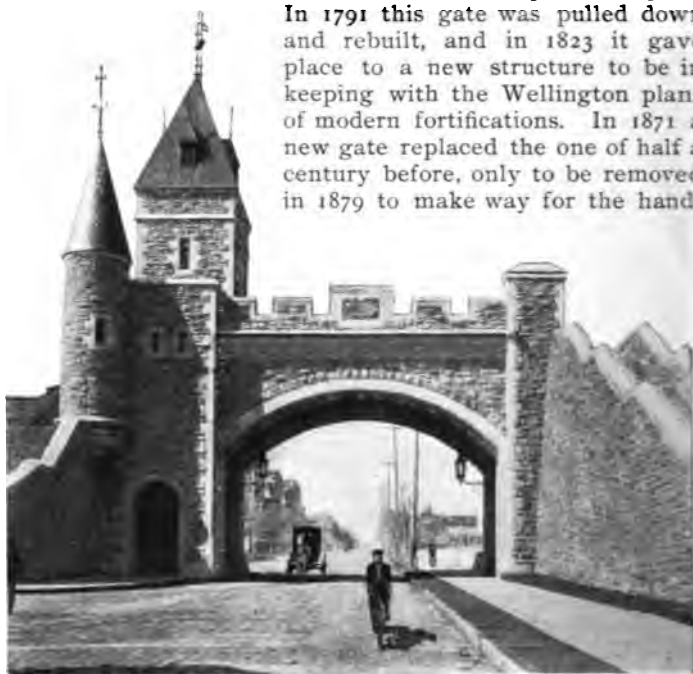
indeed. During Lord Lorne's administration the Princess Louise built a large ball and dining room, from designs of her own, which exhibit great taste. The citadel, as it exists to-day, was built in 1823, on plans approved by the Duke of Wellington, and cost about \$25,000,000. The barracks are casemated, and several of the buildings are bomb-proof. The under-ground passages, which are often referred to, are not shown to visitors. The esplanade, a pretty plat, extends from St. Louis to Kent Gate. Here the troops in times past used to exercise, to the delight of crowds of spectators.

The Grand Battery, which affords a fine prospect, runs along the edge of the cliff from the summit of Mountain Hill to Palace Gate. The heavy mounted guns which command the river give the place a formidable and warlike aspect. On the river side, apart from the fortress, are the Assembly Battery, 9 guns; the Grand Battery, 17 guns; the St. Charles Battery, 2 guns and 3 mortars; Half-Moon Battery, 1 gun; Hope Gate Battery, 4 guns; Montcalm Battery, 4 guns; Nunnery Battery No. 2, 4 guns and 2 howitzers; Nunnery Battery No. 1, 2 guns and 2 howitzers. Beneath Dufferin Terrace there are Wolfe's Battery of 4 guns and 1 Palliser cannon, and two small batteries with 4 guns. On the heights of Lévis there are three powerful forts.

Of the old gates, which for years proved such drawing cards for the city, not a vestige remains. They have all been removed to meet the growing demands of commerce. Many deplore the sacrilege, and those who would keep Quebec as a show town are among the number; but the enterprising business men have had their way, and one after the other the gates have been taken down. St. Louis Gate was originally built in 1694. In the various wars it bore its part. The major portion of Montcalm's army, after the

defeat on the Plains, passed into the city through it, on its way back by way of Palace Gate and the bridge of boats over the St. Charles River to the camp at Beauport.

In 1791 this gate was pulled down and rebuilt, and in 1823 it gave place to a new structure to be in keeping with the Wellington plans of modern fortifications. In 1871 a new gate replaced the one of half a century before, only to be removed in 1879 to make way for the hand-



ST. LOUIS GATE

some archway with its Norman spires and castellated turrets which is to-day so justly admired.

Along the summit of the fortification wall, the pedestrian soon arrives at Kent Gate, named after the Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria, to the cost of which Her Majesty contributed from her private purse. Its foundation stone was laid in 1879 by the Princess Louise. It is a very pretty structure. A little to the north of Kent Gate is St. John's Gate, the site of one of the original gates under the French régime. (See the vignette on page 601.) Its history differs little from the history of St. Louis Gate. Another portion of Montcalm's beaten troops passed through it behind the shelter of the defences. It was pulled down in 1791, on account of its ruinous condition, and was rebuilt by the British government. It remained until 1865, when it was demolished and a new gate was erected in its place, only to come down a little over a year ago to make way for the increased traffic of the city, and to allow space for the electric railway cars to pass. The Palace

Gate, the last of the French portals, has pretty much the same history. Montcalm's soldiers passed through it also in 1759. General Murray repaired it, and in 1791 it was demolished to make room for a more noble structure. In 1874 Palace Gate, too, succumbed, and this time it was not replaced. It took its name from the residence of the Intendants of New France. Hope Gate was situated on the northern face of the ramparts, and was built by Col. Henry Hope, commandant

struction was begun in 1647. Nineteen years later it was consecrated by Mgr. Laval de Montmorency, first bishop of the diocese, but in 1650 mass was said in it for the first time. The bombardment of 1759 inflicted serious damage on the church, which, however, was soon repaired. The Basilica is 216 feet long by 108 feet wide. It is rich in beautiful and costly oil paintings, most of which were rescued from the mob in Paris after the Reign of Terror, just as the match was about to be applied



THE BASILICA AND FABRIQUE STREET

of the British forces and Administrator of the Province in 1786, who gave it his own name. It came down in 1874 and was not rebuilt. Prescott Gate commanded Mountain Hill, and led to the Lower Town. It was erected in 1797 by General Robert Prescott, who succeeded Lord Dorchester as governor-general in 1796. Prescott Gate was removed in 1781.

Quebec has almost a right to the title of "the City of Churches." Of course the Roman Catholic edifices are the more numerous. The first of these is the Basilica, which can easily accommodate within its walls a congregation of 4,000. Its con-

struction was begun in 1647. Nineteen years later it was consecrated by Mgr. Laval de Montmorency, first bishop of the diocese, but in 1650 mass was said in it for the first time. The bombardment of 1759 inflicted serious damage on the church, which, however, was soon repaired. The Basilica is 216 feet long by 108 feet wide. It is rich in beautiful and costly oil paintings, most of which were rescued from the mob in Paris after the Reign of Terror, just as the match was about to be applied

founded in 1856, boasts the possession of two charters, one from Queen Victoria, the other from the Pope. The university is well-equipped with scientific apparatus.

was founded by Madame de la Peltrie in 1639. It has passed through the ordeals of both fire and battle. It is at this convent that many of the young ladies of Quebec



PROVINCIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS

It has a picture gallery and museum, and its library contains upwards of 90,000 volumes, besides many rare manuscripts and historical papers. The remains of Bishop Laval, which were buried May 6, 1708, in the Basilica, were exhumed and re-interred in the same place in 1878, amid much pomp and ceremony.

The old Jesuits' College, which was built in 1635 on the western side of Market Square, became a barracks for the British troops in 1763. It was torn down in 1878, and on its site is now situated the beautiful new City Hall, which is one of the best equipped public buildings in the city. St. Patrick's Church, built in 1832, where the Irish Roman Catholic citizens worship, is a very substantial and massive building, as is also the church of St. Jean Baptiste.

The chapel of the Ursuline Convent is one of the most interesting places of worship in the city. The music is always good, and the paintings and ivories and altars attract all lovers of art. In the chapel repose the bones of Montcalm, and in the chaplain's rooms up stairs the skull of the great warrior is preserved in a glass case. The convent itself is cloistered, and

are educated. During the winter of 1759 Fraser's Highlanders were quartered here.

The Hôtel Dieu is another of Quebec's ancient landmarks which invites attention, and is well worthy of a visit. It was established in 1639 by the Duchesse d'Aiguillon, niece of Cardinal Richelieu, who placed in charge the nuns of Hospitalière. Additions have from time to time been made to it, and it is now one of the largest hospitals in the country. On its walls also there are some fine pictures, and among its relics are the skull of Father de Brébœuf, and the bones of Father Lallemand, the Jesuit martyrs. Among the other convents are the Grey Nuns, the Nuns of the Good Shepherd, the Franciscan Nuns, —to which a new chapel has been added, —the Congregation Nuns, the Nuns of the Sacred Heart Hospital, St. Bridget's Asylum, the General Hospital Nunnery, etc. Other hospitals and charitable institutions are the Finlay Asylum, the Jeffery Hale Church of England Female Orphan Asylum, Ladies' Protestant Home, the Marine Hospital, now used as a branch of the Good Shepherd Asylum, and a civic hospital for contagious diseases.

Among the Protestant churches may be mentioned the handsome Anglican Cathedral, which, built in the Roman style of architecture, was consecrated in 1804. It measures 135 by 73 feet. The church contains many interesting mural tablets and the colors of the 69th Regiment, which in 1870 were deposited in the chancel by Colonel Bagot, the commanding officer. King George III presented the cathedral with a handsome solid silver communion service, which is valued at \$10,000. There are several other Anglican churches, one of the handsomest being St. Matthew's. There are two Presbyterian churches, —St. Andrew's in St. Ann Street, and Chalmers' in St. Ursule Street. There is a French Protestant church in St. John Street. The Methodist church is well built and occupies a very commanding site. There is also a Baptist church.

Parliament House, which also contains the Departmental offices, is a noble pile situated just outside St. Louis Gate, on Grande Allée. Begun in 1878, the structure was completed in 1887. It is a spacious and convenient building and is beautifully furnished throughout. There is a good library and reading-room. On the façade, Hébert, the French Canadian sculptor, whose studio is in Paris, has

placed excellent bronze statues of Frontenac, Lord Elgin, Colonel de Salaberry, Lévis, Montcalm, and Wolfe. Others are to follow. A magnificent bronze group of Indians appears in front of the building facing on Dufferin Avenue, immediately surmounting a fountain and basin. The Parliamentary grounds are very pretty.

Mr. Hébert also made the monument erected to the memory of Major Short, R.C.A., and Sergeant Wallick, heroic soldiers who lost their lives at the great St. Sauveur fire of 1889, while fighting the flames. It stands in front of the Armory, a very fine and commodious building used by the military. Morrin College, founded by the late Dr. Morrin, is situated on the corner of St. Ann and St. Stanislaus streets. It is affiliated with McGill University, and is the home of the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec.

Among other prominent buildings may be mentioned the Young Men's Christian Association hall, well supplied with swimming baths and a gymnasium, the Masonic Hall, the Academy of Music, and the Garrison Club.

Quebec is well supplied with excellent water, and is lighted with gas and electricity. The calèche is a quaint and ancient vehicle much in vogue with tourists. Driving is moderate in cost, and the electric car service is under perfect management. There are many interesting drives which should not be omitted, namely, to Montmorency Falls and the Natural Steps, Chateau Bigot, St. Anne's, Chateau Richer, Sillery, Cap Rouge, Indian Lorette, and the Island of Orleans.

GEORGE STEWART.

QUEBEC.



"AUX BRAVES DE 1760"—STE FOYE ROAD

PAPAL POSSIBILITIES

IN ecclesiastical circles at least, Rome — Catholic Rome — is regarded as the greatest school of diplomacy in the world. This diplomacy is involved not only in the relations of the Papacy with the temporal rulers of the world, but also in the government of the church itself and in the administration of its temporal affairs. From the time of Constantine to the present it has been regarded by civilized nations which draw inspiration and moral strength from Christianity as one of the most potent political factors. Even to-day the nations of Europe are far from looking with indifference upon the powerful influence of the Papacy, and, in view of the alarming condition of Leo XIII the most strenuous efforts are being made to ensure the election of a successor whose policy will harmonize with national and international requirements.

In modern times, France, under the guidance of Napoleon, who was utterly indifferent to the religious teaching of Christianity, has been the greatest and most implacable foe of the Papacy, yet France at the same time acknowledged its influence, if not its authority, in the most solemn, public manner. Rome triumphed over Napo-

leon's machinations, and the son of the King of Italy whom he had created — Prince Murat — lies dead and unhonored in a neglected grave in the cemetery of Tallahassee, Florida. After France came Germany with her Bismarck; but Bismarck, too, surrendered to the power or diplomacy of Rome, and it is said that the present Emperor of Germany, during a recent visit of courtesy to the Vatican, let his helmet fall to the floor when ushered into the presence of the aged Roman Pontiff, with whom he evidently desires to be on friendly terms.

The influence wielded by Rome, and the secret or manifest recognition of that influence, have made diplomats of the Pope and his cardinals, and the education thus obtained is perfected by the conditions existing in the church organization, where among cardinals, patriarchs, archbishops, bishops, monks, religious orders, and secular clergy, ambition, intrigue, community pride, and the vices and passions natural to men, even when their personality is veiled by a frock or cowl, demand a constant and incessant display and exercise of policy and diplomacy on the part of the Pope and his cabinet of cardinals.

Rome's diplomacy and ingenuity are being thoroughly tested at present. Every nation of Europe is interested in the election of a successor to Leo XIII, whose career, in spite of all declarations to the contrary, is considered at an end. As a consequence every European Power has one or more secret or avowed representatives in Rome, each seeking to secure the election of a *persona grata* as Leo's successor, by combination or otherwise. Austria, Spain, and Russia are represented at the Papal court by their duly accredited diplomats. Germany is at work through its influential clerical emissaries and its representatives at the Quirinal palace: King Humbert is straining every nerve to bring about a reconciliation with the Vatican; while England and France have what may be called powerful "lobbies" at work endeavoring to checkmate the efforts of other Powers and to ensure the election of their own candidates. This titanic struggle may suffice to convey something like an adequate impression of the value of the Papacy as a political



CARDINAL RAMPOLLA

factor. Pope and cardinals are necessarily and naturally interested in the political struggle, and each Power has already selected its favorite candidate. These candidates are understood to coöperate with the aid and protection thus extended to them. True, there are many canonical decrees, some dating back to the end of the fifth century, which forbid the cardinals to discuss the question of succession during the lifetime of a Pope; but these canons are in fact, if not in theory, a dead letter.

Candidates for the coveted chair are far more numerous than the aspirants for the Presidency of the United States at the present time, and the names of these candidates are no secret in Rome or elsewhere. Each has a following in the College of Cardinals, which is the elective body, as well as a powerful support at one or more of the royal courts of Europe. Attention seems to be concentrated upon Rampolla, Oreglia, Vannutelli, Parocchi, Svampa, and Mazzella, whose names are frequently mentioned, though no one, either among the clerical diplomats or the representatives of the Powers, has ventured to predict who the successful candidate would be. Nowhere else on earth is the election of a ruler attended with such uncertainty. The courts of Europe may scheme and plot and intrigue, but when courtly diplomacy and human ingenuity have exhausted themselves, the issue is still uncertain. In this respect Spain and Austria possess the greatest power over the election of a candidate, but that power is purely negative. By traditionary right they can prevent the election of a *persona non grata* and thus frustrate the efforts of any clique or faction. This right may be questioned hereafter as a result of the declarations or decrees of Leo XIII reserving the right of election solely and exclusively to the College of Cardinals; but as it has always been exercised in the past, and never called in doubt, it is not likely that the College of Cardinals would disregard the moral effect of such a protest.

Cardinal Rampolla, because of this phase of the situation, would have the best chance of election were it not that a fateful record seems to attach to his official position very similar to that attending the offices of Secretary of State or Vice-President in the United States in relation to the Presidency. He is Papal Secretary of State, and it is many centuries since that official

has been elected to succeed his master. The longer a Pope lives, the more certain is he to witness the birth and development of a strong reactionary policy; and as his secretary has to combat this policy in accordance with the wishes of his superior,



CARDINAL OREGLIA

he must, when a candidate for the papacy, count on the hostile opposition of the elective body. Rampolla is Leo's favorite; in him more than in any other the present papal policy is represented and personified: and this—withstanding the extraordinary friendship cherished for him by Spain, where he spent many years at court, and by France, whose first choice he is—is likely to ensure his defeat in the future conclave; for the hostility of his colleagues would be a greater obstacle to his election than the favor of royal courts would be a help. Then there is another consideration which may militate against Rampolla: he is an aristocrat, while nearly all his colleagues in the Sacred College are commoners, sons of the people. The influence of such a condition upon the religious and pious minds of the cardinals they will, of course, indignantly deny, but it is mentioned just the same.

Cardinal Rampolla was born at Polizzi, August 17, 1843. He studied at the Capranica College, and at the Academy of



CARDINAL PAROCCHI

Noble Ecclesiastics, Rome. In 1882 he was consecrated Archbishop of Heraclea, and in 1887 was raised to the cardinalate.

Cardinal Serafino Vannutelli is said to be the favorite of King Humbert. Of all the cardinals he is the most intimate with the Italian king and his courtiers, and is not a great favorite with the old-time conservative nobles, who hold aloof from those who, by their conduct at least, are supposed to look with favor on Humbert's ambition and to accept the new condition of affairs regardless of the alleged needs and convictions of the Papacy. Vannutelli is a striking personality and has displayed extraordinary diplomatic skill during his career. He was secretary of the Nuncios in Mexico and Munich, apostolic delegate in Peru and Ecuador, and Nuncio in Brussels and Vienna. He can probably depend on the full strength of the Triple Alliance, and in the event of Rampolla's defeat may secure the support of France, so that he is really the most powerful candidate; and yet, strange to say, he is looked upon as the representative of Leo's policy. Should his strength be thrown to Rampolla it would almost ensure the latter's election, as the Triple Alliance would, it is claimed, accept the Secretary of State.

Serafino Vannutelli must be distinguished from his younger brother, Cardinal Vincenzo Vannutelli. The fact of two brothers being members of the Sacred

College of Cardinals at the same time is an unusual occurrence, if not in fact a violation of ecclesiastical law. The elder brother, Serafino, was born at Genazzano, November 26, 1834. His cardinalate dates from 1887.

Cardinal Oreglia and Cardinal Parocchi were both born in Genoa, and their chances might be better had they been born in Rome or not so far distant. The first has always been a bitter opponent of Leo and his policy. So hostile has he been that on a public occasion he remarked in the presence of the Pope's nephew that "the election of Pecci (Leo XIII) was a chastisement which the Almighty wished to inflict upon our church." The nephew, Count Camillo Pecci, manifested his indignation by withdrawing from the room. Oreglia is the Pope's chamberlain, to whom the government of the church and the management of the elections are entrusted upon the death of the Pope. He is the most irascible member of the Sacred College and the irreconcilable foe of the Triple Alliance. His strength as a candidate is derived from the support of the Jesuits, in which order two of his brothers occupy prominent positions. He was born in 1828 and has been a cardinal since 1873.

Cardinal Parocchi is said to be the can-



CARDINAL MAZZELLA

didate of France and Russia, and is opposed by Germany and Austria, though Emperor Francis Joseph is his warm personal friend. His hostility to King Humbert and his *régime* resulted in the refusal of the latter to consent to his nomination as bishop of Bologna, but as vicar-general of the city of Rome his views on the relations of king and pope have been so modified that he would not be opposed by Humbert. He leads a very humble life, lives in wretched apartments, and is always easy of access to prince and beggar alike. He is pious as well as learned, and has a strong following, among whom is numbered Cardinal Gibbons, of Baltimore. Cardinal Parocchi was born in 1833, and studied in Mantua. In 1877 he was created cardinal, and later he was appointed Secretary of the Sacred Congregation of the Inquisition.

Cardinal Mazzella, prefect of the Congregation of Rites, is also mentioned, though his name has not attained the prominence of others. He was born in 1833 and was raised to the cardinalate in 1886.

Cardinal San Felice, Archbishop of Naples, to whom the German emperor showed such attention during his recent visit to Rome, is also favorably spoken of, as is Cardinal Svampa, Archbishop of Bologna; but the chances, owing to external influences, seem to be in favor of Rampolla, Parocchi, Oreglia, and Vannutelli. Cardinal Svampa was born at Montegranaro, June 13, 1851, and became cardinal in 1894.

There has been some talk about Cardinal Gibbons, of Baltimore, but under existing conditions his election would be next to impossible. It is sufficient that he represents democracy and not imperialism or the divine right of kings. He would be opposed by every monarch of Europe, and would probably not find a single Italian cardinal to support his pretensions or consider them seriously. One thing at least is certain, that Italy will



CARDINAL SVAMPA

provide the Pope. This is inevitable, not only on account of the predominance of Italians in the conclave, but also because the Powers of Europe would not, and could not with safety, trust a foreigner to manage the relations of the Papacy and the Italian kingdom in the city of Rome. The dreaded war which Europe sees in the distance must not be incited by the politics of a foreign Pope. It is because of the danger of war that lurks in the Vatican that the Powers of Europe are so deeply interested in Leo's successor, and are toiling night and day, regardless of expense, to control the election in the Conclave.

What effect the recent creation of eleven new cardinals will have on the next election is problematical. It is an absolute assurance that the Leontine policy will be perpetuated, but what candidate will be benefitted thereby it is yet impossible to determine.

M. J. F.



THE TRUE STORY OF BETSY ROSS*

THE BIRTH OF THE AMERICAN FLAG

AFTER many years of inexcusable neglect the old home of Betsy Ross, at 239 Arch Street, Philadelphia, where the first American flag was made, has been secured by a patriotic society devoted to its preservation; and hereafter the birthplace of the Stars and Stripes will be maintained as it should be, one of the most interesting objects in the country, for future generations to visit. For nearly half a century the press of Philadelphia has at intervals endeavored to arouse sufficient public interest in this building to ensure its preservation, but hitherto these efforts have been fruitless. Twice the matter has been before the common council of the city of Philadelphia, with no other result than to become lost in the mass of other business before that body and to die an ignominious death from sheer lack of attention.

In spite of the half-dozen "Betsy Ross" societies organized to perpetuate her memory and to see that her final resting-place in Mt. Moriah Cemetery, in Philadelphia, is kept in proper order, the place about which centres so much of intense interest relative to our beloved flag was in a fair way to become utterly lost to our citizens,—a circumstance that would have been an irreparable disgrace to this nation: for where else in all the world can one see the exact spot at which a national emblem had its birth?

The Betsy Ross house, and especially the little back parlor, with its roomy, old-fashioned fireplace, surrounded by picturesque Delft tiling; its quaint corner cupboard stained by age; its solid oak flooring; its small-paned windows, protected by heavy oaken shutters, which, secured by hand-made nails, still swing on the same old hand-forged hinges, remain exactly as they were on that memorable day, nearly a century and a quarter ago, when Betsy Ross, attired in the simple costume of the period, modestly unrolled her handiwork, and the light coming through these same windows, which then looked out upon the broad bosom of the Delaware, shone upon the first American flag, with its beautiful combination of red, white, and blue; while

George Washington, Robert Morris, and George Ross (the latter Betsy's uncle and a signer of the Declaration of Independence) sat just across the room and commented upon and admired the flag, which now more than ever stands as an imperishable emblem of liberty, justice, and truth.

One can almost feel the sacred influence of those pure-minded men as they sat in this little back room and talked the question over in the staid manner of the time, little dreaming of the glory that in years to come would attach itself to the work they were doing; and the citizens of this great republic should be devoutly grateful that before it is too late men have been found who have taken up the work of perpetuating this structure with its inspiring associations and historical surroundings, a duplicate of which the world cannot produce. No one who loves his country and reverences the flag that so recently has become doubly dear to all American hearts by reason of the superb achievements of those who fought beneath its folds, can stand in this room and not feel his heart swell within him and his breast heave with unwonted emotion as he contemplates the very spot where that flag first saw the light, and realizes that in this house and room its destiny was planned by the immortal Washington and the noble Robert Morris, a man revered for his unselfish deeds of helpfulness to the struggling young republic at a time when it was actually a beggar at the doors of any and every one who could aid it.

Contrast these early struggles, for one moment, with the events of the last few months, when Congress unhesitatingly appropriated \$50,000,000 to uphold the dignity of that flag (and that without a single dissenting vote from any party North, South, East, or West)—an amount in all probability in excess of the entire wealth of the nation when Betsy Ross lived. When we come to appreciate that this great sum was expended without the slightest financial inconvenience, we may catch some faint conception of the growth and development of our country.

*This account of the connection of Betsy Ross with the birth of the American flag is authenticated by her grandson, George Canby, Esq., of Philadelphia.

The American flag is certainly an exquisite sight wherever and whenever its brilliant colors are unfurled to the breeze, but to appreciate its significance fully it should be seen abroad, where the flags of other nations are everywhere present, and ours is conspicuous by its infrequency. Then it is that at the sight of "Old Glory" the tears spring unbidden to the eyes, and the throat contracts with a lump one cannot swallow, and we almost feel like worshipping the beautiful emblem that recalls the words :

"My native Country, thee,—
Land of the noble, free,—
Thy name I love."

But it is upon the field of battle, amid the smoke and carnage of conflict, that the flag attains its completest significance and becomes almost divine in its beauty. What a thrill of enthusiasm it must have engendered in the hearts of those who saw it floating magnificently on our superb ships of war as they sped on their way to annihilate Cervera's fleet off Santiago; and how the pulse of the onlooker must have quickened as he saw it lead that thin blue line up the bullet-swept heights at San Juan and El Caney, until at last it waved triumphantly from the fortifications in place of the red and yellow flag of Spain that was its antithesis.

Under such conditions one can in a measure appreciate the feelings experienced by Francis Scott Key when, at the first gleam of dawn on September 14, 1814, after a night of ceaseless vigil and anxiety, during which the British cannon roared unremittingly at Fort M'Henry, his eyes, straining through the sea mists and the smoke of battle, saw that flag still proudly waving in the soft morning light. Then it was that his overwrought heart and mind gave birth to that immortal anthem, "The Star-Spangled Banner," that has recently so moved the hearts of our soldiers and sailors at Santiago, at San Juan, at Honolulu, at Manila, and at Havana, as with bared heads they saw it slowly ascend the flagstaff until, in obedience to a signal, its graceful folds were spread out before them, a visible sign of American sovereignty.

Surely the birthplace of our flag is worthy of a better fate than has been its lot, and we should rejoice that an end worthy of the object to be attained is now in sight.

The story of Betsy Ross, and how she



THE OLD FLAG HOUSE

came to be the mother of "Old Glory" has been told and retold until it is familiar to every child in the land; but it is greatly to be regretted that many of the incidents relating thereto have had little foundation in truth. Fortunately there still lives in Philadelphia Mrs. Ross's grandson, Mr. George Canby, who, although seventy years of age, still possesses vigorous health and memory. It was from his lips that the incidents given herein were taken down, and, in order that the record should be absolutely authentic, the manuscript was submitted to Mr. Canby and carefully examined by him before final revision. As an additional verification, all the statements here given were corroborated by a sweet-faced old lady still living in the suburbs of Philadelphia,—Mrs. M. S. Garrett, a great-grandchild of Betsy Ross Clappole.

It is impossible to give any adequate idea of the charming personal characteristics of Mrs. Ross's descendants, with whom I was privileged to talk; but they are most delightfully refined and intelligent people, whose personal remembrances carry them back to revolutionary days and characters, bearing names that

are written high on the pages of the history of that eventful period. Mr. Canby's story is as follows:

"The personal history of Betsy Ross has been so fearfully distorted by those who in recent years have attempted her biography that I am quite grateful for an opportunity to give you the actual facts, as far as I am able, from the story as told me by my mother, with whom Betsy Ross Claypoole lived for some time prior to her death, and at whose house she died on the 30th of January, 1836, aged 84 years.

in time were married, although to accomplish this a runaway match was necessary. This took place in December, 1773, and Betsy was punished therefor by being disowned by the Friends. With her husband she afterward attended Christ Church, where General Washington worshipped when in Philadelphia.

"Betsy's skill as a needlewoman was a natural gift, but had been cultivated by an apprenticeship to one Webster, a leading upholsterer of the day. It came about in this wise. One day John Ross, who



(From the painting by Charles H. Welser, by courtesy of The American Flag House and Betsy Ross Memorial Association.)

THE BIRTH OF OUR NATION'S FLAG

"Betsy Ross was born in Philadelphia on the 1st of January, 1752, and was the seventh daughter of Samuel and Rebecca Griscom, who were consistent members of the Society of Friends. Under the sober influences of her Quaker parents she passed her childhood days, and when maturity was reached had grown to be an exceptionally bright and beautiful young woman. Among her many admirers was one John Ross, the son of an Episcopal clergyman, and to those familiar with the distinctness with which religious lines were drawn in those days it requires no great stretch of the imagination to understand that his attentions were far from pleasing to Betsy's severe Quaker parents. But in spite of parental opposition the two young people became excellent 'friends' of quite another character, and

himself was an upholsterer, noticed some of the young women in Mr. Webster's establishment puzzling over a simple question of drapery; he remarked that he knew of a young woman who could arrange it for them, and succeeded in inducing Betsy Griscom to come to their assistance. Mr. Webster, noticing her superior skill, persuaded her to come to his establishment and learn the business. Thus it was that she became an upholsterer.

"In founding a home of their own, these young people started in business on Chestnut Street, near the Webster establishment, but soon moved to 239 Arch Street, now known as 'The Old Flag House.' Here, in the latter part of January, 1776, John Ross died from the effects of injuries received while guarding military stores on the wharf, and from here he was car-

ried to his last resting-place in Christ Church burying-ground, at the corner of Fifth and Arch streets, on the 20th of January, 1776.

"Thrown upon her own resources, the young widow, then but twenty-four years of age, courageously determined to continue the business established by her husband. Shortly after this, on the 23d of May, Washington came to Philadelphia, at the request of the Continental Congress, to confer regarding important military matters. The need of a general flag for the colonies had long been recognized, — in fact on the 1st of January, 1776, such a flag, consisting of seven red and white stripes alternating as at present, but with the field filled with the English cross, had been made and was first unfurled by Washington just outside Boston on that day. The delivery at this time by General Howe, under a flag of truce, of the arrogant proclamation of George the Third, rendered impossible of use the flag which had just been adopted; for whereas up to this time the struggle had been for Americans' rights as colonists, the tone of this document demonstrated conclusively to Washington that hereafter the fight must be for independence.

"A flag which bore the emblem of England must therefore be replaced by something distinctively American, and when Washington reached Philadelphia this question, with others, was taken up and discussed by the revolutionary leaders. As an outcome, a committee consisting of Washington, Robert Morris, and George Ross was given authority to select and submit a design for the new flag. The meeting of this committee was undoubtedly held at General Hancock's house, just a block from Betsy Ross's home, and as circumstances required that the matter be done as secretly as possible, and the services of a skilful needlewoman were needed, it was perfectly natural that George Ross should suggest his niece, so near at hand, and in whom he was so much interested. To her house, therefore, they repaired, and upon being asked by her uncle whether or not she thought she could make the flag, she replied with true American spirit, 'I do not know, but I will try.'

General Washington, having a fairly clear idea of what was wanted, made a pencil sketch of the flag with the now familiar thirteen stripes, but with a blue

field and thirteen stars in the place of the cross of St. George. Mrs. Ross, being of a very practical turn of mind, noticed that Washington's stars were six-pointed, and suggested a five-pointed star as being easier to make. Washington replied that he had supposed a six-pointed one could be more easily formed, but Betsy promptly settled the question by folding a piece of paper and with one clip of her scissors producing a perfect five-pointed star. Thus it was that the stars in our flag are five-pointed in place of the customary six-pointed star of heraldry, and Betsy Ross did it with her little scissors. The matter was then left for Betsy's skilful fingers to complete, and in due time the finished flag was ready for inspection. The committee again visited the house, were shown into the little back parlor, and after some discussion the design was accepted. It was not, however, formally adopted by Congress until the 14th of June, 1777.

"Betsy Ross afterward made many flags for the government, and her daughter, Mrs. Clarissa Wilson, continued the business in Philadelphia until 1857. In May, 1777, the naval board of Pennsylvania, as shown by the official records, paid Betsy Ross £14 12s. 2d. for flags made for the fleet in the Delaware River. So the business of flag-making was unquestionably the source of an income much more profitable, no doubt, than upholstering.

"Some time after this, on the 15th of June, 1777, Betsy Ross married Captain Joseph Ashburn, who died at Mill Prison, Plymouth, England, being under sentence for high treason against the crown, — in other words, for being a loyal American. He died in the arms of his friend John Claypoole, himself a prisoner for the same offence, but who, being released soon afterward, bore loving messages to Ashburn's widow. Claypoole was apparently a successful comforter, for not long after this he married the twice-widowed Betsy, only to die, not many years later, as a result of wounds received in the service of his country, combined with the effects of his prison life in England. Thus it was that all three of Betsy's husbands sacrificed their lives for the young republic for which Betsy made the first flag.

"No children were born to John and Betsy Ross, but one descendant of her marriage with Ashburn is still living, John and

Betsy Claypoole, however, had four daughters, many of whose descendants now live in the vicinity of Philadelphia."

Such is the simple story of Betsy Ross and her connection with the flag as it exists to-day.

It is a pleasure to know that the old house that is so indissolubly linked with the history of the American flag is to be cared for and preserved; for as years go by it will become more and more precious to all American citizens. The movement which recently culminated in the formation of the "American Flag House and Betsy Ross Memorial Association" is directly traceable to three men, although indirectly the outgrowth of numerous efforts in the same direction, one of which, called the "Betsy Ross American Flag House Fund Society," was founded by Mrs. Caroline M. Dodson, of Philadelphia, recently deceased.

With this society Mr. Charles H. Weisgerber (whose brush and brain evolved the historical painting, "The Birth of our Nation's Flag") was identified, and when, upon the demise of Mrs. Dodson, the association became defunct, it was he who carried on the work. With undaunted patriotism and devotion Mr. Weisgerber, in no wise discouraged, went from society to society, and from man to man, in a vain and seemingly hopeless endeavor to save the Ross homestead to the world. Nothing, however, came of his efforts until by chance he was directed to Mr. John Quincy Adams, of New York (a grandson of President John Quincy Adams, and great-grandson of President John Adams), whose interest in, and substantial aid to, numerous patriotic institutions is well known.

Mr. Adams, perceiving the splendid historical possibilities of the place, became interested at once, and, in connection with his friend Mr. George Clinton Batcheller, began practical and substantial coöperation with Mr. Weisgerber in his commendable work. Money was advanced to secure an option on the property, the title was investigated and cleared up, and on the 1st of September, 1898, possession was given to Mr. Weisgerber as temporary custodian in behalf of the society soon to be organized; so that at last, for the first time during the one hundred and twenty-five years that have elapsed since that day when the flag had its birth, the sacred precincts that witnessed that event

were in the hands of patriotic citizens who really cared for the perpetuation of what in many ways is the most unique and interesting spot in the United States.

It is marvellous, and indeed providential, that in all of the changes that have taken place since our Independence was established this humble home has withstood the ravages that have levelled so many places of rare historical interest, and that, surrounded on all sides as it is by modern buildings dedicated to Mammon, the Betsy Ross House still remains to all intents and purposes just as it was when the event that made it famous took place. Much credit is due to the family of Mr. Charles P. Mund, who owned it for thirty-five years prior to the present transfer, for in times past it has been both a beer-saloon and a tobacco-shop. Numerous attempts to remove it from Philadelphia, notably to Chicago and Boston, have fortunately failed, as have efforts to acquire it by religious and partisan organizations; for everyone from Maine to California, from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico,—yes, and from the islands of the sea,—is interested in this spot where true liberty's emblem was born. And the society that controls its future must be as broad as America, and as liberal as liberty itself, if it is to succeed in its undertaking.

On the 8th of November, 1898, the "American Flag House and Betsy Ross Memorial Association" was formally organized, with the following officers:

EDWARD. BROOKS, President, Overbrook, Philadelphia.

ADAM H. FETTEROLF, Vice-President, Girard College, Philadelphia.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, Secretary, New York.

GEORGE CLINTON BATCHELLER, Treasurer, New York.

The Society has adopted a plan for the completion of its work, which was suggested by Mr. Weisgerber, and one which will make the movement thoroughly broad and catholic. It proposes to sell lithographed certificates of membership in six colors, showing the Betsy Ross House, a reproduction of "The Birth of our Nation's Flag," and the grave of Betsy Ross in Mt. Moriah Cemetery. These certificates, certifying that the holder's name is enrolled upon the permanent archives of the society, will be sold at ten cents each, and any one forming a club and sending in the names of thirty members will receive in

addition a larger reproduction of the picture in colors, of a size suitable for framing. Half of the gross proceeds of the sale of certificates or pictures goes into a fund to assure the maintenance of the house, which for a hundred and fifty years has seen many vicissitudes of American history. The horrible Indian wars, the barbaric outrages of which were such a terror to our pioneer forefathers; the changing fortunes of the war of the Revolution; still later, the Mexican war; then, after many years of peace, the terrible civil war that so nearly divided our land,—through all these and minor yet stirring events has the old house stood, until at last occurred the brief but decisive conflict with Spain, which, more than all others combined, has given to the flag born within its walls domain and power far beyond the most extravagant dreams of those who created it. And now its declining years will be tenderly cared for, even though to all appearances it is good for another century of the most marvellous years in the history of the world.

The work of this newly organized society is not done, nor will it be, until funds have been raised to purchase the surrounding property, to restore the building as far as possible to its early environments, and to remove all danger of fire from the adjoining neighborhood. The plan proposed places it within the reach of every child in the land to have a part in this work, and it is hoped and believed that public support will be quickly forthcoming.

Two incidents, wide apart in years, yet showing how completely and devotedly this whole nation loves the flag, are worthy of mention. Every one who recalls the civil war remembers what a thrill of horror electrified every Northern home when, for the first time in its history, the Stars and Stripes were fired upon as a beginning of hostilities against the government it represented, and how the loyal citizens of the North arose as one man to avenge the insult offered by the hostile shots fired at Fort Sumter.

The same flag still floats, and but a few weeks ago the battle-scarred, white-haired veterans of Pickett's famous brigade assembled before the birthplace of "Old Glory," and with bowed heads and reverent faces were photographed, thus offering

indisputable and undying evidence of their respect and love for the flag they once opposed, and demonstrating beyond question that the "Star-Spangled Banner" is to-day just as dear to the hearts of the people in Texas as it is in Maine. This fact alone is worth all the great sacrifices of the late war, for it is only in that stable union symbolized by the stars in our flag that this nation can achieve the greatness that is certainly its destiny. That unity now is ours, and with one government, one flag, and one God, America must stand for all time as a beacon light for the world's oppressed. Under the folds of the flag created by Betsy Ross's handiwork the poor of every clime will find a safe harbor from governmental oppression. No more fitting words than those of Drake can be used to describe its beauty:

When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night
And set the stars of glory there.
She mingled with its gorgeous dyes
The milky baldrick of the skies,
And striped its pure celestial white
With streakings of the morning light.
Then from his mansion in the sun
She called her eagle-bearer down;
And gave into his mighty hand
The symbol of her chosen land."

Under such a standard, upon which the sun now never sets, America must henceforth do valiant battle in the world for right and liberty; and while our citizens may disagree as to many questions of policy, they will all with one voice assert that the flag that means so much to them must everywhere and at all times be given the respect due the land it represents. Upon this question there can be no division.

In Mr. Weisgerber's picture the likeness of Betsy Ross was obtained from a composite photograph secured from portraits of her daughter and some of her grandchildren, who were remarkably like her in feature. It is pronounced by Mr. Canby as an excellent portrayal of his mother's features, which were strikingly like those of Betsy Ross, his grandmother; and indeed the representation of Betsy Ross in the painting is unmistakably like that of Mr. Canby's mother, a family portrait of whom hangs in a conspicuous place in Mr. Canby's rooms in Philadelphia.

FRED H. COZZENS.

DETROIT.

A NATIONAL SCHOOL OF DIPLOMACY

Two centuries ago a great Englishman said: "We send our ministers to lie abroad." However true that declaration may have been of Great Britain and other European countries, it has never been true of the United States. We have always been at least straightforward, if not blunt at times, in our dealings with other nations. Isolated and independent, our country heretofore has not participated in the problems of world-building, and our representatives have not been tempted, much less authorized, to share in the countless intrigues and Machiavelian statecraft which have tainted the proceedings of many foreign governments. There is also this other salient difference: the European nations have for centuries regarded diplomacy as a profession,—we have not. Indeed, in the past, Americans have paid far too little attention to the importance of diplomacy.

We have had, however, a very creditable number of representatives abroad, from various walks of life, during our federal existence. Many of them were men who "measured up" to their responsible duties, and with sturdy, manly Americanism exalted the preferences they occupied. Alas, there have been many, too, who were neither adapted for nor worthy of such high station. But it is unnecessary to comment on that long roster of unconscionable spoilsmen who have been the laughing-stock of the governments to which they were sent; without wit, without learning, without dignity,—mere raw-boned, swaggering, tobacco-chewing, profane and vulgar place-hunters.

Of the other able and representative class much might be said, and it is a pleasure to write their names. Among those who have been ministers to Europe were six of our Presidents,—John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Martin Van Buren, and James Buchanan; five of our Vice-Presidents,—Elbridge Gerry, George M. Dallas, William R. King, Hannibal Hamlin, and Levi P. Morton. Three of our chief justices—Jay, Ellsworth, and Marshall—were our first ministers to England, and the last two were accredited to France. Members of the Cabinet who served this country abroad during the first half of the

century were: Henry Clay, Albert Gallatin, Lewis Cass, Edward Livingston, William H. Crawford, Walter Forward, John W. Mason (who died while in service at the Paris Legation), James Barbour, H. S. Legaré, John Nelson, Richard Rush, and William Pinkney. The foregoing list by no means exhausts the names of conspicuous public men who have performed arduous and delicate diplomatic errands for "Uncle Sam" abroad.

From the time of Benjamin Franklin and C. C. Pinckney down to the present time many men of letters have been accredited to foreign embassies and legations. Pinckney, by the way, was the author of the famous phrase, "Millions for defence, but not one cent for tribute!" The names of authors and literarians who have been thus honored include: Washington Irving, Hawthorne, Motley, Bayard Taylor, George Bancroft, the two Everetts, George H. Boker, John Bigelow, W. D. Howells, Donald G. Mitchell ("Ik Marvel"), G. P. Marsh, Joel Barlow, Henry Wheaton, Charles Francis Adams, Robert Dale Owen, Meredith Read, Henry R. Jackson, Charles K. Tuckerman, W. W. Astor, Wallace Bruce, Bret Harte, W. L. Alden, Prof. Henry A. Beers, General Lew Wallace, Prof. C. B. Haddock, Eugene Schuyler, S. G. W. Benjamin, Prof. Edward J. Phelps, Charles De Kay, John Russell Young (late Librarian of Congress), Whitelaw Reid, John Hay, and C. M. Dickinson, consul-general at Constantinople.

Generally speaking, the aspiring and energetic politician cares nothing for the small consular office to which he is exiled on a starving salary. He prefers to take his chances of rising to preëminence at home. Literary men, upon whom it has been the usage of nearly all the Presidents to confer diplomatic and consular honors, naturally accept them in order to enlarge their experience, to learn something of life in other countries, and, in many instances, to study foreign literature. Considering these appointments from a strictly practical point of view, they have not always proved to be in the best interests of the government; since some of these men of letters—though there be notable exceptions—have added neglect of routine duty to their proverbial incapacity for

business. Mr. Howells, who was consul to Venice under President Lincoln, mentions in one of his books an American consul in Italy, upon the door of whose house was the announcement, "Open for business from ten to one." The novelist wittily adds: "But it is ten to one that you don't find him in."

As for the politician who receives a diplomatic appointment in reward for real or supposed service to his country, the mere fact that he understands machine politics does not make it likely that he will prove a more capable representative of his country than the impractical literary man. As between the two types, however, the latter should always command the preference; for it may be confidently believed that, though he may do his country no particular good as a stipendiary, he will do it no harm. Is it not better to have a man who has enriched the world's thought and literature in such a preferment, even though he be a dreamer, than some political vassal in whose hands nothing is secure; who will prostitute his influence to selfish ends? Even one who has shown himself to be an able statesman in home affairs may not succeed as a foreign minister. His probable ignorance of the language of the country to which he is accredited may prove a serious drawback — his misconceptions paving the way to grave complications.

We might as well be candid about it among ourselves and admit that they do some things better "on the other side." Certainly in the matter of diplomatic training they outstrip us. The diplomats of Europe are prepared for their careers from boyhood; some of them are "born in harness," so to speak, like generations of actors and noblemen. As a rule, however, without social position and means to start with, aspirants to this profession can do nothing; but given these, with tact and patience — for they begin at the lowest rung of the ladder as attachés — they may mount gradually upward to an ambassadorship. At first they pay their own way; later on they receive small salaries and are shifted from one post to another, so that they may become thoroughly equipped in their profession, in languages, customs, court usages, and especially with secret information which it is their chief aim to acquire anent the countries wherein they sojourn. Nothing can expand the mind like such a many-

sided experience. The class of men which foreign nations send to this country as their ministers plenipotentiary typify and attest the magnificent results of diplomatic training; they are in the highest sense men of affairs and of broad culture, ornamental as well as useful.

Many Englishmen are reared for diplomatic careers. England's sovereignty over one fifth of the globe is due in a large measure to the men she has tutored in statecraft and disciplined in the Foreign Office, so that they are able to look wisely after her colossal interests. Many of these young fellows are educated at Eton and Oxford for the profession, but they get a practical drill by going through every grade of the service; for instance, at Brussels, Rio de Janeiro, Washington, Lisbon, Constantinople, Paris, Peking, Athens, Rome, Egypt, Berlin. After such experience a man is usually old enough to acquire the Grand Cross of the Bath and to be appointed a Privy Councillor, — the ultimate goal of his ambition. Just think what all this sumptuous travel and intercourse with rulers, dignitaries, and aristocratic society mean to a wide-awake man!

The first requirement of the British service is that the applicant for a diplomatic billet must be a gentleman by birth and education. Noble blood is not necessary, nor are academic honors. In fact, many of the young men of title who enter the Foreign Office are not in the least scholastic. They of course must have a private income of at least \$2,000 a year; for they are sent to some foreign capital first as unpaid attachés to the minister. They must keep out of debt and conserve their reputation. The moment they get into a scrape and create scandal they are ruined so far as the service is concerned. These rigid regulations, not relaxed even in the cases of noblemen, preserve the high standard of character for which English diplomats are celebrated the world over.

It may be several years before the unpaid attaché gets a paid appointment, and then usually the remuneration is of microscopic amount. But in the meantime he is being watched by the Under-Secretary at Whitehall, and if his minister writes favorable reports of his penetration, shrewdness, gallantries to the ladies, etc., he is likely to receive a promotion. When he becomes a second secretary of legation he gets \$3,000 a year, and in the grades above that the salaries range from \$4,000

to \$50,000,*—considerably better pay than American diplomats enjoy. The British public takes pride in being—I am tempted to say—fashionably represented abroad by popular ambassadors, and it is a rule of the department to give every gentleman representing the Queen a comfortably independent position. In addition to his salary he is given a fine house, servants, and an allowance for furniture. No wonder that the British diplomats are zealous in their efforts to serve their country honorably and faithfully. They have every incentive in the world to be good and faithful. Many of the British ambassadors are rich and spend twice the amount of their salaries every year in the splendor of their entertainments and princely hospitality. Not a few of them have been ruined in this way—notably Lord Augustus Loftus, who some years ago went into bankruptcy, having contracted enormous debts while ambassador at St. Petersburg.

But with a rational exercise of frugality these financial disasters need not occur among the Queen's foreign ministers; for they are paid liberally and are handsomely treated in every way. The United States government should at least increase the salaries of its ambassadors to Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austria, and Russia, so that our representatives might maintain establishments in consonance with our rich and illustrious nation. These provisions will come some day, when we better understand our need of diplomatic tuition. The time is ripe now for us to realize this need.

During the eventful year of 1898 the American people stepped out of their isolated nationalism into the realms of international polity. We now belong to the world family. Our annexation of the Hawaiian Islands; our acquisition of Porto Rico and the Philippines; our protectorate over Cuba,—all these stupendous changes commit us to a new policy which, in the very nature of things, must be prosecuted by means of diplomacy. It is therefore more urgent—nay, more indispensable—than ever before, that our envoys should be panoplied for the mighty oncoming of events that must be confronted. Our mission in the East is already clearly indicated so far as the Filipinos are concerned: it is to fit them for self-government.

* In this class are the Viceroy of India, the Governor-General of Canada, etc.

If this be impossible, the total extermination of the hopeless ones would be no calamity to the world,—a view of the matter borrowed from the old Yankee maxim that the only good Indian is a dead Indian. Likewise, as to Cuba, it is our duty and purpose to perfect the autonomy of that devastated island so that surviving patriots may have in fact—*Cuba Libre*.

Our recent war with Spain has had remarkable and unexpected results entirely apart from our victories and conquest. The sectional bitterness and wounds made in our more appalling Civil War have been divinely healed; old animosities and jealousies were swept away, as shoulder to shoulder the brave boys of the South and of the North nobly fought against the haughty Dons for the honor of "Old Glory." Moreover, when all the rest of Europe menaced and denounced us, the mother country, for the first time, asserted herself unequivocally as in our favor, refusing to join in the dastard European conspiracy to "do us up" in thug style. Thus were reconciled, as perhaps no other combination of circumstances could have done, the two great Anglo-Saxon peoples, now welded in bonds of amity which, please God, may never be sundered again while the world lasts! The year 1898 will be one of the most memorable and epoch-making years of the nineteenth century!

Granted that we have had colonial responsibilities thrust upon us, our work has but just begun. Our ideals of civilization may develop miracles in the Farther East, or wherever our sphere of influence shall extend. In some respects we may safely follow the example of the mother country in our colonial system. A policy that shall effect the greatest good to all concerned is obviously the policy to be pursued. The flapped politician and carpet-bagger must be relegated to the cross-roads tavern where they belong, while the sublime enterprises which it has fallen to the destiny of Americans to inaugurate for the betterment of the world at large are being carried forward. We should not shrink from these lofty tasks and opportunities because they are novelties. The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States were themselves innovations; but they have been the bulwarks of our liberty and prosperity. They did not, however, comprehend everything that American freemen had to achieve. They left to posterity the chance to do

some of its own thinking and to shape its national policy to meet new conditions and modern requirements in the world's advancement. Our forefathers did not expect that we would fold our arms and say: "There is nothing for us to do but follow rules laid down by the founders of the Republic. No matter what happens, we must not change their programme." We have emerged from the chrysalis of provincialism into full-fledged cosmopolitan butterflies. What vital difference does it make to us whether Thomas Jefferson was or was not an expansionist? He believed in grasping the horns of a dilemma and forcing it to the dust. He believed in doing the right thing at the right time, and were he alive to-day I have no doubt he would be in thorough accord with Mr. McKinley's avowed ideas with reference to our newly acquired colonies.

But it is absurd to give quotations from Thomas Jefferson or any other man of his time as applicable to the pending territorial questions of this hour. If Americans have one trait more pronounced than all the rest, it is that of being resourceful. We do not hesitate to take the initiative when the occasion requires action. Other nations have noticed this fact a great many times. The hour has struck for us to invade the vast dominions where Oriental lethargy prevails. But we should go as Christian crusaders of the twentieth century. We need men to pave the way, who shall act as evangelists of our successful constitutional democracy; in a word, we need diplomatists.

It is this: *the United States government should have a National School of Diplomacy, in which young men may be educated for public careers.* I know of none but certain low-caste politicians who would oppose the existence of such a school. One editor, to whom I communicated the purport of this article merely for his opinion, raised the question whether such an institution would not fail in furnishing a practical education that could be made applicable to real life, just as the schools of journalism fail to turn out the best journalists. The parallel seems to me inept and unfair. Even long service in newspaper offices does not necessarily develop all men there employed into good journalists. Without a predilection for the pursuit; without what has been termed the "newspaper instinct," few editors on the daily press succeed. This is true also of the profession of the

playwright. Without the dramatic instinct he lacks the most essential faculty in his craft. No one disputes the utility of commercial training to be obtained in a good business college. The new methods of doing business require school training to fit a man properly for a business life. If he be shrewd and honest at the same time so much the better for him.

So it is with the diplomatic aspirant. In order to be a diplomat *par excellence* he doubtless should be endowed by nature with those qualities of quick perception and shrewdness which distinguish so many successful men of business. It would be ridiculous to assume that every young man who should graduate from the School of Diplomacy would be a great diplomat. Even with a diploma in his hand he might easily have mistaken his calling, but that fact does not invalidate the need of a diplomatic school, nor does it afford a respectable argument that the training derived there would not be of incalculable benefit to those possessing the right kind of stuff for diplomats. The Paris *Conservatoire* turns out many singers, but comparatively few superior singers who are able to sustain grand-opera rôles. But what could the best of them do, in Wagner's music-dramas, for instance, without years of drill under exacting masters?

Natural fitness for a vocation is a priceless advantage which should largely determine the studies and the character of a young man's education. Mental tendencies, if strong, usually manifest themselves early, and often a student while in college discovers his special aptitude for some profession. There is, however, a vast difference between a mere bent or taste for a pursuit and a talent or genius for it, and for this very reason many people make sad mistakes in choosing their life work. Where a strong bent and distinctive talent for a thing are combined in one person, and he equips himself thoroughly to follow it with zeal and assiduity, his chances of success are rosy indeed. Yet extraneous circumstances, bad habits, unexpected contingencies, a thousand and one undreamed of fortuities, may defeat his purpose and destroy his prospects in life; for it should be remembered that at least ninety per cent of the men in this country fail. It would be interesting to know what percentage of the ten per cent of successful men includes those who are the best equipped by natural endowments

and educational acquirements for the callings in which they engage. I dare say there are not twenty men in a hundred who belong to this class; and if this be anywhere near a fair estimate, much good luck, in the way of inherited wealth and business and other adventitious aids, must figure as noteworthy factors in the success of the so-called average man. But it is not necessary to pursue this digression farther than to observe that a course in diplomacy, with no idea of adopting it as a profession, would not be likely to harm anybody, and in many cases it might be of great value in other pursuits than politics.

In these days it has become difficult to draw the line of demarkation between politics and business. They seem to be interchangeable, that is to say, certain branches of them. Each has invaded the other's field, like the Sunday newspapers and the monthly magazines. We all know how much railway legislation has been enacted, and that iniquitous trusts control some State legislatures; we know how municipal bosses juggle the public patronage and revenues, and that wealth can buy its political *cachet* nearly everywhere throughout the land; we also know of men who but for their political power and influence would be behind the bars of State prisons. Wall Street has Congress by the throat more times than the innocent, busy public ever knows. No! we cannot eradicate these criminal tendencies from human nature; but their field of operation may be largely restricted. The moral and social status of the average Congressman to-day is so low that thousands of self-respecting citizens will not have the office at any price. Politics ought to be disinfected and fumigated, treated with the quicklime of the independent ballot and purged with reform physic, and thus by degrees restored to the pristine dignity it enjoyed in the days of Webster, Clay, Calhoun, and Daniel S. Dickinson. There are just as good men to-day as there were then, but precious few of them are in politics. We need incorruptible men in office as well as in the large commercial affairs of the nation. Measures should be enacted so that the one class cannot contaminate the other, or both conspire together to defraud the government and the people. When the public regains its confidence in its representatives, politics will be free from moral smirch and mercenary stain,—and not until then.

A vital force in the political regeneration of this republic would be this National School of Diplomacy. It would attract well-bred young men; men who come of the best stock in the country; who have family names and prestige to maintain. In such an association could not they evolve higher appreciations of the duties and responsibilities of those who are public servants? The character of politics cannot be improved until the *morale* of our representatives is changed for the better. When Grover Cleveland was President he said that "public office is a public trust." He may or may not have known that Lord Macaulay said practically the same thing in his brilliant essay on Horace Walpole. These were Macaulay's words: "The English principles of toleration, the English respect for personal liberty, the English doctrine that *all power is a trust for the public good*, were making rapid progress." Applied to American requirements, this doctrine should be the keynote of every man's political education. Where can he imbibe it more thoroughly, and learn to demonstrate its ethical possibilities more effectually, than in such an institution as is here proposed?

During my residence in Paris in 1886-87 I attended lectures at the *École Libre des Sciences Politiques*. One day it occurred to me that the United States ought to have a similar institution. Early in 1887 I prepared an article entitled, "A Plea for Diplomatic Training," which was published in the February (1888) number of the "American Magazine," now defunct. The new political conditions of the United States, resulting from the war with Spain, again brought the subject to my mind more forcibly than ever, and in March of this year (1899), "The North American Review" published an article of mine on "The New Diplomacy," in which was advocated the establishment of "A National School of Diplomacy" under the auspices and direction of the government.

This article has attracted no little attention, and I am glad to say the inauguration of this school is an assured fact, thanks to the strenuous efforts of the members of the George Washington Memorial Association, who propose this year to lay the corner-stone of the Administration Building of the great National University on the one hundredth anniversary of Washington's death, which occurred December 14, 1799. It was perhaps the

favorite theme of Washington's meditations in his declining years,—this great central seat of learning, where among other things the science of government might be taught. The bequest in question was in accordance with promises Washington had voluntarily made at various times, and comprises the fifth and sixth provisions of his will, as follows:

"It has always been a source of serious regret with me to see the youth of these United States sent to foreign countries for the purpose of education, often before their minds were formed or they had imbibed any adequate ideas of the happiness of their own; contracting too frequently principles unfriendly to republican government and to the true and genuine liberties of mankind, which thereafter are rarely overcome. For these reasons it has been my ardent wish to see a plan devised on a liberal scale, which would have a tendency to spread systematic ideas through all the parts of this rising empire, thereby to do away local attachments and State prejudices, so far as the nature of things would, or indeed ought to, admit, from our national councils. Looking anxiously forward to the accomplishment of so desirable an object as this is (in my estimation), my mind has not been able to contemplate any plan more likely to effect the measure than the establishment of a university in a central part of the United States, to which the youths of fortune and talents from all parts thereof might be sent for the completion of their education in all the branches of polite literature, in arts and sciences, in acquiring knowledge in the principles of politics and good government, and (as a matter of infinite importance in my judgment) by associating with each other, and forming friendships in juvenile years, be enabled to free themselves in a proper degree from those local prejudices and habitual jealousies which have just been mentioned, and which, when carried to excess, are never-failing sources of disquietude to the public mind, and pregnant of mischievous consequences to this country; under these impressions, so fully dilated . . . I give and bequeath in perpetuity the fifty shares (value \$500 each) which I hold in the Potomac Company (under the aforesaid acts of the legislature of Virginia) toward the endowment of a university to be established in the District of Columbia under the auspices of the General Government, if that Government should incline to extend a fostering hand toward it; and until such a seminary is established and the funds arising on these shares shall be required for its support, my further desire is that the profit accruing therefrom shall, whenever dividends are made, be laid out in purchasing stock in the Bank of Columbia, or some other bank at the discretion of my executors, or by the Treasurer of the United States for the time being, under the direction of Congress; and the

dividends proceeding from the purchase of said stock is to be invested in more stock, and so on until a sum adequate to the accomplishment of this object is obtained."

The Potomac Canal Company presented him with these fifty shares, then worth \$500 each, in consideration of public services he had rendered in pointing out the vast advantages of inland navigation; but Washington accepted the shares only on the condition that he should appropriate them to public uses. The canal company failed and the stocks proved worthless, but Washington's great idea was not extinguished. It continued to smolder, emitting fitful gleams which now and again seemed certain to kindle into a glorious illumination. Nevertheless Congress was inert and lukewarm about it. Partisan prejudice and political enthusiasm in other matters jostled it into the background whenever it was broached in the halls of the national legislature. Yet it has not been without some warm supporters, not only among statesmen, but among men of learning in other fields of activity. Jefferson, Madison, John Quincy Adams, Grant, and Hayes were among the Presidents who thoroughly believed in the project and brought it before the people in repeated messages to Congress, which, however, always treated it in a tepid manner. Chief Justice Fuller, ex-Senator Edmunds, and Hon. Andrew D. White have recommended the plan and purpose of the university in the highest terms.

The George Washington Memorial Association was organized in Washington, April 8, 1897, its purpose being—

—"to promote a patriotic interest in the bequest made by the Father of his Country for the establishment of a national university, to be known as the University of the United States, for the higher learning,—an exclusively post-graduate university,—that shall complete the American system of public education and lead the world in research and investigation. The committee proposes to raise in small contributions the sum of \$250,000 for the erection of an Administration Building for said University, the corner-stone of which shall be laid on or near the hundredth anniversary of his bequest in this behalf."

The President is Mrs. Ellen A. Richardson, of Boston; the Recording Secretary, Mrs. Susanna Phelps Gage, of Ithaca, N. Y. The vice-presidents, trustees, chairmen of State executive committees, etc., are all prominent and nearly all of them wealthy women. The Advisory

Council comprises Dr. John Clark Ridpath, the historian, of Boston; Dr. David Starr Jordan, President of Leland Stanford, Jr., University; Col. H. H. Adams, Director of Civil Study for the American Institute of Civics; Mrs. Phœbe A. Hearst, Regent of California University; and Mrs. Calvin S. Brice, Trustee of the Western College, Ohio.

Should the School of Diplomacy become an adjunct of the National University, as now seems likely, the writer believes it would be a terrible mistake to make it a post-graduate school. In this respect it should be an exception to the general system of the University.

Many patriotic organizations of women, including the Daughters of the American Revolution, are coöperating with the George Washington Memorial Association in this praiseworthy movement. In the General Federation of Women's Clubs there are over 700,000 members, and should each one of them contribute thirty-six cents to the fund an amount more than sufficient to erect the Administration Building at the cost designated could be raised. If the children in the public schools each gave a cent, nearly \$150,000 could thus be provided as a nucleus of an endowment. The government owns and holds, for the purposes of a University of the United States, nineteen acres of ground near Lafayette Square, Washington, D.C., and the Association has secured the privilege of erecting one of the University buildings on this site, to be called the George Washington Memorial Building. Every man, woman, and child in the Union has an opportunity of giving a small sum for this Memorial.*

Aptly has Miss Elizabeth T. King, of Baltimore, one of the vice-presidents, and an active worker in the association, asked:

"In the light of the greater America of today, would he (Washington) not urge that his earnest conviction of a century ago should become the means, through divine and human Providence, of enabling our nation to promote its own and the world's progress toward a higher civilization?"

*To become a member of the association, to which gentlemen are eligible, application may be made to the chairman of the Congressional district in which the applicant lives, who will, upon such application, and the recommendation of one responsible person known to her, endorse the name of the applicant and forward it to Mrs. George B. Bigelow, Corresponding Secretary, room D, Hotel Oxford, Boston. When such name has been passed upon by the trustees, applicants will be notified of their election, and upon payment of the fee (\$5.00)

Thus it will be seen that the National School of Diplomacy may be moulded into an ideal as well as a practical institution; giving its students incomparable advantages for historical research and political investigation. An answer to those who insist that there is small promise of a wise and honest administration of such a school because it would be subject to demagogic influences is afforded by the Smithsonian Institution, which, as Miss King has said in one of her addresses, is—

— "the most striking example of the possibility of organized scientific work under the control of the national government. The general public sees only the museum and collections, and not one person in a hundred is aware that underneath the great halls, in the basement, is an enormous work going on which concerns the whole civilized world by its system of interchange of scientific publications."

This establishment has 240,000 correspondents, and in the forty-four years of its existence has distributed more than 1,500,000 packages of documents, scientific reports, etc. During that period the integrity and efficiency of its administration have never been questioned, nor has its board of regents, consisting of the Vice-President, the Chief Justice of the United States, three senators, three representatives and six members appointed at large, ever aroused criticism; which conclusively illustrates the fact that knowledge may be increased and diffused—to paraphrase James Smithson's bequest—under the direction of the government.* Only by the coöperation of the government in national educational work can the people attain to "the ultimate triumph of what is really true and permanent in the idea that a democratic form of government naturally expresses itself in democratic forms of education." The School of Diplomacy is a natural outgrowth of our political system, and in the new century now dawning it must have a most significant and salutary influence upon the social, ethical, and intellectual development of our public men.

LEON MEAD.

BINGHAMTON, N.Y.

each applicant will receive a certificate of membership. All memberships taken out before December 14, 1899, will be charter memberships, and entitled to charter members' certificates. The coupon from each certificate will be filed in the building when erected, as a record of the gift and giver.

*For a description of the Smithsonian Institution, its origin, aims, and work, see SELF CULTURE for June and July, 1899, Vol. IX, pp. 409-415, 527-532.

BIRD-STUDY

IT WAS the poet Goethe, I think, who first framed the phrase, "the open secret of Nature;" "open to all," he declares, "but seen by how few." Wordsworth, the great high-priest of Nature, laments,—

"Little we see in Nature that is ours,"

—and declares that he would rather have been born and nourished in the outworn creed of the pagan, whose worship bows down to the forces of Nature; he would rather cherish the belief that would enable him to—

"Have sight of Proteus rising from the sea,
Or hear old Triton blow his wreathèd horn"

—than to have his inward vision dimmed and his heart dulled to such impressions by the sordid cares of the world.

"The world is too much with us,"—

—he laments, while the message of the universe finds little recognition in our hearts.

But the secrets of Nature lie open to all who have the eyes to see them; hence any occupation or study which leads the way to a more intimate knowledge of, and a deeper insight into, the hidden mysteries and the all-pervading charm of God's universe is to be recommended as among the truest sources of self culture.

Most of the outdoor sports and outdoor studies which are coming more and more into vogue have their seasons,—the bicycle, the tennis court, the rod and line, the camera, the golf grounds, must be abandoned for the most part during the winter. But field ornithology, or a personal acquaintance with our "little brothers of the air," as Olive Thorne Miller has so feelingly and poetically named them, belongs to every season of the year. Its students know no vacation; it is a barren day, indeed, which affords none of its delights. Once get the key to its charm, and you are possessed of an *open sesame* to the secrets of "the peopled air," the dusky woods, and the sunny fields. Nay, you cannot even walk on the streets of the town without being liable to some sudden and unexpected thrill of pleasure or remembrance conveyed to you by the voices you have learned to know and love. They speak to you in the language of the heart. Whether you can get a fair view

of their owners or not, you know them, their forms are as perfectly patent to your mental vision as is that of a well-known friend who calls to you from a window as you pass.

The scientific ornithologist, as distinguished from the bird-lover, has completed his work. He has gone out with his gun and shot his specimens. These have been skinned, their bodies weighed, measured, and dissected, and their bones and feathers compared. With the pedigree of the bird thus discovered the ornithologist proceeds to construct his family tree, which is ramified into Kingdom, Class, Order, Family, Genus, Species.

We would fain believe that the first pair of birds fluttered down to our sphere from the realms of Paradise, but the ornithologist accepts the modern theory of evolution and with Darwinian logic reasons, from the fact that both birds and reptiles have backbones, "that a bird is a greatly modified reptile, being the offspring by direct descent of some reptilian progenitor." Says Dr. Elliott Coues:

"There is no reason to believe that any bird was ever originally created and endowed with the character it now possesses; but that every bird now living is the naturally modified lineal descendant of parents that were less and less like itself, and more and more like certain reptiles, the further removed they were in the line of avian ancestry from such birds as are now living."

Birds, then, are classed along with the reptiles in the great group of Vertebrata.

The first requisite in the equipment of the scientific ornithologist is a double-barrelled shotgun. Dr. Coues's advice is, "Get the best one you can afford to buy." Other weapons and ammunition are discussed in his "Key," and directions are given how to load the gun effectively and how to shoot successfully. Finally a good dog is recommended to bring in birds that fall in inaccessible places or are wounded.

This is enough to make one shiver; but to be told that fifty birds shot, their skins preserved, and observations recorded, is a very good day's work; that this is sharp practice, and that the ornithologist will do well if he averages a dozen a day during the season, and one third or one fourth as many the rest of the year, making over

4,000 specimens annually,—is a heart-breaking thought to the bird-lover, who will hardly be inclined to see any compensation for such wholesale slaughter of the innocents in the interest of science, in the knowledge that these feathered beauties have mounted on soaring wings from the low estate of creeping reptiles, while he has hardly yet shaken himself free from the apish proclivities of his great progenitors.

In place of the gun the bird-student takes the opera-glass. The only other requisites are sharp eyes, quick ears, and a heart open to the subtle influences of light and shade, of earth, air, and sky; for there awaits him not only ravishing beauty and sweetest music, but he is to encounter the open secrets of Nature which are perceived not alone through the eye, but through the heart as well.

Olive Thorne Miller's "Little Brothers of the Air," or one of John Burroughs's delightful books, afford the best introduction to the spirit and method of this sort of study. We would advise leaving the note-book at home and writing it up afterwards—but do not fail to keep one. An opera-glass is preferable to a field-glass, and the lighter and smaller the better, providing that its lenses are strong and clear and cover a good field.

One who takes up this fascinating pursuit may trouble his head with the scientific side of the subject as much or as little as he chooses. He may pursue it steadily or occasionally. It may be the occupation of a half-hour or a half-day, with equal profit and pleasure. Its keenest delights are snatches of revelation of another world than ours. It is to be carried with one wherever one goes, different localities only offering new and varied phases of the study. It belongs to the old and young alike. In what pursuit could some of the blithe mornings of the school girl's or boy's vacation be more pleasantly spent? And if the heyday of life be past, with its unflinching springs of joy, here is a resource against all the ills of life.

Does there ever come a day when your spirits flag,—when the lodestar of daily effort seems to have set in gloom? Then hie away to some beautiful birdy spot—(perhaps the spot may be found in your own garden), and, seating yourself in some unobtrusive place, await developments. A song is heard: listen to it; analyze it; and put it into words if you can. Keep

quiet, and the singer may perch in full sight of you. But if he keeps at a distance, follow him. Do not give up until a fair view is had of the songster. Be quiet in your movements and make as few as possible. Note the color, form, size, and song of your bird, and, if you do not know him then, look him up in some good bird-book after you go home. If you have any success at all you will not wait for the "blue devils" to drive you to a second morning with the birds.

Thoreau says that you have only to seat yourself in some pleasant place in the woods and remain perfectly quiet to have all its denizens exhibit themselves in turn before you. One should penetrate the veil which hides the busy world of these exquisite creatures of the air from ours, only in the spirit of a priest of Nature. Give yourself up to the silent influences about you until for the nonce at least you become a part of "silent Nature's breathing life." The light-stepping pantheistic presences of the sylvan glades will throng around you. You may hear their footfalls in the soft rustle of the dried leaves on the ground, or in the swaying boughs overhead. You would not be startled should a faun tap you on the shoulder, or Titania spring full fledged from the heart of the trillium blooming beside you. Depend upon eye and ear; do not make a movement except to bring your opera-glass to your eyes, and this as quietly and with as little motion as possible. The squirrels will appear and chatter to you, especially if you can answer them in their own language. The woodpecker will tap the tree above your head to see if he can startle you, and then chuckle hoarsely, so exactly like the squirrel's bark that even old hunters have been deceived by it. And perchance your silent vigil will be rewarded by the song of the hermit thrush, and that solitary beauty may reveal himself to your longing eyes. The chewink may flute you a tune and then flit away out of the leafy silence into the more open places where he makes his nest. An hour will pass as but a minute, and when you go home from such an outing with the birds you will carry that in your heart which will make plain to you the meaning of that remarkable sonnet of Wordsworth's which was quoted at the opening of the present paper.

MARGARET C. GILMORE.

CHILICOTHE, O.

A DECADE OF INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN PHILADELPHIA

"OLD PHILADELPHIA," trying to hold up its head like a proud nobleman in a state turned democratic, the city which, Spain-like, retained a position among the American municipalities on the strength of its former days of halo and glory, is no more. It has started in with the younger municipalities to build up a new life, and the historic marks of its early eminence make a picturesque background for its more recent activities. Many broadening influences have been brought to bear on its development during the past decade. Political-reform agitations, social movements, educational efforts, plans for the promotion of its commerce and industry, have all made great headway. We are, in truth, dealing with a "New Philadelphia." The civic life has been influenced by activities that are a part of that renaissance which municipalities in general are experiencing, and local forces have given a decided impetus to civic progress. It will be sufficient for our purpose to prove, within the limitations set down, the certain and rapid strides which Philadelphia has been making.

The important institutions which have aided in the development may be subdivided as follows, the years given being those of their organization: *Reform*.—Citizens' Municipal Association, 1886; Municipal League, 1891; Women's Health Protective Association, 1893; Civic Club, 1894. *Educational*.—American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, 1890; Free Library, 1891; Drexel Institute, 1891; College Settlement, 1892. *Commercial*.—Commercial Museum, 1894; Philadelphia Bourse, 1894. Among the older institutions the University of Pennsylvania is entitled to a place in this list by virtue of the many improvements and additions it has made during the past ten years.

Philadelphia began in 1887 with a government that conformed, in a general way, to the prevalent ideas of municipal government: that is to say, with executive power concentrated in one head, elected by the people; a few subordinate heads of departments appointed by and responsible to this head; separation of executive and legislative powers of government; and a more careful regulation of the financial

system. As to its framework the city had a fairly good government. Messrs. Allison and Penrose, in their volume on Philadelphia, published the same year the new government entered into operation, said:

"Much of its immediate success will depend on the wisdom exercised by councils in framing the operating ordinances, and on the character of the men who are first called upon to administer the provisions of the system."

Ten years have passed, and we have seen the wisdom of councils and the character of the city's administrators. One of the latter was put behind prison bars for malfeasance in office, charges of favoritism and incompetency—if not worse—have been made, with considerable show of proof, against others; politicians have occupied the mayor's chair, ready to sign away privileges of the municipality which a majority of each branch of councils have been equally ready to "jam through" upon the behest of corporations desiring those privileges, irrespective of the apparent wishes of the people. Woe unto such character in administrators and such wisdom in councils!

Efforts to improve the condition of municipal affairs have of course been made. They culminated in a permanent organization known as the Municipal League, established in 1891. Former organizations had been formed by small bands of citizens: this association was to be representative of the general body of citizens. It now has six thousand enrolled members. Ward associations have been organized in many wards of the city. Some endeavor has also been made to form precinct associations in the respective wards, but little has thus far been accomplished toward this end.

The history of the League is the history of many municipal reform movements throughout the country: earnestness and enthusiasm on the part of a few, securing good results here and there, a spasmodic seconding on the part of many others, with the consequent "tidal waves" that after an election or two leave the professional politicians in possession.

The League, however, represents a persistent effort. Its work is by no means discouraging. It has succeeded in putting

in office some intelligent school directors and a number of councilmen faithful to the city's interests. Together with that of other public-spirited bodies, its influence has been successful in persuading the governor of the State to veto several measures that would have been disadvantageous to the city. But it has failed to move the State legislature to pass a number of reform measures.

The League is an important factor in the education of the citizens. By means of the literature it sends into the homes and publishes in the newspapers, and the gatherings it brings about, it makes for an enlightened municipal public spirit. It is continually calling the attention of the public to evils in our present method of government, or in proposed legislation, or in the action of officials; and though the tangible results may be comparatively small, it does appear that the intangible effect is strong and growing.

Mr. Herbert Welsh, in an address on "The Relation of Women to Municipal Reform," delivered in 1894, said:

"Our main trouble heretofore in Philadelphia has been to lift the dead weight of moral indifference. Men know well the corruption that exists in various forms; they are perfectly aware of the prevalence of public dishonesty and inefficiency; they know its depressing material and moral result; but so far it has been impossible either to persuade or goad them to effective resistance. . . . Now, I believe that women, on the contrary, do care about a matter which affects us so vitally as this, and that when they are once thoroughly aroused to the fact that there is a wrong to be righted, they will study and toil, and suffer if need be, that it may be righted."

Philadelphia women have had an opportunity of proving the truth of this prophecy, for in the same year in which it was uttered, the Civic Club, composed exclusively of women, was organized, with the object, "to promote, by education and active coöperation, a higher public spirit and a better social order."

A few sympathetic words of Mr. Graham Wallas, the English reformer and University Extension lecturer, addressed to the Club in the early part of 1897, are very encouraging:

"So far as I have been around in America—and I know only a little bit about two or three American cities—from what I have seen, it seems to me the Civic Club here is the institution with which I find myself in the most complete sympathy."

Civic cleanliness, in all the varied sense of that term, is the desire of the Club. Beginning with the school children—among whom it has organized a League of Good Citizenship, and with whom Arbor Day exercises are held, and among whom pictures are placed in the schools—it proceeds to the adult population by calling the attention of housekeepers to regulations for the collection of garbage and ashes; by the placing of receptacles for waste paper (in one of the wards of the city); by the establishment of a circulating picture gallery, and the like. It was instrumental in having school yards utilized as summer-time playgrounds, and in having public vacation schools opened. The Club is constantly endeavoring to improve the administration of the city's public works, and to bring about reform therein by legislation. Its efforts have also been directed to the election of women as school directors, and though the efforts have not been greatly successful, they are sufficient to encourage further attempts; and they have been highly instructive as to the many difficulties that beset the municipal reformer in his contact with the professional politician, and the average citizen who has been trained in the way of that politician, as is graphically described in "The Story of a Women's Municipal Campaign in the Seventh Ward of the City of Philadelphia," edited by Mrs. Talcott Williams.

Municipal Government, Education, Social Science, and Art, are the four cardinal points of the Club's compass, each member enrolling herself under one or the other of the so-called departments for which these points stand. Each department makes a study of the theory of its subject, investigates practical conditions bearing thereon, and endeavors to have remedies applied or changes made where inadequate provisions or faults appear. Thus a cultivating influence is produced on the individual members; and the body, by the use of tact and the intelligent presentation of facts, is effective with officials and the public.

The power which women possess as positive factors in the civic life is further illustrated by the work of the Women's Health Protective Association. Among the most important of its labors are the agitation for a purification of the city's water; inducing the street railway company to vestibule a number of cars for the

protection of the motormen and conductors against inclement weather; assistance in securing the passage of a law to have the bake-shops inspected, and the unsanitary condition of many remedied; its participation in a movement to erect a hospital for contagious diseases, one of its means for raising a fund for this purpose having been the publication of a single issue of one of the leading Philadelphia newspapers as a Women's Edition, all the editors and contributors of which were women. The Association employed an expert to examine into the matter of the city's water supply and present a plan for its filtration. It also engaged an expert to examine into the sanitary condition of the schoolhouses and present suggestions for their improvement.

The laudable purpose of the Citizens' Municipal Association is declared as follows:

"To sustain the constituted authorities in a faithful performance of public service; to secure a strict fulfillment, by public officers, employees, and contractors, of all their obligations to the city and to the citizens."

Its agent watches the operations of the contractors for public work, and reports, after personal inspection, whatever derelictions and deviations from contracts occur. This non-official inspector of the municipality has many times secured the carrying out of contracts, but he has many times failed. This is owing to the failure of public officials to uphold complaints of the agent and of the association which he represents, as was amply shown in the investigation into the city's affairs made by a committee of the State Senate in the latter part of 1895. The Association was active in bringing about this investigation and in aiding the efforts of the committee throughout.

Thus there appears to be a constant prodding of the municipal conscience by one or the other of the reform bodies. The initiative which they are taking in the awakening of a public feeling for a higher city life; the practical endeavors they are making, backed by many men and women not organized, but holding the sentiments and the ideals of these organizations, and upheld by a passing movement here and there: all this throws bright spots on an otherwise dark feature of the city,—its municipal government.

Reaching out into the population all over the city,—with a circulation of con-

siderably over a million and a half during one year, although actually containing but one tenth that number of books,—the Free Library of Philadelphia is one of the city's great educational factors. Its instant popularity proved the want it supplied. It is to the shame of such a large community that it had not provided a public library before. It is true we have other large and useful libraries, but they are not open to the great body of the public in the sense that the books may be taken out free of charge. This boon has been granted to the residents only during the past few years. If a benevolent citizen had not left a legacy for a free library located within certain prescribed limits of the city, it is possible we might still have lacked it. Small appropriations for public "branch" libraries had been made by the city from 1891 on, but it was not until 1894, when the legacy was judicially approved and was handed over to the trustees of the Free Library, that the main library was actually opened. This main library is housed in very inadequate quarters, and the million-dollar loan voted at the election in 1897 is desired for the erection of a suitably adapted fireproof building. There are also ten branches, to which books are distributed by the main library. One of the features is the "open shelf" system, by which applicants can refer directly to the shelves for the books they desire. This appears to have added much to the popularity of the library. Fairly started, and the initial difficulties overcome, the institution is ready for expansion.

The growth of the University of Pennsylvania as a factor in the civic life is most important. Not only as an institution has it increased its influence, but many of its instructors and graduates have added the benefit of their individual efforts in the upward movement. Then, too, the mere expansion of the University, irrespective of any direct influence, must be considered in a study of the developing educational forces of the city.

The University of Pennsylvania has been making rapid strides forward in the formation of a university in the broad sense of the term. During the decade under consideration it has not only spread and strengthened its various departments and schools, but it has also assumed partial control over institutions which, though distinct, are educational and scien-

tific in their nature, and receive stimulation from their affiliation with the University; and it has plans under consideration the carrying out of which will make it still broader as a centre of culture and learning.

Notable among its achievements is the establishment of University Extension in America. In the administration of the Wistar Institute of Anatomy and Biology, opened in 1894, it has a controlling influence, appointing a majority of the board of trustees. The Museum of Archæology and Paleontology, organized in 1889, is conducted by a board of which a small number are appointed by the University. To the Department of Philosophy there was added in 1892 a graduate department for women. The Institute of Hygiene was erected in 1892. The Library in 1891 was housed in a new building. Other structures for the use of departments and adjuncts of university work have been erected, so that, with its fifty-two acres dotted with buildings and grounds, the University represents a good-sized physical entity very manifest in the section of the city known as West Philadelphia. The establishment of that splendid social gathering-place, Houston Hall, in 1896; the erection of the dormitories in the same year; the laying out of Franklin Field, in 1895, for athletic purposes,—have all tended to the promotion of that college spirit the growth of which has been so apparent of late years. The prowess of the University's athletes, too, must be counted as a not unimportant factor. So, also, the efforts of the faculty and the alumni to bring about, by means of clubs, receptions, and the like, the social contact of men interested in the University, have been effective. Altogether there has been fostered a greater *esprit de corps* among the students and the professors; the patriotism for their alma mater has been strengthened among the graduates; and admiration for the great educational institution has been heightened among the townsmen and the public at large.

The University Extension movement was organized in 1890 under the title of The American Society for the Extension of University Teaching. The work of the Society has been carried on in accordance with the methods in vogue in England in connection with the Oxford, Cambridge, and London societies. Supplying systematic courses of lectures by trained

teachers to those to whom a higher educational career in a regular school is not within reach, university extension performs a most useful function in education. Its characteristic feature as distinguished from other plans of home study is the insistence upon the importance of contact between teacher and student, laying stress upon the former's personal influence and upon the value of his guidance for study. The summer courses, into which some of the best teaching talent of the country in special fields has been drawn, are especially valuable. In the regular courses, conducted through the year, lectures have been given in many cities of Pennsylvania and in the neighboring States of New Jersey and Delaware. Some eighty courses, with audiences aggregating upwards of fifteen thousand persons, are given each year under the auspices of the society, which sends lecturers, furnishes syllabi, and directs the work of the local centres. The regular staff of lecturers is supplemented by instructors connected with the University of Pennsylvania and other educational institutions. The bulk of the support of the work comes from Philadelphia.

Courses of public lectures—many of them free—are given by various scientific and educational institutions of the city. Philadelphia has, in fact, become a great lecture centre.

Evidences of the enterprise of Philadelphia scientific institutions are the Peary expedition to the North Pole, and the expeditions of Professor Angelo Heilprin, under the auspices of the Academy of Natural Sciences.

In the public higher education there has been made an advance, as is evidenced by the Normal School for girls, which in 1891 was differentiated into an institution distinct from that of the Girls' High School. The Normal School affords excellent facilities for instruction in science as well as in pedagogics. The erection of a new and larger High School for boys is a further evidence of the growth of provisions for higher education. It must, on the other hand, be regrettably admitted that the provision in the number of schools for secondary education is inadequate.

In the Drexel Institute of Art and Industry, founded in 1891, there has been placed among the city's educational institutions one whose object is the extension and improvement of industrial education

as a means of opening wider avenues of employment to young men and women than have hitherto been available, and of supplying trained workers in fields which have heretofore been inadequately occupied by unskilled persons.

Among the social forces of the city is the College Settlement, established in 1892. It is one of three settlements formed in as many cities by the College Settlements Association. While it has not attained to that degree of prominence which settlements in several other large cities have secured, it nevertheless performs a useful function. Its work is as complex as its neighborhood. By means of individual teaching it aids the adult foreign-born people that attend its night classes in acquiring the English language. By means of a Citizenship Club it is endeavoring to promote a knowledge of our government and the acquirement of high civic ideals. It has succeeded in attracting numbers of children and young people in classes and clubs which instruct, refine, and brighten the lives of its members. Its purpose, too, is not only to instil ideas of frugality among its neighbors, as, for instance, by encouraging small savings in the Penny Savings Bank, but to teach, as well, the true economies of wise expenditures and varied consumption. The influence of the Settlement in the downtown quarter in which it is located is most valuable as a factor in helping to ameliorate social conditions.

"With a view to promoting the development of a great group of museums, general, scientific, economic, educational, and commercial," recites an Ordinance of Councils, adopted in 1894, the collections secured by the city from the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago were delegated to a board of trustees of the Philadelphia Museum. These collections form the basis of the Commercial Museum, which is the first of the group of museums it is intended to establish, as well as being the first of its kind in the country. It already performs an invaluable

service in the direction of a more intelligent appreciation of the advantages of trade with foreign countries. Dr. W. P. Wilson, the Director of the Museum, to whose inception the plan is due, has put the material in his hands in most excellent systematic shape, so that information as to almost any phase of trade with for-



THE GREAT COURT—INTERIOR OF DREXEL INSTITUTE

eign countries can readily be placed at the command of an inquirer by means of verbal or written communication.

Realizing the national importance of the institution, the Department of State of the United States has officially requested our entire consular force to co-operate in the promotion of the objects of the Museum, and it in other ways assists the Museum to attain requisite information. The governments of the Latin-American States have similarly given recognition to the work of the institution. They have appointed delegates from their respective countries to an advisory board to which delegates from commercial bodies of those countries and of this country have likewise been appointed, so that the entire American continent is officially represented in the administration of the Museum.

The most important of the exhibits from Mexico, Central and South America, Australia, South Africa, and many Asiatic countries, at the Chicago Exposition, were, at its close, removed to Philadelphia, to which products from other countries have since been added, and the general exhibits have been kept up to date. The Museum

comprises natural products which have already entered American markets or may be made available for them, and goods manufactured abroad for markets in which American manufactures should compete. The purpose is to bring before American manufacturers, dealers, and consumers all the varied products of the world; to publish concerning these products all scientific and useful information which may aid both manufacturer and consumer; to gather from all parts of the world and to make available to business men full and specific information concerning trade opportunities. By exhibits according to countries the resources and commercial features of any particular country can be studied. By exhibits according to kinds of products, a systematic arrangement will, in like manner, enable an accurate study to be made. A scientific and experimental department ascertains the scientific and economic value of the products.

The library includes publications on trade, commerce, and finance, among which are many important trade journals

and a large collection of governmental and statistical reports from the various countries. By means of an elaborate system of indexing, the information in these publications is made available to inquirers.

In the creation of the Philadelphia Bourse in 1895, the city once more placed itself in the van, for there is no other American Bourse in the European sense of the term,—a meeting-place for every class of business men, where information of value to each class is attainable, where the products of the different businesses are exhibited, and where individual members may meet each other for trade transactions.

As an example of activity in industrial reform, Philadelphia possesses a representative labor organization in the United Labor League, which was organized in 1889. It is a delegate body representing trades unions or assemblies. Its object is to secure beneficial labor laws and their enforcement, and the repeal of laws obnoxious to workingmen. It is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.



EXHIBIT OF ORIENTAL GOODS — PHILADELPHIA MUSEUM

The advance of the city in club life of the higher type is well indicated by the following from the tenth annual report of the Art Club, published in 1897:

"The aims, for the promotion of which it [the Club] exists, were imperfectly understood ten years ago, and there had been little in the way of precedent or guidance for this particular experiment in the city's experience. Indeed, that form of coöperation for which clubs of any kind stood was hardly recognized among us except in connection with purely social—modified occasionally by political—activities and aims. . . . The sure growth of this spirit of coöperation in the decade which closes to-day has been enormous, and it will hardly be denied that the tendency and influence which it embodies is, in the main, a hopeful sign of the times."

The Art Club has a home of its own in which exhibitions of works of art are held, receptions to men distinguished in art and other means of culture are given, social intercourse among its members promoted, and a library relating to works of art placed at their disposal. Such an influence as that which the Club wields in the community is difficult to specify in tangible terms, but it is safe to say that it does much toward the making of a cultivated taste.

The work of cultivating a taste in another direction is performed by the Contemporary Club, also organized in 1887. Though it has no club house as a base of operations, and therefore lacks some of that cohesive force so stimulating from the informal contact of mind with mind, it is nevertheless an important means of bringing together many able men and women—experienced in their respective professions and vocations—for the purpose of attending discussions of literary, social, and other questions of current interest, chiefly by specialists.

Similarly, the American Academy of Political and Social Science, though not a local institution, possesses a local feature in the meetings which are held for the



THE ART CLUB

discussion of papers of a political or social nature.

So, too, there are a number of other clubs which have sprung up within the decade, that add greatly to the cultivated life of the community, many of them composed of specialists, but often affording the public an opportunity of participating in lectures, meetings, and receptions at which questions of somewhat general interest are discussed.

This record shows the lines along which the civic life has most progressed. There are other lines which require development so as to make the life fuller, and some plans are being projected to that end. We shall have art galleries and scientific museums, and commercial expositions and the like; but it will require yeoman service on the part of our reform organizations to bring about greater progress in municipal service and in municipal conditions. It is but a sad reflection to conclude that Philadelphia is no worse off in this respect than other cities. When once we come to a true realization of the value of non-partisan municipal government, the possibilities of our municipalities will be immense. In the meantime we work bravely on, pushing ahead wherever we can, transforming the civic life to something ever nobler and more beautiful.

CHARLES S. BERNHEIMER.

PHILADELPHIA.

MISSIONS AND SOCIAL EVOLUTION

THAT the world is growing better, and that Christianity is everywhere working its way into the great heart of humanity, are matters that no reflecting person can doubt who rises from a perusal of the second volume of Dr. Dennis's great work on foreign missions.* We have already in these pages noticed the first instalment of the work, and spoken of it as of high interest and unique value, not only to those interested in the literature of missionary enterprise, but to all whose minds are open to be impressed by the power of the Christian religion to purify

delivered, were but the framework of what their author has, with infinite labor, since presented in a greatly developed form. A perusal of the second volume of the work heightens our admiration, not only of the author's industry in marshalling his vast array of facts, but his gifts in reducing them to scientific order. Not less remarkable is his power of making them tell their significant story, as witnesses for the zeal and earnestness, in every land, of intelligent missionary labor. What that story is we gave some indication of in noticing the author's first vol-



HOSPITAL AT MOMBASA

and elevate the debased life of benighted nations. The basis of the work, as we have previously stated, is a course of lectures, since greatly expanded and methodized, delivered by the author at Princeton and other theological seminaries. When delivered the lectures attracted much attention, owing to the masterly treatment of the subject in Dr. Dennis's hands, and the rich grouping of facts, which the author has been able to gather, correlate, and record, touching many phases of missionary work, and especially those that come within the purview of the sociologist. The lectures, as originally

ume, which dealt with Christianity as the social hope of heathen nations, and of missions as a factor in bringing the non-Christian world to a knowledge of the Christ.

The scope of two striking lectures in the earlier volume it is worth while here to recall. One dealt with the social evils of heathendom, which included those that result not only from the vices, ignorance, and brutality of heathenism, but those that are produced by the tyranny of custom, idolatry, and superstition, as well as by the low commercial standards or defective industrial methods for which civilization is responsible in its contact with Oriental countries. This was followed by a thoughtful, practical chapter on "Inef-

* Christian Missions and Social Progress,* by Rev. James S. Dennis, D.D. Vol. II. Illustrated. New York: Fleming H. Revell Co., 1899.

fectual Remedies and the Causes of Their Failure," in which the author affirmed, and with cogent proof, that social regeneration in heathen lands is not to be looked for in education merely, or in any attempt at civilizing benighted races before the work of Christianization has in some measure at least been accomplished.

The new volume carries on the story of the social results of missions. This story is grouped under three general heads:— (1) results manifest in the individual character; (2) results affecting family life; and (3) results of a humane and philanthropic tendency. In the first of these groups the author records the results of the movements in behalf of temperance, deliverance from the opium habit, the placing of restraints upon gambling, the discrediting of mutilation, self-inflicted torture, and the resort to suicide, and shows what the missions have done in these reforms and in inculcating habits of industry, frugality, chastity, and the cultivation of the per-

sonal virtues. In the second group are dealt with the repression of infanticide, polygamy, child marriage, and the enforced seclusion of women, with accounts of what has been done in the elevation of the sex. In the third group the author treats of the work accomplished in suppressing the slave trade, the liquor traffic, cannibalism, cruel ordeals, inhuman sports and sacrifices, in promoting prison reform, in the mitigation of the barbarities of tribal wars, in extending relief to famine-stricken communities, in giving effect to the crusade against the pernicious habit of foot-binding among the Chinese, in introducing modern medical science, and in promoting habits of cleanliness and sanitation, with other humane ameliorations and enlightened Christian ministrations. The author's discussion of these immensely varied topics, and his account of the mighty social changes that the missions have produced, are extremely interesting and instructive, as the results chronicled are most gratify-



A KINDERGARTEN GROUP AT SMYRNA

ing and encouraging. The range of subjects is indeed so wide, so admirable is the mode of handling them, and so informing and illuminating are the author's deductions from them, that one turns with un-

add greatly to the interest of the narrative, while they graphically reveal to the reader what the missions are accomplishing in many lands in the contact of their many and zealous workers with the varied phases of missionary work. One of these represents the educational possibilities of missions at Smyrna in dealing with child life; two others show what is being done in the training of young womanhood in China and Japan; while another exhibits portraits of two prelates of the Colonial Church of England working in Zanzibar, with a picture of the cathedral church erected on the site of a recent African slave-market.

The author's labors in gathering and digesting the mass of material here so skilfully presented and treated of merit unstinted praise. No pains have manifestly been spared in culling, sifting, and arranging the testimonies from every land concerning this great evangelizing movement; while the deductions based upon them must commend the work to every student of sociology



DR. MARY STONE

DR. IDA KAHN

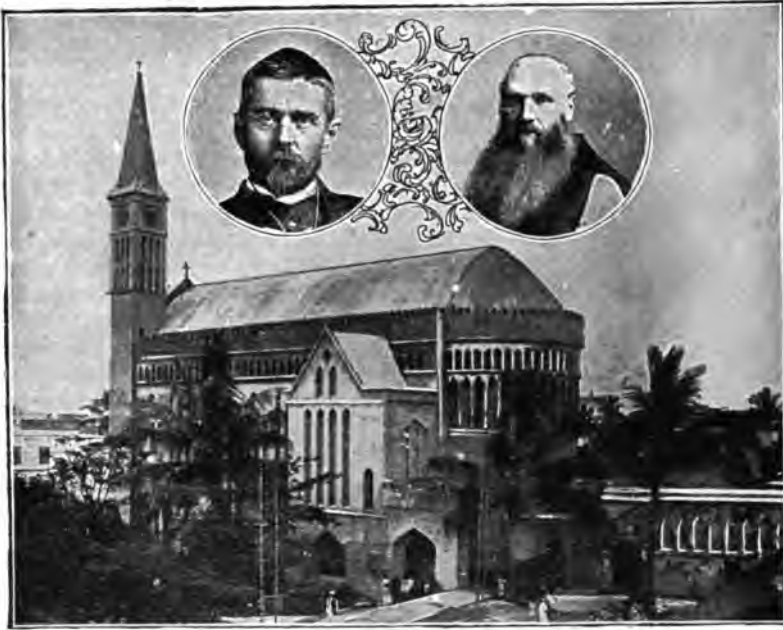
usual zest and interest to the too often despised mission work, and with the feeling that here surely is something being accomplished beyond the mere evangelizing of the heathen races of the world—great and worthy as that achievement is. There are other and no less weighty results attained in the social betterment of the world, in the raising of the status of down-trodden and degraded peoples, in the intellectual and moral elevation of humanity, in the awakening of non-Christian races to a higher, a better, and a manlier life,—a life of upward progress and development, of self-respect, self-reliance, and of quickened possibilities for all that is useful, wholesome, and good. The many pictures that embellish the work—some examples of which, thanks to the publishers, are shown in these pages—



DR. HU KING ENG

EDUCATIONAL POSSIBILITIES FOR CHINESE WOMEN

and to all who are interested in the signal achievements of foreign missions. Nor is Dr. Dennis's enthusiasm in the cause he has so comprehensively and impressively treated of less obvious than are his catholicity, candor, and judgment, which are

*The late Bishop Maples**Bishop Richardson*

CHRIST CHURCH CATHEDRAL, ZANZIBAR

conspicuous in every page he has written. These and other qualities in the author have enabled him to make a contribution to the literature of missions of the highest value, while it is also notable for its vast scope as well as for its originality of treatment and the force and freshness of its interest. The author has had the advantage of his own missionary experience in writing the work, as well as the leisure of later and earnest years, when he had withdrawn from active labor in evangelistic fields to prepare this history. His personal connection with missionary work

has been specially advantageous in making him familiar with missionary activities in all parts of the world, and has enabled him to tap the story at first hand of what is being done in the dark places of the earth for civilization and Christianity. A third and completing volume is yet to come, which, we learn, will be chiefly devoted to a statistical survey of foreign missions throughout the world. The publishers deserve commendation for their share in the production of this epoch-making book.

G. M. A.



NEW IDEALS FOR JAPANESE WOMANHOOD—A GRADUATING CLASS AT
FERRIS SEMINARY, YOKOHAMA

THE ANGLO-AMERICAN RAPPROCHEMENT: FROM AN ENGLISH STANDPOINT

IN THE present state of good feeling between the United States and Great Britain, the immediate cause of which has to be sought in the political attitude taken by the latter at the commencement of the Hispano-American war, we may find a suitable opportunity for the study of things English, and by information get rid of some of the common prejudices that have dominated the sentiment of both countries. It can hardly be disputed that until quite recently the average run of opinion in this country on the subject of England and Englishmen has been either the result of animosities kindled in the heart of the nation at the "Boston Tea Party," or the reflection of views expressed by party leaders who have a point to gain on the stump. In either case it is unjust: in the latter, because political exigency has won too many victories over historical veracity; in the former, because it is based upon the assumption that the English people are incapable of repentance, and are cherishing defeats which, on a suitable occasion, they will seek to reverse. Happily these forces are ceasing to operate, and we are, as I believe, on the eve of a new era in our relations as nations of a common origin and tradition.

Within recent times one of the strongest reasons for this change of sentiment among the people is to be found in the events connected with the Venezuela dispute, which led to the issue by President Cleveland of his famous message enforcing the Monroe Doctrine as applicable to the questioned boundary, and as an integral part of American foreign policy. With the personal motives of the President and his advisers we are not concerned; but we may all recall the tremendous effect it had upon the responsible and self-respecting portion of the community, especially when it became more clear that the issue, so far as this government went, was determined, and that whether hostilities were entered upon would depend upon the action of the British government. With the exception of the "yellow" press and a small jingo minority, no one in this country wanted war; and that no resort was made to arms was due to the sound practical sense of

the great mass of English-speaking people on both sides of the Atlantic. And to the credit of the British government be it said, there was no attempt or wish to override the popular sentiment in this matter. The pacific intention of our transatlantic cousins after this became a much more calculable factor, and for the first time in recent history hearts and hands joined across the seas to maintain the peace of the world.

This sentiment has been growing meanwhile, and, as already said, the impartial attitude of Great Britain during the recent war, and her determination to enforce the same impartiality on other nations, have only crystallized the general feeling so that it has become a conviction that the Anglo-Saxon people, in its two great branches, can be mutually trustful. But this position, no less than the one which has given place to it, has its dangers; and it is only as we become better acquainted that the present, which is so full of promise, will not miss its opportunity. To contribute to this end is the purpose of the present essay. My remarks will be confined to two main lines: the one dealing with the present status of the question we are considering; the other with suggested improvements.

I.—Are the American and British people acquainted? This may appear to many readers a superfluous question; and if not a little impatience is felt at being asked to consider it for a moment, I shall not be surprised. Indeed, I may confess to having had something of the same experience when the question has been asked by a fellow Englishman, Do the Americans know England? So often, years ago, have I wondered at the knowledge displayed—for example, by farmers' wives and their daughters—of my native country and city, that I have been put to shame that only on minor points have I been able to add to their stock of information. Indeed, I am not sure if I have not consulted maps and guide-books before going into society, so as to be posted and ready to give an intelligent answer to any vivacious inquirer. So convinced was I that the majority whom I met had made first-hand acquaintance with the land and

the people, that courage failed to put the question of fact; and so certain was I that the American imagination was constructive enough to serve the minority who had not, that to save my own shame I maintained a discreet silence. Beyond a doubt in my mind was the fact that whatever ignorance might prevail among the British, no such imputation could be fairly brought against the American people.

But this was years ago; and now I am seriously raising the inquiry, Are the American and British people acquainted? If no direct reply, either affirmative or negative, can be given,—for extremes are usually wrong,—we may at least maintain a modified position, such as, "Not as well as is desirable." But even to do this we shall have to introduce a definition, and ask what we mean by "acquaintance." To this we are helped by Professor James, who, in his "Principles of Psychology" (1. p. 221), remarks that, broadly speaking, we may distinguish between two kinds of knowledge,—what he calls "knowledge of acquaintance" and "knowledge about." The distinction is well marked by the German verbs *kennen* and *wissen*. The former is used to mark the personal relations one has to other persons and things; the latter designates that knowledge which is the result of investigation and study. Hence that department of philosophy which is called "epistemology," or theory of knowledge, receives in German the title *wissenschaftslehre*. There is a good deal of this kind of knowledge abroad; but this only shows that our education, if it has done nothing else, has imparted a certain amount of information, and perchance the stock has grown as the years have flown. But such knowledge can never be a substitute for the other kind; for the "knowledge of acquaintance" among individuals and nations is the basis of all good understanding.

I would not be taken to mean either that we can dispense with the study of history because its results have not led to insight, or that there is no relation between these two kinds of knowledge. On the contrary, if the people of the United States and Great Britain are to come into closer sympathy with and appreciation of one another, what we know *about* each other—if this is no old wives' fable—ought to make the *rapprochement* the easier for both sides. But that such an *entendement* as recent events have been forcing upon

the attention of the public has not before been felt as a practical force is a little surprising, especially as we are dealing with nations of a common stock and intellectually and educationally alive. It points, I think, either to the inadequacy of our methods in the teaching of history, or to the refusal to allow our sympathies to follow our knowledge in the practical conduct of life. At any rate it all goes to show that our knowledge in the matter has hitherto been both inadequate and too objective; for the true educational theory requires that we be trained intellectually so that we may act intelligently; and in order to act thus, as the science of psychology abundantly shows, our feelings must be brought under the restraining influence of scientifically verified information. Hence, granting—what has not been denied—that the memory is stored with historical facts and figures, the first step to that other kind of knowledge which affects our judgment and practical attitude may be taken when the common prejudices of the stump have given place to sympathetic (albeit informed) feeling and brotherly kindness.

But, as matter of fact, have not large numbers of the two nations met along the avenues of commerce and travel? This, of course, is true; but, as regards the former, the individualistic or non-social standpoint has dominated, mutual suspicion and greed keeping both sides, generally speaking, on the alert for gaining the advantage; and, as concerns the latter, too much the same mercantile feeling has prevailed. Recognizing that we are not yet able to look to trade directly as a civilizing agency; that the ethics of commerce are only slowly admitting the leaven of Christian truth; and therefore that it is not one of the practicable means for getting at the best there is in the Anglo-Saxon character,—we may consider whether travel, as a hygienic and educational force, has opened the way for that acquaintance of which we are speaking.

There is one *a priori* consideration which makes us look with favor upon the interchange of thought and feeling by travel, and which, however short it has actually come of the ideal, may incline us still to regard it as an available agency in the good we all desire. In the modern sense, travel is a unique thing—at least in intention. There is nothing similar in all the previous history of the

world. Perhaps one of the most striking impressions the study of anthropology leaves is the commercial value of moving about from place to place. From the nomadic state, when the tribe had no permanent home, till we come to the great civilizations that have successively held dominion over larger or smaller areas, travel has always had direct reference to domestic or political economy. Self-preservation has been the law in accordance with which primitive as well as later civilizations have moved. But as it has become easier to maintain one's place within the political whole on account of the greater complexity of interests that bind individuals together, we have come to see that a large amount of work that formerly claimed each one's attention can now be delegated, and so the attention be freed for the pursuit of definite business ends. This means, of course, that the age of the specialist has come; and the age of the specialist has made us acquainted with the importance of change in the occupations of life, if devotion to a single line of work is not to take its own revenge in fastening on us permanent neurotic conditions. In other words, holiday-making has become a necessity, arising out of the circumstances of modern civilization. It has a direct hygienic value.

If taken according to its original intention, it is likewise an educational force. It is the one if it is the other. For example, how many of the nervous breakdowns are due to overtaxing certain areas of the brain to the neglect of others? Paradoxical as it may seem, the uncivilized man is a much more evenly educated, a much more balanced individual than the average citizen of either the United States or Great Britain. If we are to preserve our mental poise we shall have to learn the lesson lower forms of civilization have to teach; and part of this lesson is to give ourselves to new interests in the vacation season; for, physiologically, we can only return to our business or profession renewed if during the summer period of rest we have been using different brain centres and nerve tracts. And how better can this be done than by travel, by making acquaintance with new places and people, and by allowing new influences and impressions to take possession of us so that in the end we may take possession of them?

But have our travels been so utilized? From observation and experience the

answer is doubtful. Have we not gone about as Americans and Englishmen? Who has not heard of John Bull and Uncle Sam? These designations have definite social significance; they point to a certain conformity to type on the part of the inhabitants of the two countries. And for the most part it is in this way: as "typical," we feel called upon to travel, and consequently we have shut ourselves off from a large part of what is good and worthy in one another. For example, the common experience of many Americans in the mother country may be summarized in the remark, "Everything is so small;" and, *per contra*, the Englishman's impression of the States may be expressed thus, "Everything is so new." Neither remark is very shrewd; they only embody what every schoolboy of ten ought to blush not to know. They are merely the insistence upon standpoint; and, so far as any informing value goes, they only tell us that the States are *large*, and England is *old*. But points of view are useful only if they enable us to see something beyond; and the negative attitude of most travellers enforces the point that travel is an educative force only when the individual standpoint is transcended. How many travel in the way here suggested?

The present standing of the question here considered, then, is seen to be this: (1) That there is a large amount of information about one another possessed by the people of Great Britain and the United States, but that this can only be made the basis, and not the substitute for that acquaintance which comes about as the result of actual contact of people with people, which is made possible by the moderate cost and ease of travel; (2) that travel, if it is to bring about this end, must have (a) no business object in view, but must be (b) for pleasure, that is, for health and education; (3) that, in order to achieve this result, we must (a) not rest in any individual or national standpoint, but (b) stretch out beyond both in the way of observation and sympathy, so as to gain a better insight into the national genius of the people among whom we sojourn.

II.—In trying to suggest some means for the furtherance of the friendly feeling we are disposed to indulge, and which goes by the term *rapprochement*, the writer will forego any further reference to

travel, having allowed himself already to suggest how this may be utilized for the cultivation of a better international sentiment. It must not be forgotten that only a small part of any people have inclination, time, or means for this kind of holiday-making. And it is perhaps unfortunate that those who can and do avail themselves of it for the most part belong to the *nouveaux riches*, which too frequently, in a country like this, means that they carry with them the vices of their class rather than the best traditions of American citizenship. This, at any rate, has been the feeling very generally expressed in England. The proprietor of a hotel in London, who has entertained quite a number of American visitors, remarked that they were the most troublesome and worst-paying of his guests. Knowing that a professor from one of the leading Eastern universities had been staying at the same house, I recently made the inquiry how he was liked. The reply was spontaneous, "No trouble, prompt payer." This only enforces the truth that a great deal depends upon travellers as fore-agents in the cause of the brotherhood of the Anglo-Saxon race.

With this I turn to remark upon one or two steps that have already been taken, as it seems to me, in the right direction.

Something has been said about the study of history and the kind of knowledge to which it leads. We may profitably continue that line a little farther. Our pursuit of this subject has hitherto been too much determined by sectional interests; and the result has been that we are treated to sectional histories. This is due, no doubt, to inadequate conceptions of the purpose of historical inquiries. Hitherto the teacher has been wont to be satisfied when the pupil has stored his memory with events and dates which are readily recalled. But while this is very necessary as a groundwork, it can hardly be considered as the ideal after which the teacher and pupil alike ought to strive. Nor, indeed, can we bring ourselves to regard more favorably the school of romantic historians, whose main purpose is to cast around the skeleton outlined by the former dry-as-dust party, the vivacity that belongs to living reality. Truth, no doubt, and especially historical truth, is stranger than fiction; and it only requires a facile pen and vivid imagination to invest with all the attractions of a novel

the course of events in the past. But under neither aspect do we find that usefulness which ought to belong to such a study as history. Much more commendable is that view of the subject which Prof. John R. Seeley* has expressed, and which, in short, declares that we ought to have regard for the meaning of events as they affect the future course of the nation's progress. It is the "prophetic" view, if we may say so, of the New Testament.† By it we are led to emphasize what affects the interests of men as having preëminence, and in the end we should be led to form a world-theory.

If now we bring to the test of this purpose the histories that are generally in use among the people, we shall see how little insight has been displayed in their compilation, and how little sympathy in their composition. More than anything else, I think, the party histories are to blame for the fostering of the anti-English feeling in this country. But we need not attribute malice prepense to the writers of these works, for under the historical ideals that have prevailed no better results were to be looked for. And, besides, the political relations of any country are so numerous and complex that, except with the very few, it is difficult, with the sincerest purpose, to render an unprejudiced account. As affecting our present subject, who will say that even an approximately true description has been given of the popular feeling in England concerning the secession of the North American colonies? And how can an Englishman properly estimate the sentiment of the States during the Civil War at the suspected sympathy of the mother country with the South? Here are two crucial events that no mathematical or romantic historian can adequately gauge; and they are both of a kind that it is difficult for the most unprejudiced, who is of the opposite party, to speak about with wisdom. What, then, is to be done? Just what report says is being done; namely, that for the text-books on the history of a foreign country we look to an accredited historian of that country; and it is a happy augury for the future that the wife of Mr. Green, the historian, has been engaged to write a history of England for the use of American schools. I may also suggest that the history of the United

* *The Expansion of England*, p. 308, 309.
† *Cf. Rom. iv, 23; 1 Cor. x, 17.*

States by Mr. Fiske would make a suitable text-book for the enlarging number of those who, in the old country, are interested to know something about the great western republic.

Another step looking toward a better understanding has been taken in the interchange, between the two countries, of leading men of learning, for a shorter or longer service, in all the professions. We are all familiar with the phrase, "the Republic of Letters"; and perhaps nothing has done so much in the past to foster amity as the free exchange of thought and opinion on scientific and religious questions. As was to be expected, the indebtedness in this respect is America's; but if she falls behind in the number of those who have crossed the Atlantic on these missions, she has given as good, if not as much, as she has received. And the promise of the future is bright in this regard if we may judge from the recent appointments of Professors James and Royce, of Harvard University, to lecture-ships on the Gifford foundation.

In conclusion, it is a position that needs no arguing that we can never go back to where we were twenty-five or even ten years ago. But it may still be doubtful whither we are tending. Already, both here and in England, a political turn has been thought necessary to be given to these events, and there has been much talk about an "Anglo-American alliance." Generally speaking, such a consummation is more in harmony with the traditions of the republic than of the monarchy, for Englishmen never forget that the

Constitution of the empire has yet to be written. And hence it is not surprising that but little serious attention, either by politician or people, has been devoted to this aspect of the subject in Great Britain. Without closing the way altogether in this direction, it seems a matter not to be within the sphere of "practical politics." But if we seek to find the political significance of this *rapprochement*, it will, I think, be found in the immense importance of nominating suitable persons, by successive Presidents, to the ambassadorial post at the Court of St. James. We have been particularly fortunate in this respect, and much good has been done by the urbanity and culture of the men who have represented this republic in the metropolis of the empire.

Finally, we may look forward to the time when the two governments will be able to adopt a system of penny postage. Already the efforts of Mr. Henniker Heaton have met with success within the limits of the empire (with the exception of certain Australian colonies), and the emigrant thereby has more than halved the distance between himself and home. If this is a practicable scheme in this case, why is it not possible between the United States and Great Britain, two countries that can afford—supposing financial loss—to indulge the healthy sentiment of brotherhood? When this is done we shall be a long way on the road toward realizing the promise of the Anglo-American *rapprochement*.

ARTHUR ERNEST DAVIES.

BURWELL, NEE.

THE FAMOUS LYONS MAIL CASE

AMONG civilized nations the love of justice is deeply rooted in human nature. The world-wide interest in the fate of Capt. Dreyfus is due to this sentiment. Without considering the question of guilt or innocence, it has been proven, and is acknowledged even by Frenchmen, that Capt. Dreyfus was illegally convicted. This fact alone ought to suffice to secure him a retrial. However, it seems almost impossible to correct a judicial error in France.

This military scandal, with its various complications, recalls another famous case

wherein an innocent man was unfortunately convicted and executed; and whose good name French justice (?) refused to clear legally even after his innocence had been fully established. This affair, which is known as the Lyons Mail Case, presents the most famous instance of mistaken identity in all legal history.

The most remarkable circumstance to be noticed in the trial of this famous case, wherein the life of innocent Joseph Le-surques was sacrificed because of his fatal resemblance to one of the real criminals, is the deliberate refusal of the judges to

admit the testimony of fourteen persons of known probity because of a mistake made by another witness. On the day of the trial fifteen reputable witnesses gave testimony which established an incontrovertible *alibi* for Lesurques, but, owing to a mistake of one witness, the judges threw out the testimony of every one of them, and they were looked upon as perjurers. An altered date in a day-book of one of the witnesses was regarded with suspicion, although he protested that the first date was an error which he immediately had rectified. Some writers claim that the witness, in his zeal to aid Lesurques, deliberately falsified the entry, but did it so clumsily that it was discovered. However, the very clumsiness of the alteration would seem to indicate that it was not done with a view to deceive. Had deception been the object, some pains surely would have been taken to remove all traces of the alteration. The judges evidently considered it a deliberate falsification, made for the purpose of adding weight to the evidence in Lesurques' favor. Even after they had thrown out the testimony of this erring witness, why should they, even if they had any legal right to, refuse to consider the testimony of the other fourteen persons, which would still have established a satisfactory *alibi* for the prisoner? The French government's definite refusal judicially to rehabilitate the character of Lesurques, even after his innocence had been fully established, is the most remarkable instance of injustice in the whole affair. I have touched upon these unusual features first, because to them are due many of the misfortunes which befell Lesurques and his family.

Joseph Lesurques came to Paris from his native town, Douai, in April, 1796. He had married Mlle. Campion, a young lady of respectable family in Douai, in 1790; and it was for the purpose of giving their children the benefit of a superior education that he decided to move to Paris. He resigned a public office in Douai before he came to the capital, where he intended to live on his own private means, which afforded him an income of about \$1,500 a year. He was busily engaged in furnishing a permanent home for himself and his family when misfortune befell him.

One morning, four days prior to the tragedy that engulfed him, Lesurques dined in a restaurant with a friend named

Guenot. Two other persons dined with them, one of whom, a man named Courriol, just happened in as they drew their chairs to the table. The company separated after taking coffee at the Palais Royal. Four days later, April 27, 1796, four horsemen, one of whom was Courriol, rode out of Paris. The sabre that hung from each horseman's belt was partially concealed by the long cloak each wore. Between twelve and one o'clock these four horsemen dined at Montgeron, a village on the road to Melun. About three in the afternoon they stopped at an inn in Lieursaint, where they passed the time playing billiards until half-past seven, when they remounted their horses and rode toward Melun.

It was dark at half-past eight when the mail coach from Paris to Lyons arrived at Lieursaint and changed horses. Besides the postilion and the mail courier there was one passenger (who gave his name as Laborde) on the coach as it swung along the road toward the forest of Leuart. That night the mail coach was attacked and plundered, and the courier and postilion murdered. Seventy-five thousand livres was the amount of currency the highwaymen secured. The coach, with its rifled despatch-trunk, was discovered next morning. The dead bodies of the courier and postilion were found covered with sabre wounds.

The officers of justice heard about the party of horsemen that had stopped in Lieursaint, and that five persons had journeyed toward Paris the morning after the tragedy. Also that four foam-covered horses had been returned about five o'clock that morning to Monsieur Muiron, in Rue des Fosses, Saint Germain l'Auxerrois, by two persons named Bernard and Courriol, who had hired them the day before. Bernard was arrested, but Courriol escaped. Bernard then furnished the officers with a description of his accomplices. Courriol was traced to and arrested in Chateau Thierry. Guenot and another man, who were found in the house in which Courriol lodged, were also arrested, but proved *alibis* and were released.

The day following his release from custody, Guenot, accompanied by Lesurques, whom he had met on the street, visited the office of the magistrate before whom he had been conducted the day before, in order to secure his papers, which had been seized at the time of his arrest.

While Guenot and Lesurques were seated in the outer office waiting for the magistrate to arrive, several witnesses who had been summoned entered the office to make their depositions. Two women who were among them declared positively that the two men in the outer office were two of the murderers. Their statements were communicated to the magistrate when he arrived at two o'clock. He was greatly astonished by what had been told him, and expressed his disbelief in the truth of the women's assertions. A dispassionate consideration of this act, which made possible these accusations, must convince any fair-minded person that they were the result of error on the part of the witnesses. Had Lesurques been an accomplice in the crime of which he was accused, it would have been suicidal for him to appear unnecessarily before the magistrate conducting the investigation at the very time that witnesses were being examined for the purpose of establishing the identity of the culprits. The magistrate fully realized this, and did not believe that any criminal had the temerity wilfully to slip his head within the noose of justice. Neither his solemn warnings nor his careful examination of the two women, separately and together, caused them to deviate from their first assertions. Even after Guenot and Lesurques, who had been brought into the room so that the women might have a better look at them, had returned to the outer room, the women still persisted in their accusations. Consequently both men were arrested and confined in prison.

At the trial Lesurques was sworn to by four other persons as being one of the party of horsemen seen in the vicinity of the murder; and each witness was equally emphatic regarding his identity. The testimony against Guenot was sworn to with equal emphasis, but he proved his innocence by establishing a satisfactory *alibi* and was acquitted.

Lesurques' attempted *alibi* failed of its purpose owing to an altered date in the day-book of Lagrand, a jeweler, to whom he swore he had sold a bill of goods on the day of the tragedy. Despite the jeweler's protestation that the first date was an error, the judges disbelieved his story and accused him of falsifying the entry in order to manufacture evidence in Lesurques' favor. Owing to this unfortunate alteration of a date, the testimony of the fourteen other witnesses of known probity

whom Lesurques had called to prove an *alibi* was looked upon with suspicion, and they were thought to be self-convicted perjurers. Eighty persons drawn from all classes testified to Lesurques' uprightness of character; but the jeweler's mistake swept aside all this weight of favorable evidence, and Lesurques was declared guilty. When the magistrate pronounced the sentence, Lesurques arose and is quoted as saying; "I am innocent of the crime imputed to me. Ah, citizens! if murder on the highway is atrocious, it is not less a crime to execute an innocent man."

The evidence against Courriol was quite conclusive; one witness even quoting part of his conversation heard while he was taking dinner at Montgeron. Courriol's mistress, who was also tried as an accomplice, though compromising herself, declared that Lesurques was the innocent victim of his fatal likeness to Dubosc. When sentence was pronounced on Courriol, he said: "I am guilty; my accomplices were Vidal, Rossi, Durochat, and Dubosc; but Lesurques is innocent."

After the trial Madeline Breban, Courriol's mistress, came before the judges and repeated her statement, and two other witnesses informed them that she had told the same story to them before the trial. To the judges' application for a reprieve the Council of Five Hundred promptly answered: "The jury had legally sentenced the accused, and the right of pardon had been abolished."

Lesurques heard the history of Dubosc from Courriol, and the day before his execution he had the following notice inserted in all the Paris newspapers:

"Man, in whose place I am to die, be satisfied with the sacrifice of my life; if you be ever brought to justice, think of my three children covered with shame, and of their mother's despair, and do not prolong the misfortunes of so fatal a resemblance."

To his wife, on the morning of his execution, March 10, 1797, he wrote a pathetic letter as follows:

"My dear wife,—

We cannot avoid our fate. I shall, at any rate, endure mine with the courage which becomes a man. I send you some locks of my hair. When my children are older, divide it with them. It is the only thing that I can leave them."

He was thirty-three years old at the time of his execution, and, when he

mounted the scaffold, was dressed in white as a symbol of his innocence.

It was not long before doubts began to arise as to the justice of Lesurques' sentence. Daubenton, one of the judges, resolved to bring Courriol's accomplices to justice in order to determine the truth. This resolve is remarkable, inasmuch as the usual procedure is to ascertain the whole truth first and have the convictions follow its establishment.

Durochat, *alias* Laborde, who was arrested about two years later, was the first one of the quartette apprehended. He corroborated Courriol's statements regarding Lesurques' innocence; and gave a vivid description of the attack on the mail coach. According to his story he had stabbed the courier while Rossi despatched the postilion with a sabre; and also that Dubosc wore a blond wig on the day of the murder. Vidal, who was the next one arrested, denied everything, but was positively identified by witnesses; and he was sentenced to imprisonment for life. He managed to escape from prison, but was recaptured and executed. Dubosc, the third accomplice arrested, and who was brought to trial at the same time as Vidal, was recognized as a desperado who had been sentenced to the galleys for life, and who had broken prison four different times. He also denied everything. He was imprisoned, however, and broke his leg in an attempt to escape. As soon as his fracture had healed he again made an attempt to escape, this time successfully. In less than a year he was again arrested, and was executed in February, 1802. When brought before the tribunal at Versailles, a blond wig was placed on his head, and the witnesses who had testified against Lesurques realized their mistake and abjured their former testimony. Rossi, the last of the quartette captured, acknowledged his crime and affirmed the innocence of Lesurques.

According to French law all of Lesurques' property was confiscated after his conviction; and thereby the widow and children were reduced to indigence. A government that had erred so grievously should have hastened to make legal restitution by restoring the confiscated property to the despoiled family, and by making judicial declaration of its victim's innocence. But this is what France did

not do in the case of Joseph Lesurques. Neither the confessions of the real criminals, nor the recantations of the erring witnesses, availed to secure a revision of the sentence. According to the French code the right of revision no longer existed, for no one except the person directly interested was allowed to question the jury's verdict. Under the Directory, the Consulate, and the Restoration, the applications of the widow and family were equally unsuccessful.

In 1824, twenty-eight years after Lesurques' execution, a part of the property to the value of \$46,092 was restored. In 1835 another grant, valued at \$48,636, was obtained, making a total restitution of \$94,728. The family tried for over half a century to have Lesurques' memory judicially restored to its former rights, but in 1869 the Corps Législatif definitely refused to make any such restoration. Literature and the drama did for him what the law would not, and Lesurques became a popular hero. "The Lyons Mail," a popular French melodrama, in which Lesurques' innocence is fully established, was translated by Henry Irving and Charles Reade, and its reproduction on the English stage proved one of the modern successes.

M. le Vicomte Clary, who died in Paris, at the age of eighty, about three years ago, was counsel for the family of the unfortunate Lesurques, and became well known through his connection with the case.

The sequels to this case are sad. When told of her husband's condemnation Mme. Lesurques went mad. Through brooding over the government's refusal to restore her father's honor, one daughter, grown to a young lady, became a raving maniac. Her sister, exhausted by the unequal fight, drowned herself in the Seine. Lesurques' son courted death and was killed while serving in the Russian army. One of the women who bore witness against the unfortunate man grieved so over her error that she also became insane.

Though the French courts have never cleared his honor, his good name has risen above the pedantry of weak human officials, and to-day stands rehabilitated in the eyes of the world.

FRANK H. MARK.

INDIANAPOLIS.

TRUSTS—THEIR LEGAL STATUS

THE word "Trust" has become a term of indefinite meaning. It was appropriately employed a few years ago to designate the holding by trustees of the controlling stocks of several competing corporations to effect their practical consolidation. The oil and sugar trusts were notable illustrations of this form of industrial combination to limit or destroy competition. The term "Trust," as now used, may be loosely defined as a combination of the productive forces in a given industry to create a monopoly by which to control production, reduce expenses, and raise prices. Its final and most perfect form is the monopoly corporation to own and operate all the properties involved. True, the term covers all "pools," "associations," "understandings," "gentlemen's agreements," and combinations of every sort to restrict production, reduce expenses, and control prices. These are, however, but steps in a vast industrial evolution or revolution. They are steadily making way for the incorporated trust. The real question lies between organized society on the one hand and the mighty monopoly corporation on the other. When the final issue is joined it will be found that the forces of monopoly have retired from the open field of clearly illegal engagements to the strongly fortified camp of incorporation.

Every lover of definite language, every lawyer who cherishes the grand old word "trust" as used in equity jurisprudence, joins with Mr. Aldace F. Walker in deploring its transformation in popular speech into a term of opprobrium. To lawyers it will hereafter have two distinct meanings, one definite and true in equity jurisprudence, the other indefinite and opprobrious to describe combinations for ends hostile to public policy.

The recent rapid formation of trusts, "the rush to industrial monopoly," is the source of great and growing popular apprehension. It seems to be working in our midst a stupendous industrial revolution. The end cannot be foreseen. The gathering storm may prove to be a destroying cyclone or but the precursor of a better industrial day. Be this as it may, it is now both possible and wise to inquire into the legal status of the monopoly corporation and to take stock of the resources

with which organized society is equipped to meet this modern form of feudalism. This calls for a somewhat elementary inquiry into the nature and function of the corporation and its proper relations to the individual and to organized society.

The individual is the natural industrial unit. In a state of entirely free competition each individual would freely compete with all others. None would receive aid from any other or from the law of the land. Whether these conditions long prevailed anywhere, or were indeed possible save in primitive society, we need not here inquire. Whether they were ever, or would now be, desirable, it is too late to consider. We may note in passing that the assumption by the courts that they are still largely both possible and desirable lies at the root of many decisions at common law touching the illegality of "monopolies" and agreements in restraint of trade. If they had prevailed, every business would be owned and conducted by an individual.

The land, its control and cultivation, long almost exclusively occupied man. Trade was limited and mainly local. Access to the sea alone gave opportunity for commerce. The means of transportation afforded by the sea were open to all on easy terms, and any general commercial monopoly was impossible. Early in the vast industrial development of modern times the advantages of some association of effort and capital became obvious. To secure these, combination was inevitable. This at first took the form of copartnership. Two individuals, by combination of effort and capital, could of course do at less expense and with greater economy of plant and effort what they could do separately. They could also by such association limit or suppress local competition. For example, two competing bakers having each a shop, an oven, a journeyman, and an apprentice, could by combination save rent and fuel, reduce waste, and perhaps dispense with all assistance. If the only bakers in the village, their copartnership established a monopoly. Yet this did not constitute an offence at common law. They might, in combination as copartners, even temporarily reduce prices to prevent or stifle competition.

Under these conditions copartnership

in time shared with individuals almost the entire field of industry and trade. Though as a rule in control of the larger enterprises, the copartnership did not drive to the wall the individual manufacturer and merchant. Individuals, and combinations of other individuals by way of copartnership, engaged as competitors on terms not seriously unequal in similar branches of industry and trade.

The next step in the march of combination was the employment of the corporation as an instrument of industry and trade. The copartnership had appeared to supplement individual effort and capital, and thus make possible larger enterprises. The corporation followed to supplement both and thus provide for still larger and more stable undertakings. Between the first and second of these there is no sharp distinction. Between them and the industrial or trading corporation there is a definite line.

Individuals, whether acting alone or as copartners, appear in the world of industry and trade as natural persons. Each stakes all that he is and has, and all that he hopes to be and acquire. His business may employ only a fraction of his capital and but little of his personal effort, yet he embarks his all in the enterprise. The individual, his good name, his possessions, his prospective acquirements, stand sponsor for every action. These hostages to good conduct "are impediments to great enterprises." Few men will risk so much beyond the power of their personal ability of control. Then, too, the copartnership depends on the continuance of a good understanding among its members. Its dissolution by the act or death of any member is always imminent. Individual enterprise and copartnership combination in industry and trade have thus distinct and general limitations. They are affected by the mutability of human life and bounded by personal limitations.

The corporation is subject to no such restrictions. It is impersonal in character. It is without relations beyond the enterprise for which it is organized. It risks nothing but the capital which it employs. It may grow to any dimensions. Its field may be the world. If not immortal, its mortality is not to it an ever-present menace. No cloud projects a shadow beyond its insolvency. Failure brings to it nothing but death and oblivion. Those who own and breathe into it the breath of

life stake nothing but the purchase-price of their holdings of its stock. Protected and shielded by it from personal responsibility, and even from the public gaze, they quietly determine its every act and absorb the profits that result. If disaster comes, they beat a well-ordered retreat, leaving the wreckage to the creditors. Such are the characteristics of the impersonal colossus, of unlimited powers and limited liabilities, that now threatens the very foundations of public order.

The private corporation, it should always be remembered, is wholly a creature of law. As the public welfare is the first and last concern of law, it should provide for and protect private corporations only to the extent that such artificial combinations of private citizens subserve the public good. Their only justification must be found in the public need for the combination of the efforts and capital of many individuals to carry forward enterprises of public utility, which are beyond the ability of natural persons, whether acting alone or in partnership, to undertake. The rigid observance of this limitation would have made impossible many of the grave corporate abuses from which society now suffers. It would have confined the sphere of private corporations to public or quasi-public enterprises of great magnitude, such as the telegraph, transportation, lighting, banking, and possibly mining and a few other great industries. In lieu of this reasonable employment of the private corporation in the field lying beyond ordinary private enterprises we have permitted and even encouraged it to invade all occupations, there to enter upon unequal terms into a war of extermination against individuals. In almost every State any one, aided by a few dummies who merely sign their names, may incorporate for any purpose which, as he chooses to state it, is not illegal. Indeed, in many States, no unpleasant questions are asked as to the purpose. The issue of charters of incorporation to all comers, usually for nominal fees, has become merely a clerical function. The desire of any adventurer to escape personal liability for his acts, of any number of persons engaged in any business whatever to combine and place at disadvantage their competitors, now controls the issue of charters of incorporation. Thus the public need—the only true test of corporate combination—has everywhere given way to private greed.

Here lies the root of the noxious growth which we know as the monopoly corporation. If corporate combination was strictly limited to public requirements for the conduct of enterprises beyond the scope of ordinary individual initiative, the problem of the trust would be relatively a simple one.

The private corporation as the child of positive law has the characteristics with which that law has endowed it. If found to be other than an obedient servant of the people, if not a factor making for the common welfare, the law is at fault. An artificial distinction between the corporation and the individual lies in the interpretation which has been given to that clause of the United States Constitution which provides that no State shall "pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts." Had this clause been held simply to affect the contracts of natural persons and like engagements between them and private corporations or the State, and not those between such corporations and the State, the monopoly corporation would not to-day in America dispute the field with public authority.

The famous leading case of *Dartmouth College v. Woodward** prepared the way for a construction of this clause of the Constitution under which the charter of every private corporation becomes at once a contract between the State and its offspring, whose obligation may not be impaired by subsequent legislation. This rule, in view of the reckless prodigality with which charters are issued, as already noted, operates greatly to the prejudice of natural persons. While such persons, as citizens, are the source of law, they are as individuals subject to its provisions and constant changes. The State would scorn to enter into any contract for stability with individuals subject to its authority. It abdicates for them none of its legislative powers. They must embark their all in the hope that by future legislation the State will not materially change the conditions which have induced their risk. They can have no other guaranty than that their property shall not be taken for public purposes without just compensation. Beyond this they can only hope for reasonable stability.

The private corporation is exposed to few such risks. By the act of its creation, usually a mere clerical function of some public official, the State surrenders—per-

haps in perpetuity—some portion of its legislative power. By every enactment providing for the issue of corporate charters the legislature binds its successors to the extent that charter contracts are entered into under its terms. Thus to the immunity of the private corporation from interruption or dissolution by the death of its members the contract clause of the Constitution as thus far interpreted adds exemption in large measure from legislative control. This tremendous advantage might be free from serious objection had the operations of the private corporation been confined to the field which lies beyond individual effort; but, because of its invasion of the domain of personal enterprise it amounts to a discrimination by law in favor of an artificial body against the citizen. Except for the obstacle of this constitutional guaranty the State would at any time be at liberty to impose such restrictions on private corporations as the public welfare may require.

It is true that some States have in recent years, by provision of their general incorporation laws, expressly reserved the power to modify or annul charters issued by them; but we have become so accustomed to regard the charter powers of private corporations as vested rights that no considerable use has yet been made of the power to amend or annul so reserved by the State. Its possibilities will be left for the discussion of public authority to impose restrictions upon existing monopoly corporations.

This, however, is not the whole story. Private corporations often appeal to public authority for increased powers; and some of them require licenses to use public property and facilities. All grants of such powers and licenses are also held to be "contracts" between them and the State or municipality, which may not be impaired under the contract clause of the Constitution. To secure them the powerful private corporation presses its demands upon the public authorities with persistence and usually with success. Its defeats are but temporary checks. Its victories are permanent conquests. Every public grant to it at once becomes a vested contract whose obligation may not be impaired even to correct a public wrong.

Thus it appears that the private corporation—a creature of positive law the sole justification of whose being is the public need—has been permitted to invade and

*4 Wheaton (U. S. Rep.), 519.

largely to possess the field of personal enterprise; that we have all but lost sight of the reason for its being and allowed its multiplication without restraint for any and every purpose with no thought of the public welfare, but only of the desire of its promoters; and that we have raised it above the law where it may dispute even public authority, thereby giving it a tremendous advantage over individual competitors.

It seems all but incredible that State governments which are merely representative of individuals possessing the franchise, almost all of whom are engaged in industry and trade, should have permitted the private corporation—a mere creature of law—not only to enter into every field of personal enterprise, there to compete on unequal terms with the individual citizens, but to wage against them a war of extermination. It seems even more incredible that a government which is itself but the agent of free men should surrender to these impersonal creatures of law some portion of its own merely delegated authority, thus arming them with some of the powers of the State itself. The situation calls for a reëxamination of the action through which these results have been reached. The time has come to consider whether constitutional guaranties intended for the protection of the individual have not been perverted to the service of the private corporation. We may well inquire whether the State and its creatures exist for the service of the citizens or to minister to the monopoly corporation,—if the welfare of all the people shall give way to the personal interest of a privileged few. We may rest assured that the case is not closed in favor of vested rights whose vesting rests merely upon old interpretations of general constitutional provisions. We have perhaps come to regard the term “vested rights” as too inclusive, and made it also to cover what Washington Gladden has well characterized as “vested wrongs.” The question seems to be fairly presented whether Mr. Lincoln’s vision of a government of the people by the people for the people shall give place to a government of the monopoly corporation by the monopoly corporation for the monopoly corporation’s stockholders.

It is not intended by what has thus far been said to prejudice the final issue between the public and the monopoly corporation. It is, however, assumed that the

public welfare, whatever it shall prove to be, is paramount; and that all other interests, however worthy or important, are but secondary. We have thus far but stated in general outline the relative positions of the contending forces. This is not the place to discuss the economic questions involved between them, even if the writer had any peculiar qualification for such a discussion. It is proposed here to consider what may be done about the monopoly corporation, leaving it for the economist to say what ought to be done within the limits or what may be done.

The monopoly corporation is a development. Some believe it to be a natural growth; while others regard it as an abnormal product of our commercial and legal conditions. Mr. Aldace F. Walker, in his recent article on “Anti-Trust Legislation,”* announces his conclusion that it is the direct consequence of such legislation.

Thus, in the view of one of our ablest and most experienced observers, who believes that we have placed too much reliance on competition, and that it is not now the life but the death of trade, excessive competition has finally led to excessive combination.

It is true that the competition which it has so long been the policy of the law to preserve as the very life of trade has under modern conditions become a veritable war of extermination between unequal forces. Far different were the conditions from which sprang the common law with its anathema of illegality against agreements for the creation of monopolies and in restraint of trade. The early cases dealt with merely local competition, the competitors acting usually in the same locality under like conditions and upon relatively equal terms. Then followed the great abuse known as patents for monopolies. This abuse culminated in the reign of Elizabeth in numerous grants of patents for monopolies by the queen to her servants and courtiers, who usually

* “The Forum,” May, 1899, p. 262. Mr. Walker states the situation as he sees it thus:

“Men have been driven by some power higher than the law to find a legal method of accomplishing a given result which legislators have endeavored to prevent; the method devised is one which they would have preferred not to employ; its adoption has been compelled because all other methods were made illegal.

“What, then, is the commercial force that has driven business men to this position? The answer is easy when the subject is broadly viewed. Laws cannot subdue the natural effort to overcome the violence of excessive competition.

assigned them to others and thus enabled them to raise prices and place almost incredible restraints upon industry and commerce.

Queen Elizabeth's monopolies were—due allowance being made for difference of conditions—no mean rivals of our monopoly corporations. Hers held patents from the Crown; ours hold charter contracts with the State. The former shared the royal prerogative; the latter share the delegated powers of a democracy.

The legality of the patents for monopolies did not long remain unquestioned. In 1562, in the great case of *Darcy v. Allen** the court pronounced them void.

It appears from the conclusion of the original report of this case that—

"Our Lord, the king that now is, in a book which he, in zeal to the law and justice, commanded to be published *anno* 1610, entitled 'A Declaration of His Majesty's Pleasure, etc.,' p. 13, has published, that monopolies are things against the laws of this realm; and therefore expressly commands that no suitor presume to move him to grant any of them."

A few years later, in 1623, in order to deliver the Crown, as well as suitors for patents, from all further temptation in this direction, Parliament, by statute against "monopolies," provided in part as follows:

"That all monopolies, and all commissions, grants, licenses, charters, and letters patents heretofore made or granted, or hereafter to be made or granted, to any person or persons,

* 11 Coke, 84. In this case the plaintiff, who was a groom of the privy chamber to Queen Elizabeth, brought suit for infringement of a patent giving him "the whole trade, traffic, and merchandise of all playing-cards" and the manufacture thereof "within this realm." It was declared in support of the grant that the queen, "intending that her subjects, being able men to exercise husbandry, should apply themselves thereunto, and that they should not employ themselves in making playing-cards, which had not been any ancient natural occupation within this realm, and that by making such a multitude of cards, card-playing was become more frequent, and especially among servants and apprentices and poor artificers; and to the end that her subjects might employ themselves to more lawful and necessary trades, by her letters of patent under the great seal," granted to the plaintiff "full power, license, and authority, by himself, his servants, factors, and deputies, to provide and buy in any parts beyond the seas all such playing-cards as he thought good, and to import them into this realm;" and also to have the exclusive right of manufacture and trade as above stated.

The court, however, waived the opportunity to strike a blow at excessive card-playing and declared the grant void for these reasons:

"(1) All trades, as well mechanical as others, which prevent idleness (the bane of the Commonwealth) and exercise men and youth in labor for the maintenance of themselves and their families and for the increase of their substance, to serve the queen when occasion shall require, are profitable for the Commonwealth; and therefore the grant to the plaintiff to have the sole making of them is against the common law, and the benefit and liberty of the subject.

bodies politic or corporate whatsoever, of or for the sole buying, selling, making, working, or using of anything within this realm, or the dominion of Wales, or of any other monopolies, or of power, liberty, or faculty to dispense with any others, . . . are altogether contrary to the laws of this realm, and so are and shall be utterly void and of none effect and in no wise to be put in use or execution."

Parliament had, by statute of 5 & 6 Edward VI, prohibited "engrossing."† The purpose of the statute was to do away with middlemen, on the assumption that they enhanced the price of the necessities of life. By the same act the similar offences of "forestalling" and "regrating" were made penal.‡

Under these and subsequent statutes the line between what was legal and what was criminal became exceedingly vague and uncertain. The fear of combinations to increase prices led to the enactment of hundreds of general and special statutes. The statute of George I, known as the Bubble Act, made it a crime, punishable with death and confiscation of goods, to form voluntary associations and issue transferable shares therein. By statute of 17 George III, combinations by partnership or otherwise for the purchase or sale of brick were declared illegal; and by that of 28 George III it was made unlawful for five or more persons to unite in covenant or partnership to buy coals for sale. Similar statutes made criminal all kinds of associations

(2) The sole trade of any mechanical artifice or any other monopoly is not only a damage and prejudice to those who exercise the same trade, but also to all other subjects; for the end of all these monopolies is for the private gain of the patentees.

(3) The queen was deceived in her grant; for the queen, as by the preamble appears, intended it to be for the weal public, and it will be employed for the private gain of the patentee, and for the prejudice of the weal public.

(4) This grant is *prima impressionis*, for no such was ever seen to pass by letters patents under the great seal before these days, and therefore it is a dangerous innovation, as well without any precedent or example as without authority of law or reason."

The court went on to say that monopolies have, as inseparable incidents, the following:

"(a) That the price of the same commodity will be raised; for he who has the sole selling of any commodity may and will make the price as he pleases. (b) That after the monopoly granted, the commodity is not so good and merchantable as it was before; for the patentee, having the sole trade, regards only his private benefit, and not the commonwealth. (c) It tends to the impoverishment of divers artificers and others, who before, by the labor of their hands in their art or trade, had maintained themselves and their families, who now will of necessity be constrained to live in idleness and beggary."

† To "engross" was to get possession or control, by buying, contracting, or promise-taking, of the whole or a considerable portion of any necessary of life in the nature of provisions, with intent to resell in the same form.

‡ This act has been repealed.

of business and working men, on the theory that by association prices and wages would be increased and the industry of individuals injured. Had it been possible strictly to enforce these acts, middlemen would have been suppressed and all association of effort and capital destroyed. The failure of legislation of this character to take "good effect" is confessed in the preamble to the act of 5 & 6 Edward VI, in these words:

"Albeit divers good statutes heretofore have been made against forestallers of merchandise and victuals, yet for that good laws and statutes against regrators and ingrossers of the same things have not been heretofore sufficiently made and provided, and also for that it hath not been perfectly known what person should be taken for a forestaller, regrator, or ingrosser, the said statutes have not taken good effect, according to the minds of the makers thereof."

The public policy which it was sought to express by these enactments was then, and still remains, difficult of exact definition. From that day to this the limits of combination and the extent of business enterprise under a single management within the line of legality have depended on the individual views of public policy held by the judges. In early days it was held illegal to contract for 258 acres out of 30,000 acres of growing hops. The purchase of 8,000 bushels of corn, of 3,200 bushels of wheat, of 1,600 bushels of oats, of 672 pounds of butter, of 18,432 pounds of cheese, of 100 bushels of salt, of "a great number of wild fowle," and of "a great quantity of straw and hay," were held by the courts to be violations of the statutes. From these early judgments, affecting small and usually local transactions, there is a long line of decisions against acts held to be in contravention of public policy. While the courts have never been able to fix the limits of public policy, and while complaint is sometimes made of the supposed increasing frequency with which they resort to it as authority for refusing to give effect to contracts, the rule is finally fixed that undertakings which have a tendency to be or are clearly injurious to the public shall be held void and refused the sanction of the courts. The element of public policy in the law of contracts has its origin in the very sources of the common law.

The rule of public policy upon which rests the numerous decisions in both England and America pronouncing illegal or crimi-

nal combinations and agreements for monopolies or in restraint of trade is of necessity a flexible and changing rule of decision. In the words of Lord St. Leonards, "it has been restrained and limited and qualified up to this very hour." The purchase of a few thousand bushels of grain, a few hundred pounds of butter, or even "a great quantity of straw and hay," is no longer illegal anywhere. Free trade, even in the necessities of life, has been found conducive to lower rather than higher prices. But, both by legislation and judicial decisions in the United States the attempt is still strenuously made to place limits upon combinations to monopolize industry and trade.

The tendency in England has long been toward greater toleration of combinations for business purposes. Corporations and joint-stock companies, organized to conduct business on a large scale, are now regarded as legitimate enterprises. Many of the old statutes in regard to trade have been repealed.

The recent case of *Mogul Steamship Company v. McGregor*,* is regarded as a departure from the earlier authorities and in favor of a greater toleration of combinations to monopolize industry and trade. The defendants, who were firms of shipowners engaged in the China trade, formed themselves into an association to control the trade and maintain rates. The plaintiffs, being shipowners engaged in the same trade, were excluded from the association. The court held that the association was not illegal, although it appeared that it gave rebates to merchants who dealt exclusively with its members, sent ships to compete with plaintiff's ships, temporarily lowered freights, indemnified others to compete with plaintiffs, and dismissed agents who had acted for both parties. As was said by the court: "The means adopted were competition carried to the bitter end." Lord Morris, on the hearing in the House of Lords, said:

"What one trader may do in respect of competition, a body or set of traders can lawfully do; otherwise a large capitalist could do what a number of smaller capitalists, combining together, could not do, and thus a blow would be struck at the very principle of coöperation and joint-stock enterprises. I entertain no doubt that a body of traders whose motive object is to promote their own trade can combine to acquire, and thereby in so far to injure the trade

* L. R. 23 Q. B. D. 598; [1892] App. Cas. 25.

of competitors, provided they do no more than is incident to such motive object and use no unlawful means."

This great case has settled the law of England and made it there "perfectly legitimate to combine capital for all the mere purposes of trade for which capital may, apart from combination, be legitimately used." Fry, J., pronounces the repeal of the early statutes against engrossing and regrating "a confession of failure in the past, the indication of a new policy for the future;" and adds:

"Thus the stream of modern legislation runs strongly in favor of allowing great combinations of persons interested in trade, and intended to govern or regulate the proceedings of large bodies of men, and thus necessarily to interfere with what would have been the course of traffic if unaffected by such combinations."

The legal pathway of the monopoly combination has not been made so straight and plain in America as it thus appears to be in England. In our several jurisdictions, Federal and State, by the common law and numerous statutes we still seek to suppress monopolies and conspiracies in restraint of trade. The courts, when called upon, have pronounced invalid all combinations that would have been illegal at common law. Trusts, associations, and agreements have been declared void in almost every jurisdiction. The results have not been satisfactory. Great enterprises have been conducted in defiance of law. Adverse decisions have usually led to evasions, and often to the formation of monopoly corporations. With decisions and statutes in endless profusion and hopeless confusion, the trust has flourished here as nowhere else in the world. It is probably true that the rapid multiplication of monopoly corporations is due, not so much to the desire of their promoters to obey the law as to their efforts to evade it by bringing their enterprises within its terms in utter disregard of its spirit.

Reference to a few American cases will illustrate the attitude of our courts toward these combinations and show how radically it differs from that of the English courts. In *State v. Standard Oil Company** the Supreme Court of Ohio held that an agreement by which all or a majority of the stockholders of a corporation transferred their stock to trustees in consideration of agreements by the stockholders of other similar corporations to do the same,

all receiving trust certificates to represent their transferred stock and entitle them to draw the dividends on such stock, tended to create a monopoly and control prices, and was void as against public policy.

The Supreme Court of Illinois, in *People v. Chicago Gas Trust Co.*,† held that a corporation organized for the manufacture and sale of gas and "to purchase and hold or sell the capital stock" and works of other gas companies did not have power to acquire and hold the stock of the existing gas companies of Chicago, the provision in its charter being void because against public policy at common law.

The Supreme Court of Illinois also held, in *Distilling and Cattle Feeding Co. v. People*,‡ that a corporation, to succeed a trust, in fact organized by the trustees of the stockholders of several corporations to acquire the properties of such corporations, was illegal because repugnant to public policy, just as the trust itself had been. The court said:

"There is no magic in a corporate organization which can purge the trust scheme of its illegality, and it remains as essentially opposed to the principles of sound policy as when the trust was in existence. It was illegal before and it is illegal still, and for the same reasons."

The Supreme Court of the United States, in *United States v. Trans-Missouri Freight Association*,§ held that under the Act of Congress of July 2, 1890, entitled: "An Act to Protect Trade and Commerce against Unlawful Restraints and Monopolies," all contracts in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations are void, whether in the form of trusts or otherwise, and without regard to their reasonableness or whether they would have been unlawful at common law. Under this interpretation of the act an agreement between railroad companies, "for the purpose of mutual protection by establishing and maintaining reasonable rates, rules, and regulations," was pronounced invalid.

Many of the States have enacted drastic legislation for the suppression of trusts, the tendency being to increase the stringency of such legislation. A number of these statutes declare that—

—"all arrangements, contracts, agreements, trusts, or combinations made with a view to lessen, or which tend to lessen, free competition in the importation or sale of articles imported into this State, . . . in the manufacture

* 49 Ohio St. 138.

† 130 Ill. 268.

‡ 156 Ill. 448, 490.

§ 166 U. S. 290.

or sale of articles of domestic growth or of domestic raw material [are] against public policy, unlawful, and void."

They proceed to provide for the forfeiture of the charters of domestic corporations which shall violate their provisions, for the exclusion from the State of foreign corporations (including those of other States) for their violation, and for the punishment by fine or imprisonment of the officers and agents of such offending corporations for conspiracy. They also give persons injured by such combinations a right of action for damages. Such in substance are the anti-trust statutes of Arkansas and Indiana. In Illinois and Missouri it is further provided that no corporation may issue or own trust certificates, or be controlled by any trustee or trustees, with intent to limit or fix the price or lessen the output of any article of commerce. In New York every contract, arrangement, or combination, whereby a monopoly in the manufacture or sale of "any article or commodity of common use is or may be created, established, or maintained," or whereby competition is or may be restrained or prevented, or whereby, for the purpose of creating or maintaining such monopoly, the free pursuit of any lawful business, trade, or occupation is or may be restricted or prevented, is declared to be "against public policy, illegal, and void."

The foregoing illustrations from the judicial decisions and legislation of the country may serve to indicate the extreme hostility of American law to all combinations to suppress free competition. The question naturally arises, Why do these combinations flourish here, as nowhere else, in the face of this hostility? The answer to this inquiry is not obvious, but complex. The public policy of the country on this subject must be sought in the entire body of its judicial decisions and the legislation affecting it. The truth is that the public policy which finds such abundant expression in anti-trust decisions and legislation is in direct conflict with the public opinion expressed in the loose incorporation laws of the various States, the contract clause of the Constitution, and the protective duties levied on imported goods. We have already noted the bearing of the first two of these on the trust problem. The tariff is even more important. While Mr. Havemeyer may exaggerate in pronouncing the tariff

"the mother of all trusts," it is beyond all question the efficient wet-nurse of most of them. It would be strange indeed if domestic combinations to control the production and selling price of commodities should not be directly aided by laws imposing duties averaging some fifty per cent *ad valorem* on competing importations. Mr. Havemeyer, from his point of view, has good ground to criticise those who object to combinations of domestic producers to secure the enhanced prices which Congress—in what we are pleased to regard its wisdom—has by its tariff bills adjudged to be simply their due. The statutes of every State under which any three or more persons may organize a corporation of any size for any purpose, the general interpretation of the contract clause of the Constitution by which corporations are given a special stability, and the tariff laws by which American producers are authorized by law to charge fancy prices for their products, are to be regarded as expressions of public policy as truly as are the laws against trusts. To the fact that these public policies are in direct conflict is mainly due the failure of our anti-trust laws. We have, by laws which continue in America a public policy as old as special privilege, raised up powerful combinations of capital which have thus far made naught of the conflicting public policy which finds expression in the anti-trust legislation and decisions, and which seeks to protect the rights of an entire people. This is but the modern form of the old conflict between special privilege and equal opportunity.

The splendid prizes which our tariff legislation has placed within the grasp of successful combination in almost every field of industry and trade, with the way made plain and easy to stable incorporation, has led everywhere to the successful evasion of even the most stringent anti-trust laws. The great decisions of our courts pronouncing trusts and combinations illegal have only accelerated their progress to the goal of monopoly incorporation.

The mighty trusts of to-day are, almost without exception, simple stock corporations which directly own former competing plants. Their inflated capital stocks are listed on the exchanges and have there become part and parcel of the speculative securities of the day. Enterprises of enormous moment to the people have thus, in

evasion of the law, fallen into the hands of adventurers. In some cases they will be managed so as to earn dividends; in others, those in control will find their advantage in stock manipulations. We have already had a foretaste of the possibilities of insolvencies, receiverships, and reorganizations. In view of the fact that no rights are so unprotected by law as those of minority stockholders of corporations, the great increase of such securities is not a pleasing incident of this development.

The anti-trust laws having been evaded by the promoters of the monopoly corporation, the trust in this final form stands in open violation of the spirit of the law free from the charge of technical illegality. Unless the principle of the decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois in *Distilling and Cattle Feeding Co. v. People*,* above noted, is to receive wide application, the monopoly corporation seems for the present secure. It may be excluded from other States by further hostile legislation, but even this remedy has its limitations in the commerce clause of the Constitution. It was the purpose of that clause to secure absolute free trade among the States; and the courts will probably not permit serious interference with interstate traffic in commodities,† even though produced by monopoly corporations. The difficulties of the problem are much increased by our numerous jurisdictions. It is by no means probable that uniform State legislation can be secured on this subject. It is clear, however, that corporations engaged in interstate commerce are subject to the control of Congress.‡ The act of Congress of July 2, 1890, may be followed by further legislation, as its declaration that "every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations," is illegal, can hardly be made to cover the compact monopoly corporation.

These special difficulties aside, some vital questions on the merits remain. What limitations are we prepared to impose on combination by way of incorporation? Are we ready to limit the kinds of business in which corporations may engage? May we confine a corporation to a

given territory, or place a limitation on the amount of its business? Is there some standard of "fairness" or "reasonableness" that may be imposed for the regulation of competition? In order to steer our course between the Scylla of competition and the Charybdis of monopoly, shall we by law impose terms upon industry and fix prices for its products? The answers to these inquiries do not lie within the purpose of this paper. They must finally be given by the economist and the legislator. Suffice it here to say that corporations can never be above the law. As its creatures they must remain subject to the law. That they are beyond public control cannot be conceded. Whatever limitations upon their powers or activities the public welfare requires, must be imposed. Resort must be had to charter reservations of control where they exist. Neither constitutional construction nor established practice, however venerable or sustained by authority, must be permitted to interfere with their control, or even with their suppression, if called for by the public welfare. In our regard for private rights we must not perpetuate public wrongs. In order to guard vested rights we must not protect vested wrongs. The commonwealth is greater than the corporation of its creation. The Constitution has made trade free within the United States. It must not be so interpreted as to make monopoly supreme throughout a land dedicated to freedom.

The choice does not lie, as some believe, between excessive competition and uncontrolled monopoly. It is not a question whether we shall have combination; but, having it, whether the few or all shall enjoy its benefits. We cannot go back to a condition of competition mainly local and upon equal terms. We have tasted the tremendous advantages of combination with freedom from destructive competition. Such advantages, once realized, are never surrendered. The problem for solution is how to secure them for all. It is the purpose of the trust to seize them for the few. The struggle is always and everywhere between equal opportunity and special privilege. In such a contest the State, which is but their representative, must stand for all against some. To whatever extent the public good requires, the monopoly corporation must yield to public control.

CHICAGO.

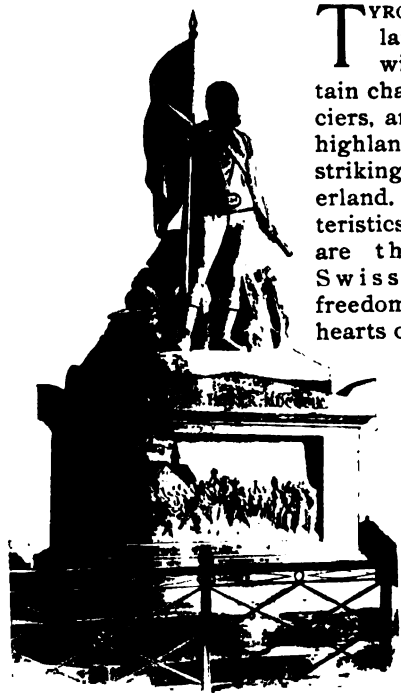
EDWIN BURRITT SMITH.

* 156 Ill. 448, 490.

† *Cooper Mfg. Co. v. Ferguson*, 113 U. S. 727; *Robbins v. Shelby Taxing District*, 120 U. S. 489; *Minnesota v. Barber*, 136 U. S. 313; *Breman v. Titusville*, 153 U. S. 289.

‡ *United States v. Trans-Missouri Freight Association*, 166 U. S. 290.

ANDREAS HOFER, THE TYROLESE PATRIOT



TYROL, the crown-land of Austria, with its mountain chains, vast glaciers, and distinctive highland scenery, is strikingly like Switzerland. The characteristics of its people are those of the Swiss: the love of freedom glows in the hearts of all of these mountaineers as a living fire and is nurtured with religious fervor.

In the early years of this century the patriotic Tyrolese wrought out with suffering and peril, among the

mountains of their austere land, one of the richest epics in the world's history. The simplest peasant in Tyrol knows the virtues and achievements of the hero of this epic, for the name of Andreas Hofer is a household word; his memorials are in churches, upon houses and hillsides; his merits are discussed at inns and shooting-stands; and patriotic dramas, annually enacted, tell the story of the struggle for liberty under his leadership. This martyr peasant is the grand central figure in the stirring scenes which the Tyrolese artist, Franz Defregger, has pictured with historical exactness. Upon his masterly canvases Andreas Hofer stands in bold relief as a type of his race, harmoniously uniting the prominent national characteristics of loyalty to God, to his country, and to the Emperor.*

*The vignette at the head of this page shows the life-size statue of Hofer in the Hofkirche at Innsbruck. The figure is represented in the national costume which he wore so proudly in life. Upon the front of the pedestal is a bas-relief which represents the chieftains, Hofer, Speckbacher, Haspinger, and Teimer, surrounded by their countrymen, swearing fealty to the flag. A Latin inscription reads in translation, "Death is swallowed up in victory," while another inscription in German may be rendered, "The grateful Fatherland to its sons fallen in the struggle for freedom."

Andreas Hofer was a native of the Paser Valley, where he was born in 1767 in a country inn kept by his father, known as the Inn am Sand. This property became his by inheritance, and here, with his wife and children, he was living at the outbreak of the Napoleonic war, having added to his regular occupation of inn-keeper a trade in grain, horses, cattle, and wine, across the Jaufen Pass into northern Italy.

Though he had but the limited education of his time and class, he could not be called an ignorant man, as his journeyings in the world of traffic had taught him many things not learned from books. To a man of mental ability, with well-grounded moral and religious principles, this wider field of observation brought a broadening of ideas, an accession of general knowledge, and an independence of thought upon the questions of the day, befitting a man of riper experience, though not incompatible with the simplicity of his character. During his commercial life his honesty, homely wit, and good nature made him a general favorite, and he acquired more than a local reputation for integrity and intelligence.

It was not until the power and principle of French conquest was fully engrafted upon Italy that Napoleon turned his attention toward Austria. The first engagement between the French and Austrians was in 1796, at Lake Garda, where Andreas Hofer gained his first military experience as leader of a company of riflemen. The result was disastrous to the Austrians, who fled for refuge to the mountains of Tyrol. Five times during the same year did the imperial army seek the rocky fastnesses of this loyal province of Austria, pursued by the victorious French.

For nine years the Tyrolese took no further part in the war, although by especial order Tyrol always furnished the necessary recruits for the "Kaiserjäger," the "Emperor's sharpshooters;" but no other military duty was required save that of guarding the frontier and expelling invaders.

During these years Austria steadily lost ground and the Emperor Francis showed the weakness of his character. In 1805 the capitulation of Ulm and the defeat at Austerlitz caused the vacillating sove-

reign to sue for peace. He accepted the terms of the treaty of Presburg, surrendered various provinces, and paid the expenses of the war. Napoleon ceded the beautiful Tyrol to Bavaria, and raised the Elector of that hated ally of the French to the title and dignity of King. On the receipt of this humiliating news the Tyrolese were overwhelmed with grief, but were somewhat comforted when the Bavarian king sent an open letter "to his

being often assisted by the soldiers, who reciprocated the hatred of the Tyrolese.

In this most desperate state of affairs a committee, with Hofer as its head, was entrusted with the political interests of the Tyrol. The deputies chose, as their legal adviser, Baron von Hormayr, a member of a patrician family, who became, with the sanction of the Austrian government, one of the chief promoters of the insurrection.



PASSEIER VALLEY

new and dearly beloved subjects," solemnly guaranteeing to them their ancient privileges and liberties.

But when the reckless soldiery overran the country, dismantled and partially destroyed the national Castle of Tyrol; when the Tyrolese were told that they must abandon their beloved name and be called Southern Bavarians; when pilgrimages and passion-plays, so dear to the peasant heart, were strictly prohibited; when convents were confiscated, and oppressive taxes levied and exacted with the utmost rigor,—every feeling of right and honor was outraged. Such laws, conflicting with established custom and religious belief, made the Bavarian rule a galling yoke of bondage to this freedom-loving people. There were frequent conflicts between the peasants and the tax-collectors, the latter

The first act of the deputation was to visit Vienna to confer with the archdukes regarding their grievances. Although the Emperor was bound by the terms of the treaty, it was with his approval that his brothers John and Charles entered into the plan to free Tyrol from foreign domination. Baron von Hormayr drew up eleven points of agreement, on the faithful observance of which Austria was to furnish men, money, ammunition, and supplies. Two of the conditions were that "the utmost secrecy must be preserved," and "the deputies must use personal endeavors to induce every able-bodied man to join the insurgents." Without any of the modern means of rapid communication, within three days after the return of the deputies the plan of the revolt had penetrated every portion of the province, the



THE INN AM SAND

government being entirely ignorant of the vast conspiracy until the uprising.

The evening of the 9th of April arrived. Hofer's inn was the rendezvous where a band of patriots awaited the signal that the Austrian troops had crossed the frontier. At midnight three rockets shot up in

quick succession, and in response a hundred bale-fires blazed upon the hills. To reach those to whom these signals were invisible, at early dawn the women and children went in various directions to distribute paper balls containing only the words "It is time."



STERZING



INNSBRUCK

At midday a few hundred men under Hofer left the *Passeier*, but the small column gained steadily until on the morning of the 11th a force of 4,500 men stood before Sterzing. They forced the Bavarian garrison to flee, but reinforcements came up and they made a stand on Sterzinger Moos. Unskilled in military tactics, Hofer injudiciously placed his men, and at the first volley a panic seized the peasants. Their leader, with his ringing battle-cry of "Kaiser Franz, Gott, und Vaterland," rallied them and ordered his sharpshooters to pick off the gunners; then, bringing forward his men in companies, each fired one volley into the ranks of the enemy and rushed upon them with savage impetuosity, using the butts of their rifles with desperate resolution.

Under this terrific onset the well-formed squares dissolved, the troops surrendering as prisoners of war. The battle had ended when the Austrian reinforcements came up and assisted in collecting the prisoners and booty as they moved forward on their triumphal march to Innsbruck. The Tyrolese camped on Berg Isel, opposite the capital, into which they swarmed the following morning, carried the bridge after a desperate struggle, and fought

their way through street after street. At midday the imperial eagle was brought from the tomb of Maximilian, and, following this emblem of their beloved Austria, 15,000 men paraded the streets, which rung with their exultant shouts. An historian says: "After four days' fighting the Tyrolese were again in their capital and held in their power two generals, 132 officers, 6,000 men, three flags, five cannon, and 600 horses."

There was rejoicing in the hamlets of Tyrol as the peasantry returned to their homes, leaving the Austrian troops in the capital. Baron von Hormayr was appointed governor of the province, and the Emperor sent this proclamation:

"My faithful country of Tyrol shall henceforth remain incorporated with Austria, and I will agree to no treaty of peace save one indissolubly uniting Tyrol with my monarchy."

Alas, in one month Napoleon was again in Vienna and the troops were withdrawn from Tyrol! Before the peasants could organize, the French marshal, Lefébvre, by a forced march took possession of Innsbruck. Six days later, Hofer, with an army of 7,000 men and a few cannon, took a position on Berg Isel. There were frequent skirmishes for two days, but no

decisive action until on the third day hostilities were reopened by the Tyrolese. For ten hours the battle raged without apparent result; but the victory rested with the peasants, as, during the night, the enemy, muffling the cannon-wheels and the horses' feet, deserted their camp, leaving the fires burning. The excited Tyrolese made a second triumphal entry into their capital, and the surrounding hills echoed with a hymn of praise, with the following refrain:

* Far-reaching as the eagle's view,
Are beating loyal hearts and true:
Once more our Francis can we claim,
Because we trust in God's great name.*

This victory occurring simultaneously with the defeat of Napoleon at Aspern, raised the hopes of the Austrian war party, only to be dissipated by the disastrous battle of Wagram, aggravated by the calamitous terms of the armistice concluded at Znaym. By the terms of this humiliating truce the French occupied Innsbruck. The Tyrolese forwarded a touching petition to the Emperor, beseeching him not to accept such degrading conditions; not to sacrifice the land redeemed with blood. Measures were concerted for another uprising, though Von Hormayr was opposed

to the attempt and Archduke John urged submission. In a spirit of humble piety Hofer insisted that he must keep his sacred oath,—“to spill the last drop of his blood in defence of his God, his Emperor, and his country.” This holy vow to his Maker, made in the presence of his priest, forbade that he perjure his soul by deserting his country.

The Baron sadly withdrew from the government, and Hofer said: “Well, I will take charge, and, as long as God wills, name myself Andreas Hofer, host of the Inn am Sand at Passeier, Count of Tyrol.” His resolution taken, he retired to a hut in the forest, where in prayer and meditation he sought heavenly guidance. Three men whom he called his chiefs were the innkeeper Teimer, the hunter Speckbacher, and the Capuchin monk, Haspinger. What a spectacle! The German Empire prostrate at the feet of Napoleon, while three peasants and a monk planned to drive his armies from the mountains and valleys of one small province! Every convent bell rang out its call to arms, fires blazed on the hillsides, and the riflemen gathered from far and near. For the third time in four months Tyrol rose to fight for freedom. The artist Defregger has given



TRIUMPHAL ENTRY INTO INNSBRUCK

to the world a pathetic picture of this "Last Band," the old men who came with long-discarded weapons, antiquated halberds, mediæval spears, and even spiked clubs, bidding adieu to aged wives as they commenced their march, leaving

crashed down upon the helpless foe. The shrieks of the Saxons were smothered in the noise of shots and shouts from numberless ambuscades, and hundreds were borne into the torrent far below. The conflict continued for three days, when the



THE LAST BAND

only the disabled, the women, and children at home.

The Tyrolese pressed southward to meet Lefèbvre, who at the head of 30,000 men was advancing, marking his pathway with pillage and flame. Hofer gathered his men upon a steep mountain-side near Mittelewald; in the narrow gorge far below ran both road and river, and over the road the enemy must march. Mountain artillery was assembled; platforms of tree-trunks were lowered over the precipices and secured with ropes to the trees upon the crest. Upon these, piles of rocks and logs were massed, and great boulders were placed in readiness to hurl upon the foe. A detachment of Saxons were the first to enter the gloomy gorge; the impending heights alarmed them, and sharp orders were necessary before the entire body was in motion. Their fears were well grounded. At a shout of "Cut all loose," the falling masses

discomfited Lefèbvre retreated, himself escaping, amid the ranks of the flying fugitives, in the disguise of a common soldier.

To complete the victory it was necessary that Innsbruck be retaken, and the following Sunday the Tyrolese were again on Berg Isel; Haspinger, the chaplain, celebrating mass and giving absolution. The victory was decisive, and on the third day the French, with their allies, quietly withdrew. With bared heads Hofer and his men knelt on the hillside to return thanks to God for the success achieved.

Hofer was the hero of this hour of triumph as his army entered the capital. With music, banners, and shouts of welcome the people expressed their joy, but the pious peasant said to the excited crowd, "Do not shout, but pray!" As he left the Franciscan church after a devotional hour, prominent citizens waited

upon him to express their gratitude. He replied with reverence, "The saviour of our country was God himself." To the popular demand that he should become regent and take up his residence in the imperial palace he reluctantly yielded.

For the six weeks that he lived in the palace the entire expenditure for himself and suite was less than five hundred florins, as his simple mode of living was quite unchanged by his official title and stately surroundings. He administered the affairs of the country with ability; he convened a national assembly, promulgated admirable laws, and raised the confidence of other provinces by his simple but dignified proclamations. Every act showed that religious and patriotic character which was the groundwork of his nature.

As the currency of the country was practically exhausted, silver and copper money was coined. These pieces are rare, but specimens are treasured in the Innsbruck Museum. On one side they bear the Austrian eagle, on the other the Madonna. While the patriot was still acting as regent the Emperor sent "to my beloved and faithful Andreas Hofer" a gold chain with a medal containing his portrait, a gift of money to his brave sharpshooters, and an autograph letter extolling their bravery and promising further aid.

Ten days later the peace of Schönbrunn was concluded, in which Tyrol was definitely sacrificed to Bavaria. The army was ordered to disperse; there was no promise for the future, no memory of an earlier pledge. Hofer was bewildered. Should he obey the imperial mandate, or keep his vow to free Tyrol or die? He answered the manifesto, promising to keep the peace, and asking pardon and oblivion for the past. The peasants were indignant; they importuned him to resume his former position and lead them against the foe, even adding threats of personal violence. It is easy to believe what we heartily wish. When Hofer was told that the peace of Schönbrunn was a myth and the

letter of the Archduke a forgery, he yielded to the entreaties of his countrymen and issued a call to arms. Confused by conflicting reports, he sent out a proclamation of surrender, and with a few hundred followers withdrew to his native valley to end the struggle in victory or death.

From their position on Küchelberg they descended upon Meran and forced the French to evacuate. Their last fight was won in the little hamlet of St. Leonard, near Hofer's home, to the amazement of the nations in the grasp of the conqueror. French reinforcements poured in, resistance was useless, and the Tyrolese fled to the mountains, where for many days the watch-fires of the fugitives glowed, and above Meran the last signal of revolt blazed.

Hofer was an outlaw, and a large reward was offered for his capture. In a shepherd's hut, ten miles from his home, he lay hidden with his wife, his son, and his faithful secretary, Cajetan Sweth. His danger was imminent, but in vain was he implored to leave the country, the Archduke even sending a messenger with money and passports for his escape. He had but the one reply: "I could not save Tyrol, therefore I will suffer with it."

A peasant, Joseph Raffl, discovered his retreat; and though Hofer paid him liberally to preserve his secret, the blood-money tempted him, and on the night of the 27th of January he guided six hundred



HOFER GOING TO EXECUTION

French soldiers to the hut. From documents in regard to the arrest and trial, treasured in the Museum at Innsbruck, the following facts are taken. Hofer's secretary describes the arrest:

"The boy John and I were asleep on the hay, when at four o'clock I awakened suddenly. I heard from afar on the frozen snow the tread of many feet and too soon realized that a catastrophe was imminent to God's servant. I peeped out under the open roof and saw Raffl with some soldiers. They came within five steps of the wall, and Raffl went to the hut and listened for the breathing of Hofer and his wife. He turned quickly, pointed with his finger to the soldiers, while to the sergeant he said, 'They are within,' and ran out of sight."

All were seized, bound, and treated with coarse brutality. Scantily clad and with bare feet, they were dragged over snow, ice, and rocks. The soldiers vented their hatred upon Hofer; they pulled out his beard until the hair upon his lacerated face was frozen into a bloody mass. The dreadful march continued to Meran, where Hofer was given a hearing before Commander Huard, in which he simply told the story of his part in the revolt. The house where the examination was held, and the one in which he passed the night in Meran, are marked by commemorative tablets, the former having the portrait of the hero upon its front.

From Meran they were taken to Botzen, where the humane French general, D'Hilliers, ordered that the wife and son be liberated and that Hofer be treated with kindness and respect. His secretary accompanied him to Mantua, where, eight days after his arrest, he was imprisoned in the fortress. Count Bisson, the com-

mandant, tried to save him: he promised personally to intercede for him and assured him of pardon if he would enter the French army. Hofer replied, "I was, am, and always shall be an Austrian, true to my Emperor."

On February 19, 1810, the Military Commission created by order of Count Vignoli convened to judge the case of Andreas Hofer,—

— "aged 48, born at Passeier, Tyrol, principal leader of the insurgent Tyrolese; height five feet eight inches; round figure; complexion bronzed; open countenance; black hair, eyes, and eyebrows; chin covered with long black beard."

After the reading of the military orders promulgated against the accused, he was brought in by the guard, unfettered and accompanied by his official counsel. He answered clearly all questions regarding his past and listened attentively to the charges against him, to which neither he nor his counsel made any reply. After he was remanded to prison the interpreter and assistants withdrew and the Commission deliberated in private upon the points submitted by the President.

1. "Is said Andreas Hofer guilty of having incited the peasants to revolt after the pardon awarded him in October and November by Prince Eugene, King of Italy?"

2. "Is he guilty of having been surprised with two pistols and a sword upon his person, although the order of November 12 forbade the insurgent leaders to bear arms after that date?"

The Commission pronounced him guilty upon those charges, but could reach no decision in regard to his punishment,



STATUE OF HOFER ON THE BATTLEFIELD OF BERG ISEL

though the order read that "insurgents found with arms five days after date should be arrested and shot." Napoleon was at Milan, and a messenger was sent to him for further instructions; he returned the outrageous command, "Shoot Andreas Hofer within twenty-four hours!"

On the morning of the 20th of February he was told he had but three hours to live. He listened calmly to his death-sentence and sent for his secretary, to whom he dictated letters for his family. His last hour was spent with his priest. He gave orders for a memorial service to be held in his native village, expressed his hope in the love of God, and closed his letter with these words: "Farewell, base world; it is so easy to die that I have not one tear of regret."

As he left the fortress the lamentations of some of his comrades in arms, imprisoned there, almost unmanned him. He begged their forgiveness if he had been the cause of their misery, and said, "I expect your prayers to accompany me upon my journey." Then with firm step and serene face he went to his martyrdom. He knelt with his priest for a closing prayer, arose, and faced the grenadiers. He refused to have his eyes covered; to the command to kneel, he said: "No, I stand in the presence of Him who created me, and standing will I give up my soul."

He placed a piece of money in the hand of the corporal, with the words, "Aim straight!" Erect, crucifix in hand, with eyes lifted heavenward, he cried, "Long live the Tyrol," and then gave the com-

mand, "Fire!" The will of Napoleon was done.

The same hour that a brave soul was thus hurried into the presence of his Maker, booming artillery and clanging bells announced to the Viennese that Marie Louise, the daughter of their Emperor, was the affianced bride of the bitterest enemy of their land. That was one of the sacrifices exacted by Napoleon from the weak man, intriguing father, and unfaithful ruler, Francis I.

The body of the patriot was borne to a church in Mantua, where a solemn mass was said, and it was then buried in the garden of the priest, Manifesti, who wrote to Hofer's family: "I admired, to my consolation and edification, a man who went to death as a Christian hero and suffered it as an intrepid martyr." Fifteen years later, three sharpshooters, indignant that the mortal remains of their national hero should be left in foreign soil, exhumed them by night and secretly bore them to Botzen. At length the day came when the patriot had a burial worthy of his services to his land. Deputations from all parts of the Tyrol came to Innsbruck, where with grand ceremonial the ashes of Andreas Hofer were placed within the church of the Franciscans. Upon the coffin, with the hat, sword, and decorations of the hero, were his armorial bearings; the Emperor, to honor the memory of the patriot, having conferred upon his family letters of nobility and the name of Von Passeier.

SAGINAW, MICH. MERCIA ABBOTT KEITH.

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE STUDY OF ROMAN LAW

SOME years ago Professor Isaac F. Russell, of the New York University, issued a "plea for the study of Roman Law," based chiefly upon the connection between this department of legal study and the wider field of modern jurisprudence. Considered from the pedagogical point of view there is also a very strong plea in favor of allowing students to devote some time in their undergraduate years at college (or in the more advanced years of high-school work) to the consideration of a subject so closely bound up with our life—personal and national.

Despite the poet's cry that the "Niobe of nations" stands "childless and crownless in her voiceless woe," she is not "crownless," though dethroned, whose laws have shaped the destinies of every nation.

Historically considered there is no work in the Latin tongue so characteristic of Rome in her prime; nor any material so illustrative of the growth and dominant ideas of the nation which was principally and primarily a nation of lawgivers.

Greece was the land of poetry and song, and of sculpture which is frozen music; Judæa and Egypt were the cradles of

religion; from the rose-gardens of Persia came the truest and wisest of philosophers; from the north came the "Man-gods," the "Helden" and "Asa-folk" who dominated by force of sheer manliness; but Rome gave to mankind her laws.

The world moves forward under the stimulating influences of the several nations; and every such influence is proportionate to and in the direction of the dominant characteristics of the nation whence it issues,—characteristics influenced by a multiplicity of causes traceable to natural environment and the life-necessities of the community.

The Greeks were preëminently æsthetes; the Persians, philosophers and metaphysicians; the Jews and the Egyptians, priests; the Norsemen, conquerors of the tameless seas; but the Romans were, first and foremost, rulers of men, who went into battle, not for knightly victory, but for dominion; and who, having attained their object, proceeded to Romanize the conquered territory by forcing upon the people Roman institutions, by grinding them beneath an iron heel whose print is still discernible.

This became possible because for a thousand years (B. C. 500 to A. D. 500) Rome had been building up a legal code so comprehensive, yet so perfect in detail, that it has been used as the basis for public and private law by successive nations. It is as true to-day as in the days of her supremacy that "all roads lead to Rome;" for, so long as man makes and enforces laws so long will Roman law survive and Roman glory live.

Years and changing economic conditions may modify but cannot efface the indelible impression made upon the life and laws of her posterity by the material drawn from the fountain-head; and though time and change have wrought havoc in her material dominion, they cannot deface the immortal monument raised in her prime by the nation whose land was once "our guardian and is still our guide." Out of the ruin of her estate rises her sovereignty over the human mind.

Our students read the often-tiresome hexameters of Virgil; spend hours of labor over the amorous licentiousness of Horace; and construe the vulgarities of the "De Natura Deorum." Would it not be far more profitable for them to fill their receptive minds with material which shall lead them to a better understanding of and

acquaintance with a race whose poetry was its weakest point—whose power lay in its ability to organize and govern? The Justinian Code, the Orations of Cicero, and Tacitus on the Germans will give the student a better insight into, and a fairer estimate of, the true character of the noblest Romans. He will get as much of idiomatic construction; will gather as large a vocabulary; will become as much (or more) interested in the subject-matter in hand; and will at the same time and without special effort gain information which will be of infinite value soon or late.

When we teach poetry, let it be the best. Latin poetry is only a poor imitation of the nobler strain—a feeble echo of the inspired Greek.

Since to all study, as to all achievement, comes the inevitable and inexorable "Cui bono?"—since we must weigh and compare the merits of all departments of intellectual activity, let us for a moment consider the question of the comparative value of the historical study which is here made possible in conjunction with linguistic attainment.

Why do we study history? Is it to store in the mind an infinity of dates and a vast number of minor facts? Is history merely a memory exercise? Or do we seek the record of events whose resultant influences have changed the destinies of men, that we may learn for our guidance in present crises lessons drawn from the experiences of our predecessors?

Were the former true, it would make little difference *what* we presented to our students so long as they learned Latin; but since progressive educators are, happily, inclining more and more to the latter view, it seems to be far more in accordance with approved pedagogical principles that we should place before the learner work which subserves a double purpose—giving exercise in language and furnishing sound historical study; and which (to use a negative argument) does not keep before the impressionable mind of youth pictures of immorality and indecency.

This is not the view of an extremist. It is not necessary to banish Latin poetry; but let it come later. Moreover, if the student read Latin at all after he leaves college, he will be apt to prefer the poets, since their work requires less application than that needed for reading of more serious character.

Philology has also an indisputable claim

to argument for our chosen theme. The words of Latin origin in our vernacular which hold most closely to their original meaning are not, as a rule, the amorous or idyllic ones, but those used in a civic or legal connection, especially the latter; and it is unquestionably true that an early acquaintance with these, at their sources, will facilitate the student's knowledge and use of present forms and shades of meaning; besides which, such study will gradually lead him into a vast field of possibility for original research, in a department fascinating in its interest and worthy the closest attention. Words are not merely the evolution of articulate sound; they reveal the growth of the vehicle of human expression, widening in proportion to the growth of human thought and experience. We deal here with the medium of exchange and interchange of ideas,—with the soul-life of nations; for, despite Talleyrand's skepticism, language is not "a medium for concealing thought." Words, in their historic aspect, are a series of shining milestones, leading the student, by slow stages, back over the often devious roads along which humanity has travelled to its present height. Let him but follow these with reverence and perseverance to the treasure-house of the past, and glorious will be his reward.

If the master leads the student to connect his Latin with the study of modern languages, especially his native tongue, he will add to each subject an interest derived from and stimulated by the other; and in the Roman Law there is more available material in this direction than in any Latin works to-day before pupils.

Charles Dudley Warner once said that he remembered the point in his student-life "when the verb *amo* was conjugated to his heart's content." Knowledge of this description is almost instinctive. Amativeness is one of man's birthrights. It does not need to be around; it requires only wise guidance. Therefore in the class-room hours of his college days let us give to this nascent manhood food for the intellectual side of character, directing the emotional nature, usually sufficiently aroused by life and outside reading.

Equipped with a sound understanding of Roman Law as a basis for further study, the student who enters a law-school is able to grasp more readily those portions of the modern code which are founded

upon the ancient; and, despite the more complex legal machinery consequent upon present conditions and necessities, this special knowledge cannot fail to be of incalculable service as a vantage-ground.

Here comes also the discussion of the widest field of legal activity. Roman law furnishes the groundwork for all international diplomacy. The diplomatic relations usually maintained among civilized nations are of the utmost importance to the public welfare. Since most of the difficulties arising between nation and nation must be settled by arbitration, a mutual recognizance must exist. Now, since nations are represented by individuals, were it not well for the dealers in statecraft to know thoroughly that which vivifies and sends a network like a complicated nerve-system, running through the whole of Continental jurisprudence?

He who undertakes a diplomatic mission should be forearmed with all such knowledge; he should be a man to whose consummate skill we can safely trust the maintenance abroad of our national character; and since we do not know whose such task may be in time to come, it were perhaps, from a national standpoint, a wise step so to educate our possible future representatives that, when opportunity seeks the man, he may answer truthfully and fearlessly, "Ready!"

Nothing is so necessary to a republic as wise counsellors. In our land citizens properly qualified may rise to the highest places in the State. If painter, poet, musician, architect, each studies the history of his art; if the doctor and the theologian know the history of medicine and the Church,—how much more essential is it that he who prepares for the highest and noblest of callings,—that of counsellor of the best of nations—should devote at least a portion of his time to the history of the rise and development of governmental and constitutional practices and the early codification of laws!

There is another class in the community which must be here considered—the teachers of children. If these people are to do efficient work,—if they are to be teachers in the best sense,—they must entertain the broadest and most catholic views. The curricula of the public schools now embrace the teaching of the principles, duties, and privileges of citizenship, civil government, and the constitutional history of our country. And the master

will be better fitted to teach them after a study of their prototypes in the past, when real law and government were in their full blossom—a flower that has ripened into the magnificently matured fruit of the Constitution of the United States.

Then, too, the wider his knowledge of European governments and institutions, the better will the teacher be able to cope with the foreign elements with which the tremendous tide of immigration has flooded the land, and which it is his high and holy task to Americanize.

Despite the Roman conquest of Britain, and the imposition of Roman institutions upon the island for many years, Roman practices were abolished when the Briton ruled once more in the land of his fathers, beside the altars of his ancestral gods. In the days of Ossian the Druid shrine was revered, and the Roman wall hated as a relic of oppression. The insecurity of Roman dominion in Britain is variously accounted for. While Rome left so distinct an impression on all continental Europe, the insular position of Britain, and her constant jealousy of papal authority, even prior to the Reformation, militated against marked Roman influence. On the Continent Roman Law was and is avowedly the basis of legislation. Professor Russell says "it furnishes a key to the whole body of Continental legislation."

While the ties of a common ancestry and a common language bind us somewhat to our English brethren, we have need, as teachers, of every side-light upon the practices of the widely diversified Continental contingents which it is our professional privilege to make as useful as possible to the land of their adoption.

The non-professional college man who enters upon a mercantile career will be better equipped for his battle if he knows something about the principles of law and equity. Will he be a better man, a worthier citizen, a man of more clear and catholic judgment, for the hours spent in scanning hundreds of lines of the *Æneid*?

We have considered our subject, as yet, only from a utilitarian standpoint; but as an educational and psychological factor it has a specific value. Seeley says that it is the teacher's function to "prepare the learner in intelligence, and as far as possible in character, to properly fill his future place in the community, by bringing to bear, for this purpose, all the resources of the knowledge which has be-

come the heritage of the present from the past."

As time goes on, these bequests become so numerous that we must choose those of greatest educational value—and again comes the old question, "*Cui bono?*"

The objects of education are two: first, to form character,—to build the man; second, to impart useful information.

The word "character" is usually employed in so unscientific a manner that it will perhaps be advisable to define its meaning in the present instance. "Character," as here employed, means, not personal idiosyncrasy, but the most complete development of mental faculty; the rounding-out of man for the highest good to himself and to the community. To accomplish this most desirable end, correct habits are necessary, and the laws of mental growth must be observed.

Granting that the students in our Universities have had sufficient previous training to make them more or less reasoning beings, we need not so much to develop their imaginative faculty as to strengthen and direct the awakening reasoning faculties. With proper care Latin may be made conducive to this end.

We must teach the young student to arrange and classify his various impressions, and to differentiate between facts important or otherwise; he must be led to observe a just proportion. Add to this the power to sustain logical argument, to carry a proposition—a theory—from foundation to correct conclusion; and when the individual can argue from sound premises to sound conclusions ethically as well as intellectually, we have produced the best thing any age can produce, *a man*.

Modern pedagogy makes constant use of the term "correlation." All things are "correlated," from the cradle to the grave,—theologians say, beyond it. Hence no survey of an educational topic is complete without a *resumé* of the possible "correlation" of subjects.

History, English (philology, rhetoric, logic), constitutional government and history, political theories, as well as certain strictly technical legal courses, modern languages of Latin origin, as well as the study of Latin *per se*,—all have an intimate connection with, and some a decided dependence upon, the Roman law. The interdependence of these subjects, and the assistance to be gained by each from the rest, should, it would seem, furnish us

a sufficient plea for the introduction of the *one* topic which, holding them together, should become the golden thread binding our chaplet of pearls.

Rome is not dead! Though Tiber's yellow waves should rise and sweep above

the ruins of her walls, yet will she live—her dwelling-place within the mind of man, a palace worthy of her sovereign state. Rome lives and reigns until the world shall cease from living under law.

NEW YORK.

LOUIE R. HELLER.

BROWNING'S "THE RETURN OF THE DRUSES," CONSIDERED AS AN EXAMPLE OF DRAMATIC LITERATURE

IN DISCUSSING the merits and demerits, faults and excellences, of any piece of dramatic writing, there are two chief points to be considered: *action*, which is the *sine quâ non* of legitimate drama, as the word indicates,—and *creation*, which is the highest function of the dramatic poet. Should these first essentials be found unimpeachable, the style and the theme—plot, if you will—are of secondary importance.

A first superficial reading of "The Return of the Druses" might tempt one to declare that in this drama Browning has fallen short in both these requirements. But let us study the play carefully for a few moments. With the exception of two or three strikingly dramatic—almost melodramatic—*coups de théâtre*, the play certainly does lack action, as the word used in this connection is generally understood; but, as Browning himself has said, "Man's thoughts, and loves, and hates" are the grapes of his vintage, and in the world of thought which he opens to us action is never wanting. Indeed it is just this which makes him always dramatic in whatever mould he may cast his work. "I lay stress on the incidents in the development of a soul," he once said; then added—"little else is worth study."

In that last clause the poet revealed himself. He will give us nothing that is not worth study (does he ever fail here?), and consequently his dramas always centre around this one ever-fresh theme, the development of a soul. And this theme, not alone in itself, but in his invariable mode of treatment of it, cannot admit of any great external action. The development of a given character—its gradual progress from strength to strength, its complexities and perplexities—is ever present throughout his plays as Browning's chief concern. We are never for an

instant permitted to forget for what purpose the drama was written; and this is Browning's greatest fault as a dramatist. As one has aptly said of him, "his moral interests are too obtrusive, he is too conscious of a mission, and his mission destroys the drama."

In "The Return of the Druses" the whole interest centres on the conflict raging in Djabal's heart between his real desire to free his people; his inherent love for supremacy, which prompts him to be Hakeem at all costs; and the latent spark of honesty which breaks from time to time into feeble flame. The whole action of the play, which is necessarily action in the realm of thought, clusters around this vacillating, harassed, and harassing character.

The physical action, being subservient to the mental, palls and is of no significance. It is simply by the way,—necessary to fulfil the writer's plan, but so lacking in spontaneity as to leave one unimpressed and speedily forgetful of it.

Herein lies one of the great differences between Browning and Shakespeare. Shakespeare creates his characters, gives them their surroundings, then steps aside and turns them loose upon the stage to carve their own destinies; and until the curtain falls for the last time nowhere is the hand of their creator apparent. Thus there is a freshness, an impulsiveness, an unconstrained charm in their actions which Browning's characters as a rule lack.

Shakespeare gives us living people,—grave and gay, sad and glad, wise and otherwise, but always thoroughly human, of a like nature to our own; so that we can enter into their failures and triumphs, love them and hate them, with as great ardor as if we had them entered on our list of living friends.

But to me, at least, Browning's dramatic characters are always *Browning's characters*, created by Browning that through them he may work out some soul-problem for the world. In brief, they are simply his mouthpieces,—his puppets to be driven through the play with a tight rein, and never for one moment to be left to their own devices. This determination of Browning to carry his characters straight to their allotted ends in spite of them gives to the play a feverishness, an intensity, an unreality, which limits our appreciation and antagonizes our sympathy. His characters are generally half in the clouds, almost always just a little above us.

Thus Anael with her metaphysical monologues, her self-centralization, lacks the touch of nature which would make us sensible of our kinship with her; so that when she dies, with the ease and pertinence which so many of Browning's characters display in this direction, we breathe no sigh, we shed no tear. Her death is powerless to affect us as do the tragic ends of Cleopatra, Desdemona, Ophelia, or Cordelia. These we have spoken with, lived with, entered into the very thoughts of; but Anael we have but watched dispassionately. She has not crept into our hearts as they have, and we view her demise with complacency, not unmixed with a tinge of commendation that she has so aptly and unresistingly fulfilled her author's plan.

And this leads us to the subject of *creation*. If the dramatist has not left with us at least one character to be beloved or abhorred by us for all time, one who will enter into our hearts and remain with us a constant joy, or at least a never-failing source of interest; has not, in short, as one writer has said, "succeeded in the creation of a splendid personality, heaven or hell-inspired,"—then has he failed in his highest mission.

Has Browning given us such an one in "The Return of the Druses?" I am afraid not. As we recall the characters one by one, of which of them can we say "By that creation has the poet won his seat among the immortals?"

Not Loys, with all his charm; not fair Khalil, beautiful, loyal, deluded boy; and not, oh, not either Djabal or Anael with their endless self-dissection, their wearisome monologues, and their distressing asides! Djabal, with his ceaseless vacil-

lation, his doubts and fears, his inconstancy of purpose, and his utter inability to hold to one straight course, is most skilfully drawn, but he does not attract us. How many Djabals cannot this world boast to-day! They are strong and resolute to press on, they have courage and confidence, daring and determination, until the goal of their ambition is all but reached; then in a twinkling all these fine attributes fall away like the parts of an ill-made house of cards, and fear and distrust, timidity and weakness, seize upon them; they are whirled about by every shifting wind, and instead of the success which seemed to be almost within their grasp, they reap only disappointment and failure. And as in real life such men receive only our half-pitying contempt, so we can conjure up no enthusiastic regard,—nay, not even respect for the storm-tossed Hakeem of the play.

Then there is another very serious objection to this drama, and that is the spirit of fatalism with which it seems to be imbued, although I am quite sure that no belief could have been more repugnant to Browning. Nevertheless the play does oppress one with the same desperate consciousness of the futility of endeavoring to escape from the inevitable, from the predestined, which Hall Caine's novels invariably create.

While one grows more and more impatient with Djabal, it is nevertheless impossible to divest one's self of the feeling that after all he is not to blame; circumstances bind him in toils which he is powerless to break, just as Dan in "The Deemster," and Jason and Michael Sunlocks in "The Bondman," are carried to their foreordained fate,—mere straws caught up on the wind of circumstance.

This powerful picture of a struggling soul swept along by an irresistible tide until the sea engulfs it is not the bracing vision Browning usually gives us, nor is it from a dramatic standpoint satisfactory.

"A man is his own star:
Our acts our angels are
For good or ill,"

—is a lesson we cannot be taught too often, we feeble ones who are only too ready to attribute our misfortunes and the results of our own weakness and false steps to any cause but the true one; and the poet who is the seer and the teacher of his fellows should do naught to aid them in nursing such petty subterfuges.

The whole play, indeed, is unsatisfactory: it leaves one in an unsettled state of mind; and although every reading of it discloses new beauties it also discovers new irritants, and the sense of its incompleteness and uncompletedness invariably deepens with each perusal.

Throughout the play we hope against hope that Djabal will assert himself definitely and decidedly, will fan the latent spark of integrity into glowing flame. Once or twice, indeed, we do take heart when he seems about to cast off the garments of deception and imposture and be "mere man," but always the hope is unfulfilled.

In his interview with Loys in the fourth act, the "better nature" of which he afterwards speaks is shadowed forth in his calm, direct confession and his simple

"Loys, I wronged thee—but unwittingly."

But this is but a flash in the pan: the guards enter in terror; without shout the Druses, and—he is Hakeem still! Then once again the skies brighten when, in his last interview with Anael, he cries:

"As a Frank schemer, or an Arab mystic,
I had been something: now each has destroyed
The other—and behold, from out their crash
A third and better nature rises up—
My mere man's nature! And I yield to it!"

But like the others this gleam is merely momentary, quickly dispelled by Anael's ecstatic salutation—"Hakeem!"—and the profound effect which, coupled with her instant death, it produces upon the weak Druse mob. As these wretched creatures—stunned, terrorized by the performance of what they deem an awful miracle, grovel before the powerful god, their Biamralah, "Frank schemer," and "Arab mystic" quickly reassert themselves to stamp out that "third and better nature."

The opportunity cannot be resisted. He is about to put an eternal quietus upon his doubts and perplexities, to end the struggle, not by a wrested victory, but by a swift and sure retreat. On this he is determined. There is no other way for such as he. But ere that last and weakest step is taken, he shall be supreme once more—die, though thus confessing his defeat, with the shout of triumph on his lips.

It may be that he himself is half-persuaded of his godship, that his mind so fed with this belief has at last assimilated it,—such things have been,—although his former speeches would tend to disprove

this theory; it may be that his last, chief care is for his countrymen, that in their final hour of need he may not fail them,—yet he himself said when, in one of his many soul-swerings, he determined to slip quietly away for Anael's sake:

"Here my work is done
At every point; the Druses must return,
Have convoy to their birthplace back, whoe'er
Their leader be, myself or any Druse.
Venice is pledged to that."

This is a question each reader must decide for himself, as each must for himself determine just what emotion had first place in Anael's heart when she poured out her whole soul in that wild, dramatic cry of "Hakeem!"

The character of Loys is carefully drawn and well sustained, his frankness, purity, and integrity making splendid foils for the darker characters around him; while in his portrayal of the Druses—the noisy, turbulent, gullible throng, ever swayed by the last speaker, fanned into frenzy, quelled into quietude, by the leader of the moment—Browning exhibits a profound knowledge of human nature in the aggregate. They are just such a mass of men as gathered about Brutus, rending the air with plaudits which in the next moment, at the bidding of Mark Antony, became shouts of sternest denunciation.

And a word of the prefect, that frank offender who of them all (I make the confession tremblingly) appealed most strongly to me, most won my sympathies. One cannot but enjoy his candid avowal of his hypocrisy and the pride he takes in it; his utter lack of pretensions to being other than he is; and the nonchalance with which, stroke by stroke, he strikes down every prop to which the smitten faith of Loys would cling.

This scene; the one before mentioned, in which Djabal reveals himself to the young knight; and the final grand dénouement,—constitute the cream of the play.

Picture to yourselves the last. Imagine the setting: the great hall with its surging sea of picturesque Druses, holding in their midst the rebellious Nuncio and his struggling guards; Djabal, with Khalil and Loys on either side, make, with their brilliant robes, a bright spot in the centre of the wild throng. At Djabal's feet lies the beautiful Anael; and, as his voice rings triumphantly,—

"Thus I exalt myself, set free my soul!"

— there comes an answering shout:

"God and St. Mark for Venice. Plant the Lion!"

At the clash of the planted standard the Druses shout and move tumultuously forward, Loys drawing his sword. Djabal, between Loys and Khalil, leads them a few steps, then, with the cry upon his lips—

"On to the Mountain! At the Mountain, Druses!"

he falls dead.

This is magnificent. The mere reading of it thrills one. Staged as plays are staged nowadays, presented by competent actors, the dramatic effect would be simply tremendous. And yet, in spite of this and other scattered scenes which offer excellent opportunity for spectacular effect,—presented by ordinary actors to an ordinary audience previously unacquainted with it, can we doubt that the play would be other than a complete failure? Let us sum up briefly the apparent reasons for this.

In the first place—to indulge in a little repetition—the theme is too intense, the ethics of the play too obtrusive, the whole tone too feverish, its loftiness too sustained, for popular approval; the problems are too subtle to be fully grasped and appreciated apart from careful and quiet study.

Then, although Browning's dramatic dialogue leaves nothing to be desired in fire and force—yes, and keen satire too, as instance the scene between Loys and the Prefect—it does lack the lighter touches, the delicate play of wit and gentle raillery which are so necessary to relieve the heaviness and unbroken sombreness of the play.

Dogberry, Touchstone, the Gobbos, Falstaff, by the very force of contrast serve to heighten the gloomy effect of the serious scenes they enliven. But Browning will have none of such literary olives. Never for an instant does he lose sight of the purpose of his play,—of the ethical theme it develops.

There is another thing which strikes one in connection with this play,—although this of course has nothing to do with its acting qualities,—and that is its lack of quotable lines, lines which ring themselves through and through one's mind as—to

borrow from the poetical De Bergerac—rings the golden clapper of an ever-shaken bell.

In thinking over the play, while whole speeches come to mind and entire scenes present themselves, no single lines stand out as embodying some vital truth or voicing some gem of thought so aptly framed as to be unforgettable—unless, indeed, we take as the proving exception those words of Djabal's which are, in truth, worthy of Memory's guardianship:

"All great works in this world spring from the ruins
Of greater projects—ever, on our earth,
Babels men block out, Babylons they build."

And now, since the immortal White Queen has declared that everything has a moral, and since we know that Browning has given us nothing that is not worth study, nothing that does not carry with it some helpful lesson, some tower of strength for us to lean upon, let us endeavor to discover what lies hidden for us in "The Return of the Druses."

At first we seek it vainly, since out of the five chief characters (if we may include the Prefect) three die, having achieved neither high failure nor low success; and of the remaining two, one, we are led to imagine, continues on his way unshaken in his blind infatuation, nourishing a false hope, cherishing a fond delusion; and the other, foiled and betrayed alike by friend and foe, is left to face life with broken hopes and, for the time at least, with all faith in mankind shattered.

Yet in this very wreck of glorious possibilities unfulfilled, this débris of high hopes blasted, lofty purposes trampled in the dust, noble aspirations brought to naught, we may find our lesson,—that, knowing where Djabal failed, we may triumph; seeing what havoc was brought about by his low estimate of his God-given manhood, by his trifling with his nobler impulses, his ignorance of the true obligations of life, his lack of self-command and self-restraint, his inconstancy and want of decision, we may learn to realize the truth of Tennyson's emphatic lines:

"Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control;
These three alone lead life to sovereign power."

MABEL MACLEAN HELLIWELL.

TORONTO.



THE WORLD AND ITS DOINGS : EDITORIAL COMMENT

The English in South Africa From the aspect of affairs in the South African Republic there would seem to be fear of another and serious clash with England. The story of European colonization in South Africa is one that the student of history can hardly look back upon with pride. It is throughout a story of strife, on the part not only of rival European nations,—Portugal, Holland, and England,—but also on the part of the two latter countries especially, in their successive dealings with the natives,—Hottentots, Kaffirs, Zulus, Mashonas, and Matabeles. The contentions between the English and the Dutch have existed now for a hundred years, or, to be explicit, from 1795, when England took possession of the Cape to prevent France from doing so. At this time Cape Colony was under Dutch rule, or rather under the rule of the Dutch East India Company, who used Cape Town, as the English themselves have done, as a port of call on the way to India. By the Peace of Amiens the colony was to have been restored to Holland, but this can hardly be said to have been done, owing to the continued war with France; so Britain in 1806, after a century and a half of quasi-Dutch rule, finally took possession of the country and proceeded to colonize it. In 1814, by the terms of the first Peace of Paris, the Cape was formally recognized as a British colony, and the Netherlands received from Britain a monetary compensation for its loss.

After this, English settlement was for a time a matter of slow growth, but when the first legislative council was created, and the colony received a constitution based on representative government, it began rapidly to fill up, especially after the British decree of emancipation gave freedom to the slaves. To this decree the Dutch colonists strenuously objected, for they held, with other rigid and primitive beliefs, the patriarchal idea of slavery as they believed it to be taught in the Old Testament. So sturdily did they hold to their own views and desire to lead, in their independent way, their own simple pas-

toral life, that they determined to migrate and seek their "land of promise" beyond the confines of the colony. The first "trek" of the Boers was in the direction of Natal, where they came into collision with the Zulus, and many of them were murdered. This experience steeled the Dutch heart, never very tender toward the natives, and dried the ever-shallow fountains of their pity. Their heart-hardness was increased when England denied them the right to establish an independent government in any territory being colonized by Britain; so in 1843, after much friction with the English and many fierce conflicts with the Kaffirs, the venturesome Dutch, who loved fighting, again "trekked," this time across the Drakenberg Mountains into what is now known as the Orange Free State. Hither the Boers were, however, again followed, and the English government persisted in treating them either as British subjects or as rebels. For a time there was further strife and bloodshed, but their obduracy was inveterate; and once more they moved on, this time across the river Vaal, into the "Transvaal" (whence the present name), while the Orange territory which they abandoned was afterwards surrendered to the more pacific Dutch, and its independence was guaranteed as a free State.

Henceforth history has to do with the Boers in the South African Republic, which they then founded, and from which they would like to have excluded all intruding aliens, especially those of the English race. For a time, however, their prowess was sufficiently taxed by the warlike natives, and when the Boer fortunes appeared to be at the lowest ebb some among them suggested that England should take the country under its protection. This unluckily came about, and in an evil hour the English flag was hoisted over the Transvaal. What came of this taking possession of Naboth's vineyard, and of not keeping the promises made to the Boers in the matter of self-government, the following article will relate.

England and the Transvaal The English occupation of the Transvaal occurred in 1877, when the Boer fortunes, as we have said, were at the lowest ebb, the country being financially bankrupt, though rich in mineral wealth. The annexation was justified on the ground that the native policy threatened to bring about a general Kaffir rising in South Africa, which would have been a serious menace to British interests. The annexation was protested against by the Volksraad, the Transvaal legislature, and three years afterwards, when few English troops were in South Africa—for they had been withdrawn after England's calamitous war with the Zulus—a rising took place, the crowning disasters of which were Laing's Nek and Majuba Hill. These disasters, greatly as they have been misrepresented by the Boers, were the result of over-confidence on the part of the British, and failure to credit the Dutch burghers with skill in the use of the rifle, as their deadly marksmanship proved. The issue was unfortunately weakened for the English by the impolitic haste of Mr. Gladstone—who was England's Premier at the time—to come to terms with the Boers, who are not a people to be treated sentimentally. The result, as we know, was the restoration of self-government to the republic as regards internal affairs, England reserving the control of external affairs as suzerain. The London Convention of 1884 in some degree modified British suzerainty, and advantage of this has eagerly been taken by President Krüger and his advisers to assume a hostile and contumacious attitude toward the imperial nation and her subjects within the republic, who, with other aliens, are deprived of all political rights in the country save under intolerable conditions.

In putting the matter in this light we have no wish to do injustice to the Boer case. The Boers, it is true, have a tacit right to the management of their own internal affairs; the Republic is of their own creating, and autonomy was ceded them by England's own volition. But the convention which gave them what rights they possess did not give them the right either to exclude or to harass the English or other alien Outlanders. In admitting them as settlers and exploiters of their mineral lands and developers of the country's resources, they are morally bound to treat them fairly and give them a reason-

able voice in the government of the republic. Especially ought this to be the Outlanders' right since they outnumber the Boers by two to one, own half the land, and contribute nineteen twentieths of the public revenue. So far from receiving fair treatment, they are placed at every disadvantage. Politically they are looked upon with suspicion and treated as if they were helots or outlaws; and though they are in the majority and form the most progressive, enterprising, and intelligent section of the republic, which they have enriched by their toil, and in which they seek to make a permanent home for themselves and their families, they are denied the rights of freemen. They have no voice in the legislature, or even in the municipal affairs of the cities they have created, and in which they are grievously taxed. Their very language is proscribed, for English is not taught in the schools, while English books are subject, in coming into the country, to a customs duty of one hundred per cent!

This condition of things England could not ignore, especially when appealed to by over 20,000 of her subjects in the republic who are in political servitude to their Dutch taskmasters. To be indifferent to their case would have been both a weakness and a wrong. But she has not been indifferent, nor has she been willing to act hastily, for the remembrance of the ill-advised but disavowed Jameson raid forbade that. While she has warned the republic that she would hold it responsible for any trouble that might arise from the strained relations between the Dutch and the Outlanders, she has sought by conciliation and conference to bring the stiff-necked Boers to reason. This she has done in the interest alike of Boers and of Outlanders, and from an honest desire to maintain the stability as well as the independence of the republic. The conference, as we know, failed, since President Krüger wanted to submit the case to the arbitration of a foreign tribunal, which England could not assent to, as suzerain, in dealing with a people whose country is not a sovereign state. Sir Alfred Milner, the South African High Commissioner, as we stated last month, did all that he could in pleading the Outlanders' case. His failure, it is obvious, was not due to inability to present and argue the points at issue, nor from lack of intelligent understanding of the case or want

of diplomatic finesse. His report to the British government on the aspect of things is skilfully yet strongly presented, and it has sensibly influenced the English Foreign Office to insist upon the redress of the Outlanders' grievances, with the granting of proper suffrage concessions. This firm attitude is one, we imagine, few can quarrel with who know the whole facts of the case. Least of all will exception be taken to coercion by American sympathizers with the Outlanders, not a few of whom are their own countrymen, and to all of whom the essentially American principle is dear—"no taxation without representation." Boer oppression cannot in the nature of things be prolonged, for its intolerable character is not to be borne by freemen; nor is it an attitude that can help the Boers to win support, moral or otherwise, from onlooking nations.

Difference of opinion there may honestly be about going to war. In England, one section of the Liberal party scouts the idea, on the plea that the conscience of the nation is sufficient to set matters right, and, as their political leader, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, puts it, there need be no haste to make the English Outlanders un-Britishize themselves. But even Sir Henry admits the grievances of which the Outlanders bitterly complain, when he says that "they have not the municipal government, the police protection, the organized maintenance of order, the even-handed administration of justice which in all civilized communities are regarded as the very elements of civil right and civil freedom." An admission as grave as this, from the mouthpiece of the Opposition, surely does not make for peace, nor ought it justly to influence public opinion in favor merely of mild measures and weak protests against Boer stubbornness and tyranny.

Whether Mr. Krüger will yield is, as we write, a moot point. The tension for the moment is great, as the resort to war would be extremely serious for both parties, though there can be little doubt as to the issue being ultimately favorable for England. England has now too much at stake in South Africa to imperil her prestige by another ineffective war with the Dutch burghers. Nor, were she driven to a fight, would the justice of her case be without its practical as well as moral influence on the issue.

The New French Cabinet The Dupuy ministry in France, undermined by the factions and discredited by the Dreyfus military scandal, has fallen, and has been succeeded by that under the premiership of M. Waldeck-Rousseau. The nation, we can well understand, is sick of the instability of things and no doubt longs for a dictator; but a dictator does not arise, and it has necessarily to put up with makeshift Cabinets and such political combinations as will serve the hour until a really strong man appears on the scene or a storm again overtakes the country that may bring hope to the Legitimist breast by restoring the glories of the monarchy. But though Legitimism has its liegemen in the army, the army itself is not at present in good odor; while the Republic has many ardent friends and supporters, though it yields but few who are at once able and strong. In President Loubet France appears to have a fairly good head of the nation, and as he stands for revision of the Dreyfus case and has acted with firmness in the recent plot to force him to resign, it supports him in the selection he was able finally to make of M. Waldeck-Rousseau as Premier. The new head of the Legislature had obviously a difficult task in making up his ministerial slate, but he at length succeeded in that, and, having done so, he frankly met the Legislature and gave an account of his composite Cabinet. After explaining his policy and replying to the interpellations in the Chamber, the Premier was sustained by a majority vote, as his government was also sustained in the Senate, where M. Waldeck-Rousseau was represented by his new Minister of Justice. In the popular Chamber the chief difficulty the Premier seems to have had to contend with was to make the new Minister of War, General the Marquis de Gallifet, acceptable to the Legislature. Though General de Gallifet was unwelcome to the Socialists and other revolutionary elements in the Chamber, he bears an excellent character, and, being unsmirched by anti-Dreyfusism and loyal to the nation and the Constitution, he would appear to be just the man the present juncture requires when the army chiefs are about to be dealt with for their dastardly conspiracy against Dreyfus. Perhaps confidence was the more reposed in him, however, because he is likely to be lenient toward the delinquent army chiefs if the re-trial

of Dreyfus acquits the victim of their hate and condemns the men and the methods used to degrade and ruin him. M. Waldeck-Rousseau is himself said to be a strong and resolute politician, though in forming his Cabinet he has had to admit to it some representation of a radical kind, and to employ tact in conciliating elements in the Legislature opposed to him and to President Loubet. The task which lies before him will doubtless try his mettle, as it will test the ability and the courage as well as the loyalty of his colleagues in the Ministry. But resoluteness and firmness are in France just now the imperious need of the hour. If the Ministry is upheld until the Dreyfus case is finally and justly settled, and until the chief army departments are reorganized on an honest and reputable basis, it will have creditably served its purpose and deserved well of the French people. When we recall the many ministries that have lived their short hour since the fall of the empire in France—there have been over twenty-five of them in as many years—this is all that we can expect of the new one.

★

The Re-trial of Dreyfus The first step in the effort to right the foul wrong done

to Dreyfus has been taken in sustaining the new Waldeck-Rousseau ministry, which is pledged to the revision of the unfortunate captain's case. The omen is an auspicious one, since it indicates not only the return of the French people to sobriety of thought in regard to the scandalously treated officer, but the evident desire of those who have hitherto infamed him now to do him justice, and, if possible, to restore him to his rights as an officer and a citizen. The victim of the army chiefs' conspiracy has, moreover, been brought back from his living death on Devil's Isle and been taken to Rennes, the former capital of Brittany, where even the remembrance of the lately rampant passions and prejudices of the French capital may not affect the calm dispassionateness of his new judges. We may now look for the truth in this extraordinary case, in which the spirit of inherent fairness would seem in the long run to have triumphed, and for the meting out of justice where there has been such infamous defiance of right and satanic alliance and collusion with wrong. In the hoped-for rehabilitation of the inno-

cent we should be more than human if we did not hope also for the confounding and execrating of the guilty,—for the vindication of the one and the condemnation and punishment of the other. Dreyfus's accusers have been many and malignant; yet his enemies have been those not merely of the man, but of the State. The State does well, therefore, to reopen the case, not only for the sake of the victim of an almost irremediable wrong, but for the sake of justice, and that it may know and bring to a merited obloquy all who have been concerned in a nefarious and execrable conspiracy. Every well-wisher of the nation will rejoice at the new turn affairs have taken and hail its return to sanity. It is hoped that what is yet to be done in the revision of the case, will be done effectively as well as speedily, and that the final issue may be reached and accepted while political passions are cooled and racial prejudice is stilled.

★

The Peace Conference at The Hague

Whatever be the final issues of the Peace deliberations at The Hague, the practical results, as it is about to close, are neither many nor definite. The Russian overtures, where they have merit at all, and are not put forward merely to please the Tsar, are said to be crude and only half digested. Her proposals for arbitration, having a compulsory and binding rider attached, were not palatable to the Conference; indeed, Germany, whose representatives are not only able and alert, but have the advantage, in the main, of knowing the mind of their militant master, would have none of them; so that part of the scheme may be said to have fallen through. What gains have been made are those credited to this country and to England, both of whose representatives have been working hard, and, in essential things, in unison. The arbitration scheme offered by the two latter nations has been more favorably considered, and, being voluntary in its exactions, is more likely to be approved by the Conference. Reduction of armaments, favored by Russia, was brought forward by the delegates of the Tsar, but, as militarism is in the ascendant, has not been approved by the representatives of the conferring Powers. The proposal is to place a limit, for a period of years, on the annual budget appropriations for naval and military

purposes, and to exact pledges that the military forces of the nations shall not be added to save for service in the colonies and outlying possessions of the subscribing Powers. The proposal, it is understood, is not likely to win acceptance.

Almost the only topic dealt with which met with partial approval is the one urged by American representatives in favor of the neutralization of private property at sea in time of war. This proposal, though deemed by the delegates of France, Russia, and Great Britain outside the scope of the Conference, was favored to this extent, that it was agreed to refer it to a special commission to be summoned hereafter. As the sessions were held in secret it has been difficult to learn just what the Conference has achieved as a whole. From what has transpired the results of the gathering are understood to be meagre if not disappointing. Especially does this seem to be the case so far as the larger aims and expectations of the Conference are concerned, though doubtless there have been gains in the subsidiary matters discussed which may go some length in justifying the gathering at The Hague. The moral gains of the notable meeting should of course count for something; and by those who set store upon ethical principles and the government of nations by righteousness these gains will undoubtedly be hailed with fervor. The cynic will be apt to add, however, that "peace on earth"—despite all that was expected from the Tsar's summons to the nations—is still postponed to the millennium.

★

The Political Crisis in Belgium Belgium is at present in a revolutionary mood which threatens the monarchy and with it the stability of the kingdom. The immediate cause of trouble appears to be the inequalities in the suffrage, against which the Socialists, acting with the Liberals, are protesting, and with considerable violence. The protest is chiefly directed against the Conservative or Clerical party in the State, whose ascendancy, owing to the intrigues of the Roman Catholic Church and to the system of plural voting which obtains, the Radicals and Socialists bitterly resent. The difficulty is partly, however, a racial one, Belgium being populated about equally by the Flemish or Low German peoples and by the Walloons or Gallo-Romanic stock,

the latter, of course, having pronounced French sympathies. The antagonism of these diverse elements in the kingdom has always been more or less active, the Flemings being great sticklers for the maintenance of their own nationality and speech, while the Walloons, on the contrary, have naturally fought for their own hand. The present bone of contention, as we have said, is the inequitable suffrage, the government in its new electoral bill wishing to maintain the system of plural voting, which gives two, and in some cases three, votes to privileged electors by reason of their property or educational qualifications, and thus enables them to outvote the proletariat with but one vote. The effort to reform but really to continue this government-favored system has recently resulted in much rioting in Brussels and other Belgian cities, and has been quelled partly by the military and partly by the withdrawing of the government measure and the promise to submit the electoral bills for rectification to a committee of all parties. The gravity of the situation may be gathered from the menacing attitude of the Socialists toward the Clerical party and from the cries heard in the legislative chamber hostile to the priests and even inimical to the throne, while shouts are to be heard everywhere for universal and uniform suffrage.

★

The Outbreaks in Spain Spain does not appear to take kindly to the situation of affairs in the Peninsula since war with this country deprived her of her colonies and depleted her already shrunken exchequer. The Cabinet, weakened by the humiliations occasioned by defeat in the war, and by having to give effect, however unwillingly, to the treaty of peace, has naturally had much to contend with. Its pressing difficulty has of late been to meet the expenses of the late conflict and to raise by taxation the requisite annual interest. It is the imposing of heavy burdens on the people through the agency of the tax-gatherer that has incited disturbance over the country and caused the uprising in Madrid. The budget exactions bear heavily all round, while ability to pay is with some classes lessened by the scaling down of interest on such blocks of the public debt as are held by the Spanish themselves. The army and navy estimates have of course been considerably curtailed, and retrenchment has

been rigorously applied where it has been practicable to do so, save in the case of the Church, which, though enormously wealthy, is suffered, as usual, to escape the share it ought honestly to bear of the nation's burdens. This latter example of ministerial favor, surely unwise at the present juncture, has brought its natural consequences in mob attacks upon the Jesuit establishments and increased disaffection and sullenness among the tax-ridden laity. The popular revolt is, we fear, apt to spread and gain force unless heavy concessions are made and a more equitable revision is undertaken of the inequalities of the budget. In the present temper of the Spanish people almost any incident, however, would make a grievance; but unfair taxation, especially where it is burdensome, would in any country justify or palliate revolt. We may not be surprised, therefore, at the outbreak; and we know it is often easier to complain and protest than to acquiesce in a wrong and to pluck up heart and manfully assume an intolerable burden.

★

Australian Federation The agitation in the Australian colonies in favor of a federated commonwealth has recently gained headway, despite the opposition in the older and richer dependency on the island continent and the rivalries of political parties, each fearing that union would be fatal to local supremacy and sectional ambition. Most of the colonies, New South Wales excepted, have already pronounced in favor of the scheme, and now a referendum in New South Wales gives it endorsement, the returns showing 101,200 in favor of the enabling Act, and 79,634 against it. The result has been hailed with enthusiasm, though there is still a considerable section of the antipodal community that opposes the measure, not so much as to the principle involved, but as to the manner in which it is proposed to give effect to the Union. The inducing motive to federate is in Australia not the impelling one of fear of external aggression and desire for mutual safety and strength. The colonies would seem to be actuated rather by the promptings of the imperialist spirit, which is active in these days, and seeks union that they may rise above the provincial status and get rid of the mutual jealousies and divergences of interest that mark the state and retard the progress of the small

colony. Presumably also they have had before their eyes the example of the British-American provinces which in 1867 federated themselves and erected the almost national structure of the Canadian Dominion. The success of confederation, in the case of our Canadian cousins, might well lead to their example being copied in Australia; though Canadian officialism perhaps draws too roseate a picture of the benefits of union, at least under the present party system of government, where it finds simply a larger field for its sinister play and for those extravagant methods of finance which it encourages, unless safeguarded by the most rigid and restraining checks. There is here need for caution, especially where faction is not unknown, and where political parties, as they are in Australia, are not only actively arrayed against each other, but are apt also to be unscrupulously arrayed against the State. With sagacity and broadmindedness, and a patriotic regard for the dignity as well as for the prosperity of the Commonwealth, the evils of federation may however be surmounted, or at least minimized, and the new status made subservient to the highest interests of the community. That this may be the experience of the federating colonies in Australia, we may be permitted earnestly to hope.

★

Peace in Samoa Peace once more reigns in Samoa, for the dusky kingship is abolished, and Malietoa Tanu is, by the edict of the Joint High Commission, to be exiled to Fiji. The disastrous rivalry of would-be native monarchs is thus peacefully ended, though dethronement or compulsory abdication must to the war-loving mind of the Samoan seem a heavy price to pay for the unappreciated luxury of peace. A provisional government has been created pending the sanction of its establishment by the three Powers interested in the islands—Britain, Germany, and the United States. Other matters are to be submitted to the respective governments concerned for ratification, and when this has been received the affairs of the late monarchy in the South Pacific will be wound up and the petty strife for the time being ended. What comes of Mataafa and his adherents does not seem to have been communicated by cable. The Commission is understood, however, to have had from his late

Majesty, as well as from the rival sovereign, the surrender of all firearms, and hence any misgiving as to the *bona fides* of peace may be dissipated. The functions of the resident foreign consuls are henceforth, we believe, to be greatly restricted, while the Supreme Court is to be retained, as under the former treaty, though Chief Justice Chambers, it is cabled, desires to resign and return to the United States. There is to be a local governor and a small council, sufficient for all advisory and administrative purposes.

★

The Sugar Problem in Jamaica The lamentations of Jamaica, it would seem, are about to end, and prosperity is expected once more to smile upon her and her new created industries. Our readers will all know that the sugar raised on this island of Britain in the West Indies has for many years not paid for its cultivation, owing to the United Kingdom obtaining its supply of the necessary table commodity from the beet-sugar product manufactured on the European Continent. Nor could a profitable market be found for the Jamaican article in this country owing to our much-abused protective tariff. For some years back trade in the island has consequently been greatly depressed, so much so indeed that talk has been rife in Jamaica of seeking annexation to the United States or admission into the Canadian Confederation. Both of these alternatives are now, it seems, to be averted through the proposal of the English Foreign Office that the Jamaican planters are to turn their attention to tropical fruit-raising for the British market as a substitute for the sugar industry. To facilitate this change and relieve the colony's distress, the British government, it is said, is about to establish a fast steamship service between the island and the United Kingdom for the fruit transportation, and in addition it proposes to grant an annual subsidy of £10,000 to an association organized for the raising and handling of the fruit. Thus the depression of the island is to be relieved and native industry given a new impulse and direction. There is talk also of some measure of reciprocity between this country and Jamaica likely to aid the depressed industries, and this is sought to be arranged with the coöperation of the government of the Canadian Dominion. In these efforts in her behalf Jamaica now rejoices.

The Gloomy Outlook in the Philippines The Philippine situation, in spite of the roseate reports given out occasionally by the Administration, does not improve; the outlook indeed becomes gloomier, and if we have not actual reverses to chronicle, we have no great and decisive triumphs to record. The campaign drags tragically, for the effective strength of our forces in Luzon dwindles daily from the scourge of the deadly climate or from casualties occurring in such operations as the brave and capable Lawton can carry on in the present hideous rainy season. What imperialism is exacting in the Philippines of the nation's blood and treasure, few, we fear, adequately realize,—of those at least who have no sons serving in the Far East whose lives are ceaselessly in peril in an inglorious if not in an immoral war. That there are regiments, both of volunteers and regulars, bravely and patriotically doing their utmost on behalf of their flag and country, in a struggle where much is lost and little is won, we all know; and it makes the heart bleed to think of the forlornness of the outlook and the constant wearing out of courage and strength, which, though exerted to the full, apparently gain nothing and risk everything. Nor is the constant sapping of the efficiency of battalions and companies by stray bullets at the firing-line, where from the concealed positions of the enemy reprisals are almost impossible, the least pitiful circumstance in the prolonged and barren conflict. Here, for example, is an incident, told by a newspaper man, of what is constantly going on in the daily experience of a soldier's life on picket duty or in the trenches with Lawton in Luzon. The pathetic story is taken from the correspondence of "Harper's Weekly," where the eye-witness narrates the graphic story of the advance of the troops upon Maasin, on the San Miguel road. The writer has been watching the daring efforts of some Oregon and Minnesota volunteers to make their way through dense brush and over sodden fields, under a blistering sun, with a wary enemy, who knows every devious path, lurking for the victim of a chance shot. At this moment he sees some litter-bearers (Chinese coolies) come toiling across the rice-fields from the firing line, carrying the heavy burden of a wounded man.

"Under the canebrake, by the road," he relates, "lies Private Buckendorf, of the Thir-

teenth Minnesota, snot through the stomach. He is gasping for breath and trying to sit up. 'No, it doesn't hurt me much, but I can't breathe right,' he replies to the doctor's question. 'Take it easy, old man, the ambulance will be here in a moment;' but, as he speaks, the brave soldier's life-blood spurts forth in a stream from his mouth and nostrils, and he sinks limply back with a deathly pallor. He struggles to articulate, and feebly waves his identification card tied round his neck, whispering, 'I live in Minneapolis.' There are dear ones there," the writer concludes, "whose broken heart-strings will never vibrate in patriotic sympathy with the cruel war in the Philippines!"

The incident is, of course, a common one and familiar to every soldier in active service, but it is not the less touching; nor is the reflection with which the writer sums up the brief narrative, in our judgment, an unjust one, even though we do not measure the fervor of our patriotism by the sacrifices we are *not* called upon to make, or by personal exemption from the losses and bereavements which the war entails. The history of the conflict with the natives of these islands since the Peace and the transfer of the country by purchase from Spain is indeed a painful as well as a calamitous one. Why had it to be written? Why did we remain a day longer in Manila Bay after Dewey had demolished the Spanish fleet and put it beyond the possibility of marauding on our coasts? Why did we permit dreams of conquest to enter our acquisitive minds, and the will-o'-the-wisp of Expansion to lure us to seek and retain ownership over the islands? Why, moreover, should we have paid good money for them, against the will of the peoples who inhabit them, and who had long fought to be free so as to secure and exercise the unimpugnable right of native self-government? Large as the sum was, when it did not give us actual possession, did it not occur to us that the money will have to be paid ten times over—not to speak of the loss of life incurred—before we can suppress the revolt, call the islands an acquisition of the United States, and end a sterile and humiliating struggle? If by force of circumstances we were compelled to hold the Philippines for a time, why did we antagonize the Filipinos, and what has our Civil Commission in the country accomplished that was sent forth to extend to them the olive branch? Even when all the blood and treasure shall have been

spent and we shall have reduced the natives to subjection, can we reasonably hope for an abiding peace without having to maintain among them an army of occupation? What then will be thought of American methods of deliverance from oppression, and what the effect upon American character by accepting, like any Old World Power, "the white man's burden," and keeping a people in thralldom who, actuated by the same motives that influenced our revolutionary fathers, have fought and bled to be free?

Is it futile now to ask these questions, or to remind ourselves of some things we seem to have forgotten in our own past history? That they are not altogether forgotten is happily proved by the division of opinion throughout the country as to the righteousness of and consequent justification for the war. That division of opinion we are called upon to respect, and where it is adverse to the Administration it is not to be put down by truculence in politics, still less by blustering charges of treason. Nor do we indulge in these remarks in any cynical mood, or from any unpatriotic motive which would reflect upon the honor of the nation or be detrimental to the success and final triumph of our arms. These and all motives unworthy of the citizen are foreign to our mind. Nor do we lack faith in the future, or fail to see that—as things are—the strong arm must be stayed and reinforced in the Philippines ere carnage can cease and American sovereignty, with the reign of law and freedom, be admitted and acquiesced in. When that time arrives—and every true man will seek to hasten and not to retard its coming—the grave thought of the nation will, we trust, determine, for the weal of all, what is right and just as well as expedient to be done.

Across the horizon of the present perplexities a gleam of light is cast by the determination of the Administration at last to send ample troops to the Philippines. Fourteen new regiments are to be raised and forwarded forthwith to General Otis, the regiments to be composed as far as practicable of men who have seen service and to be officered by regular army men. The decision to take this step comes not a day too soon, especially when so many regiments that have been bearing the brunt of the fighting in Luzon are reduced to skeletons of their former strength and are being sent home.

WOMAN AND THE HOME

NOT long ago a well-known publication for youth refused a serial story by one of its regular contributors upon the ground that its heroine was an artist, and that the following of such a character through her development to success would have the effect upon the young readers of the magazine of winning them to a similar occupation. As the publication circulates among the families of the well-to-do middle class, chiefly, where practical ideas do most exist, and where they are perhaps necessary to the continuance of prosperity, the magazine did not care to instill impracticability into the minds of its readers by methods so subtle. It refused, in fact, to undermine the sturdy philistinism that it knew existed among its subscribers. It believed that art, as a vocation, save to the very few gifted with distinct talent, was a delusion, and would result in financial failure and bitterness of spirit to the misguided aspirant. In short, it refused to have bohemia attractively presented.

This frank position upon the part of men who are thoroughly acquainted with the mental qualities of American life and also with its business chances for the young are enough to distract one who ardently desires to see the love of beauty increase among her young countrymen and women, and who at the same time entertains a frugal bourgeois desire to have them take up with occupations which will keep them honest and ensure them a competence. Taking this and that together, it seems as if a period of discouragement had come over America in regard to its artistic capabilities. Even those painters and writers who have had such joy in their work that they have been justified in thinking it might be art,—for “art is the expression of man’s joy in his work,”—have come to look with questioning upon their achievements, and to wonder if it would not have been better for them if they had worked buttonholes in a shirt factory or ploughed black-hearted potatoes in a sodden field.

★

But there is not really so much cause for discouragement as would seem at first glance. The truth is, we have reached a new period of development in matters artistic. We see, with eyes suddenly made perceptive, the fountains and statues with which we have decorated our cities, and are amazed and horrified at the ugliness in the creation of which we have given aid and abetment. We frantically form societies to protect ourselves against ourselves, and we beg the committees which we appoint, in the

name of their superior taste, to keep us from disgracing ourselves again by the erection of monstrosities in bronze and marble. We have actually taken alarm at our own bad taste, which our increasing wealth has made more apparent. As we are excessive in every popular movement, we are at present indulging in intemperate discouragement. We apologize for such artists as we have; we lament the banal character of our fiction; we look askance at the roofs above our heads and wonder if they are atrocious,—the roofs we once considered so quaint and picturesque; in estimating the proportions of the transept of the church we forget to worship; and we can no longer dream by our fountains because of our anxiety about the modelling of the satyrs in the midst of the shimmering waters.

To return to the subject of the magazine which could not approve of an artist for a heroine as being a more or less impossible creature in America, and one destined at best to starve to death, it would seem, upon reflection, that the editors were really patriotic in conscientiously attempting to prevent the increase of bad or mediocre art. They are quite aware that when a genius comes upon the earth he is oblivious to obstacles, does not recognize environment, is hindered by no contrivance or combination, and calmly or passionately, as the case may be, expresses himself and explains to us commoners in intellect what we could never have discovered for ourselves. A genius is like a comet. No man can guess its source or its reason for being; it moves according to laws of its own; it goes where it listeth to go, and nothing save collision with a body of weight and size much greater than itself can bring it harm,—and even then the opposing mass is so bespattered with comet-glory that it wishes it had been somewhere else.

★

Since we may not make musicians, painters, or writers of our sons and daughters,—having, as we frankly confess, no genius in the family,—we women must turn our ambitious eyes elsewhere. But we are met with the information from the lawyer that the legal profession has lost its glory. The days of forensic glory are past,—nay, the time of litigation is going by. Lawyers are now mere adjusters of other men’s differences, and this adjustment is done between the four walls of the attorney’s private office. The clergy complain of a decrease of evangelical faith, and say the people rush on the one hand to ritualism, and on the other to rationalism,—again our temperamental ten-

dency to excess betrays us! The journalist beseeches his son, as he loves the liberty of his soul, not to follow in his footsteps. The honest and fair physician will admit that never have surgeons been so reckless, so given up to fads, so arrogantly dogmatic, and at the same time variable in their dicta as now. All of these things being taken into consideration, it is no marvel that the schools of technology are crowded to their utmost capacity, and that the young men who come from families which for generations have produced none but professional men are talking of mechanics and physics as their hope and salvation.

★

True, the changing conditions of this country and the responsibilities which it is assuming beyond its natural borders will make a large opening for young men. But whether this will prove a man-trap or not, involves a difference of opinion. While we desire openings for our sons, we do not wish them to be swallowed up. Nor, indeed, are we particularly anxious to have freeborn American citizens employed in the sorry task of depriving other men of their liberty. We should not be pleased to see our sons in the characters either of slaves or martial policemen; and when the tears of the oppressed water the bread our sons eat, we are not much gratified at their prosperity. We prefer different demonstrations of patriotism.

★

The manner in which Mrs. Emmons Blaine showed her good citizenship at Chicago the other day is, for example, a fashion that it would be well to follow. In common with other householders in the city, she was asked to make a schedule of her personal property. This she did, enumerating articles to the value of \$1,563,000, a greater amount than was ever confessed by any person in Chicago, though there are many of larger wealth than Mrs. Blaine. Her tasteful red-brick dwelling, with its quaint roof of Japanese tiles, is not a palace in its outward appearance, and Mrs. Blaine's manner of living is quiet,—her wealth, youth, and beauty being taken into consideration. That so natural an evidence of good citizenship as the true statement of her taxable property should have created a sensation is a melancholy commentary upon the rarity of similar fair-dealing. Within the last few weeks Mrs. Blaine has exhibited her desire to use her riches wisely in another practical way. She has donated \$500,000 for the erection and maintenance of a school of pedagogy, to be established under the direction of Colonel Francis W. Parker, who, in order to assume control of the new institution, will sever his connection with the normal school at Normal Park, where for many years he and his recently-deceased wife have been the directors. The school of pedagogy will be opened in the fall. Mrs. Blaine has also announced her intention of erecting in the western section of Chicago a free school which

she will offer as a model institution to the board of education. She was also the instigator of a school for children on the North Side, where the Froebel system of imparting instruction can be carried on from the beginning of a child's school-days till it is prepared to enter the university. Such patriotism as this is sane, practical, disinterested, and consistent with the ideals of Christianity.

★

It is distinctly amusing that grave women, such as like to attend international conventions of women and talk about the future of the race and kindred topics, should lend themselves to a discussion of the subject, "Ought the women to be permitted to propose?" That they should consent to be interviewed upon this subject, and give a brief notoriety to a lecturer who took this foolish theme for his subject, shows that the leaders of the suffrage party have lost the sense of values, and have come to attach undue importance to all matters concerning their sex. Were their memories good, or had they been in the confidence of many young women, they would have known quite well that the spirit of love is no respecter of persons, and that adroitly and after her own fashion woman does propose. But she always regrets the necessity. For she does not wish to take the initiative. She does not doubt her right to do it. She certainly does not question her ability. But she desires to be sought; she claims the privilege of assuming reluctance. Her ancient coquetry will not leave her, and she is fain to amuse herself with her immemorial feints. Mr. Herbert Spencer could say a great deal on the subject. Perhaps he has. Some one who has read his books will be able to say. Any way, it is not a question of rights, and every analytical woman knows it, and smiles with covert and subtle wile when she hears that Mrs. Stanton and a number of other ladies have forgotten the facts that their lost youth must have taught them. To be candid, women in general have always been more interested in their privileges than in their rights—and this, notwithstanding the fact that the ladies of the International Council hissed Mrs. Francis Scott when she put up her plea for anti-suffragists.

★

The great feature of the International Council held in London this last month has been the resolution for international arbitration. The Countess of Aberdeen has been its sponsor, Archbishop Ireland was present to support her eloquence, and many distinguished women and men gave the resolution their support. In fact, the International Council stood for it unanimously. There is no denying that the sentiment of arbitration and even for the disarmament of the nations has grown tremendously since the full pathos of the situation of the Filipinos and the pusillanimity of our position has come upon us with full force.

This is the month when, all over the country, the clubwomen are laying out their programmes for the coming year. There is a noticeable increase of club libraries and reciprocity bureaus. At the increase of libraries one can feel only unmitigated satisfaction. At the growth of reciprocity bureaus one may or may not rejoice according to the duties assumed by the bureau. When a bureau provides an actual exchange of papers between the clubs of a State, and when the committee operating the affairs of the bureau urge every club to do its share, then such an organization is a benefit, and helps along the feeling of friendliness that should exist between the State clubs. But if the bureau becomes too energetic, and devises courses of study which it is ready to hand out to any club asking for them, and drains some well-organized club of college women to supply papers for the less fortunate and energetic clubs, then the reciprocity bureau is an actual detriment to club work.

No club can become strong and remain in leading-strings. It is better for a club to lay out a poor programme than for it to follow a good one laid out by some one else. As for the writing of papers, it is well known by experienced club women that the greatest good of a paper results to her who writes it. No two clubs in all the world are alike; no two desire or require precisely the same thing. The programme of study and series of papers which would exactly suit one club would be wasted upon another. Clubs are in various stages of thought, sociability, radicalism, and aspiration. Sophisticated, brilliant, travelled women make up most of them; domestic, busy, thoughtful women make up others; restless, intelligent, verbose women make up others. Some are musical, some bookish, some artistic, some domestic; though all may organize under the broad title of a woman's club. Now, if a reciprocity bureau insists upon being unduly benevolent and thinking for these women who would be bettered by being made to think for themselves, the only fair way for the bureau to do is to send some one with a sympathetic comprehension around to visit each club before making out a programme of study. Such a woman, if she is very clever—a sort of diplomatic genius and spiritual guide in one—may, once in eighty-three times, make the right sort of guess and give the club what it needs. If the reciprocity bureau insists upon reciprocity, well and good. When it permits some clubs to become sponges and others to act as the salt Atlantic, it is being unfair to the sponges—who ought to be something higher in the scale of development. There are, moreover, certain concerns which purport to furnish intellectual food for clubs, and which publish books which appear to be digests of all learning. One small volume deals with "French Literature," and incidentally takes a whirl at French history, and the complaisant clubs which read this congratu-

late themselves upon having acquainted themselves with the history of France and dwell within the chambers of her palace of literature. Germany and Russia, Spain and the Scandinavian countries, are dealt with in the same summary manner, and clubs by the dozen read this compilation of matter and hasten on to other nations with the appetites of intellectual anacondas. Certainly the State federations should do all in their power to prevent such perfunctory and superficial work. They should point out that individuality cannot be developed by means of such slovenly effort. Such work is bad for the brain, bad for the character, an insult to literature, and a disgrace to the federations.

★

By the way, there is some talk of having the officers and delegates from the State federations represent the clubs at the General Federation. The more far-seeing clubwomen will surely deprecate this. The best thing about the General Federation has been its delicate psychological mission; that is, the friendships which have grown out of it and the prejudices which have been destroyed in it are its best recommendation. It has done more than any other one thing to break down the sectional feeling between the North and South. There was no use in the meeting of our Confederates and Federals and the handshaking of men as long as the women brooded apart on old sorrows and hated one another with that unreasoning and corroding sort of hatred for which women have a particular genius, and which is as surely transferable to posterity as a weak heart or a narrow chest. But when the women of California and Alabama, Massachusetts and Florida, Dakota and Tennessee, meet together and have a gorgeous time talking about things which no one understands, meeting at stately functions, and lobbying in the ante-rooms of the convention halls; making good music and bad speeches together; being warmed by the recital of benevolent enterprises, and getting excited over discussions on civic duties,—then the old quarrels are quite, quite forgotten, and the healthy new ones are immensely enjoyed. By which token, are not the several hundred thousand women of the Federation proud to do honor to their president, Mrs. William B. Lowe, of Atlanta, Georgia,—excellent executive officer and delightful gentleman? Decidedly do not let the State federations take the place of the individual clubs at the biennial meetings of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. For, all other objections aside, we should then be in danger of endless politics. The system would become too—well, too senatorial. The clubs are democratic and will remain so as long as the women represent themselves.

ELIA W. PEATTIE,

CHICAGO.

ART AND MUSIC

IS MUSIC INTELLECTUAL?

IT HAS long been claimed that music is a minor art and purely emotional rather than intellectual. Hence reiteration has established a sort of acquiescence, and the world, or a large part of it, has accepted the statement as a fact. This is very much to be doubted. In all metaphysical facts, as in theology, we must accept much which we may not see; and were it possible clearly to prove by an excursion into metaphysics, or by processes in intellectual philosophy and their psychological sequences, that music is intellectual; and were it further possible to formulate a mathematical and conclusive proof to that effect,—it would be necessary for both writer and reader to know sound as a science, mind as a metaphysical action, and the psychology of all intuition. The Platonian philosophy of dialectics teaches a discrimination, “and beneath the tangible and visible, which are but the shadows of the reality, it searches out the true and real. By dialectics the soul attains to true knowledge and is emancipated from its bondage of body and sense.” To another class belong such thinkers as Bacon and Hobbes, who left their impressions largely upon the minds of Locke and others who followed them. Philosophical minds believed that not music alone, but all knowledge, was derived from sense, and that only through sensualistic sensation could men think or prove anything. Still another class believed the mind of man to be an entity apart from all physical manifestations. Then came Descartes, Campanella, and Kant, less material, more idealistic and *spirituelle*, recognizing truths which were of the soul, consequently not to be reduced to formal mathematical calculation, but to be clarified by a metapsycho-philosophical consideration.

We must not mistake our term, or confuse it with any other in this complex psychological question. Intellectual expression is higher than emotional expression, notwithstanding the materialists, who would claim that all intellectual experiences are received through the sensory system, and such premises have seemed to attach themselves particularly to music,—more, perhaps, than to any other line of didactics. Emotion is sensation, and has, besides, its psychical-intellectual elements; no art, perhaps, appealing to these qualities as does music. Standards have been placed by which it is easy for the vast number of thinkers to approximate

the qualities of all poetry and literary art; but the connoisseur in music has a long and hard battle to fight if he would classify musical art as anything more than merely sensuous and emotional. Before going farther let us seek to find why this should be so. In the first place, as we have said elsewhere, music has always had a comparatively small audience. Everybody can read, but not all can play or know music well enough to gain its content from a mental reading. To most listeners—those, at least, who wish to be entertained—it is a matter of tune or rhythm, and not of structural plan, and more often a matter of mood in the listener, who invests with his own scale of appreciation and knowledge a work or works which perhaps he has never studied.

However, if its power be great enough to touch in the sense of religious feeling, patriotism, poetry, or pathos, it is attributed at once to the emotions, when the fact is that the listener finds the emotion in himself, and the idea in the author's work is lost to him. Emotion is fleeting, transitory, and passes away, while the thought in the music lasts,—*the thought which produces it lives*. Any great work, musical or otherwise, must be intellectual first, else how can it endure? The emotions are but arms of the intellect, and, like the latter, must have their culture and discipline. The author must think before he feels his subject, and the listener must make a mental effort to understand him. The kinship of knowledge and the purity of purpose in all higher harmonies, whether poetry, prose, or music, are not to be found in their cursory view, and the day may come when music shall be ranked as the highest intellectual process. Growth in musical appreciation is intellectual growth. The average listener finds an unexplained charm in the classics which constantly increases and never flags by repetition; while the commonplace tickles the ear for a time and becomes stale. The explanation of this process is the intellectual content of the music. The one awakens pleasing emotions for the moment, but soon satiates; the other addresses itself to the subtlest processes of the mind, and repetition only discovers new beauties and depths which have been wrought into it by the composer's thought, his philosophy, or his poetry. It is for this reason that the classics seldom appeal to the multitude, any more than do Plato, Homer, or Bacon; but the humblest mind cannot resist their continued

influence. The masses of mankind are first and most easily appealed to through the emotions, and hysterical literature is quite the successful type of literature for the time; but every progressive mind eventually seeks the models of truth in those works which are wrought out of the soul.

The best of the human intellect has gone into music, just as it has gone into other lines of art; and through the simple songs of childhood, appealing as they do to the emotions, we gradually progress, by an intellectual growth and broader culture, into the appreciation and understanding of the "Redemption," and "Parsifal," and the Beethoven sonatas and symphonies; not by emotional development, but by enlargement of our mental horizon. Music in its development has undergone what science and the intellectual status of medicine and philosophy have undergone in the past. Let us bear in mind that, so far as we know, the economy of nature is the only perfect thing, and every development of it is absolutely necessary to the continuance of the race. If the cosmic process has brought music into the soul of man, it is for a purpose whose wisdom we can hardly dispute and to an end beyond our perception.

As to the intellectual and emotional nature of music, philosophers are at variance with the detractors of our day. When the modern scale was yet undiscovered, Plato said music was a moral law and the essence of order,—and the Greeks then knew practically nothing of it as we now understand it, while Goethe, Schopenhauer, Carlyle, and the greatest philosophers of all history are in accord as to its intellectual value; for these men estimated everything on this basis only. Confucius, nearly a thousand years earlier, expressed a similar high estimate of it; while Helmholtz has shown us the exact scientific foundation upon which its structure rests. The argument that it is quite compatible with dementia, as in the case of Blind Tom, might be also applied to mathematics and other sciences, which occasionally display similar prodigies, or rather mental monstrosities, with the other faculties undeveloped. The one potential fact that critics dwell on is that great musicians have been usually highly educated and cultured men, philosophers and poets, and that their work is the expression of the human spirit of their time.

Whence comes man's concept of harmony? Whence and by what mental process is expression found in tone, whose grammar and construction are just as arbitrary as language itself and yet as complete? When the point is reflected upon that the composers have no outward suggestion from nature, as the painter, sculptor, or poet, but, unlike them, must elaborate their ideas into tones whose harmonies shall be as perfect and symmetrical as the lines in a poem, the lines in a perspective, or

the lines in the Acropolis and the Venus of Milo, then the purely intellectual nature of music is apparent.

If there is anything certain in the process of civilization, it is that nature is regenerate and not degenerate. If evolution is the keynote to the whole symphony of existence and matter, then degeneration is only an incident, and progress is a law in life as gravitation in matter. Wagner and Shakespeare are similar characters in music and literature,—landmarks which designate through the centuries the turning-points of the human mind into new channels; and the association of degeneracy with such minds is idle. When the musical philosophy of one man lays hold on the world's thought, it cannot be lacking in vitality.

Music, in its large sense, has taken a mighty hold on the race, becoming a part of our education and our life. Its growth is marvellous in its great movement in the *Weltgeist*. Is not the new music a forerunner of a greater and higher civilization, just as the art of the Renaissance heralded the humanitarianism of the present era, bringing a new quality as did the Christian art after Pagan art? That the intellectual element of music is its most subtle charm, we have but to remember that a large degree of general culture is necessary for its appreciation. It took the world a long time to grasp the scope of Wagner's genius, nor does it yet know the resources of Chopin, for the reason that what is written in his works finds few interpreters. It is the intellect in all and behind all that speaks to us; and as the Oriental mind conceals in a legend the operations of human nature and the exposition of great truths, so in the intricacies of tone the mind of the musician has interwoven his philosophy and life. Some go so far as to claim that all art is emotional. The "Angelus" is a great picturesque religious lesson, an appeal for simple religious faith. The spirit which pervades it can go into it only by the intellect which conceived it. Angelo's "Moses" is certainly a great thought. Take away the intellect which produced and entered into the "Messiah" and the "Creation," or Beethoven's Ninth Symphony and Wagner's cycle of operas, and how are we to account for their composition and exposition?

In Wagner's operas the *motifs* which are rendered by brass and strings suggest an idea, not an emotion. They say to us clearly and intelligently that Brunhilde, Wotan, or Siegfried is coming, and by the nature of each we may judge of the character. The *motif* is the idea, a declaration, or statement, and it was not emotion or accident on the part of Wagner which placed musical sentences so marvellously, in the proper employment of the various instruments and voices. Here is a great intellect; made greater by research, by culture in literature, history, and all art. All this contributed to the philosophy which gives *timbre*

and tone resonant enough and deep enough to go to future ages, to carry the message that without the intellectual qualities in work, without the experience in life, and the application of both, it could not have reached so far or have lasted.

The *rationale* and *morale* of music do not depend upon the state of the listener, except in so far as the individual is concerned. If a highly emotional temperament invest what he hears only with his own qualities, music does not lose, but the individual loses. Another, whose emotions are better disciplined, with intellect in the ascendancy, will lend faculties which respond to its highest expression and enjoyment. Music should not be an intoxicant, but a tonic, and as such it is not necessary to divest it of a symmetrical and healthy emotional element. The thought or idea comes in its structural completeness rather than in definite or related story, and where there is an idea there must be intellect, and where there is an idea there may be emotion.

The misapprehensions which obtain in music are not such as may be eradicated quickly, except by more general musical culture. Music is on the threshold of a greater recognition, and a more general enlightenment and interest is now manifested. The time is not far off when the cultured mind must know something of music as well as of literary and other arts, something of its importance in society and affairs. Throughout history, at different periods, it has been assailed by popes and peoples, and been banished as deleterious and as making men effeminate. Even the chromatic scale, which in itself suggests nothing more, nothing less, than a series of half-steps, was thought to enervate men and make them less brave! It is not music, nor has it ever been music, which enervates; but a vitiated something which is its mockery and counterfeit.

We must recall again that there was a time in philosophy's development when it was assailed and disposed of very much as in music's evolution. Scientists accused philosophy, and philosophers attacked the outcome of science as narrow and all-insufficient, yea, harmful and mischievous! They found it then as difficult to define and apply the functions of the mind in complicated processes as do we to-day in their application to music. They found confirmation with modification, as they progressed, as shall music's prophets henceforth for some time find. Music is an acknowledged science in its harmonic and contrapuntal construction, in its comprehensive grammar, and its delivery through analytical consideration of anatomical and intellectual sides. Unbiased and unprejudiced writers class it in importance with theology, politics, jurisprudence, aesthetics, and philology. It is one of the most subjective of arts, since it finds nothing in nature to copy, except, perhaps, nature's philosophy as demonstrated in the man.

* It is not easy for a scientific man to convey to a scholar or jurist a clear idea in a complicated process in nature; he must demand from them a certain power of abstraction from the phenomena, as well as a certain skill in the use of geometrical and mechanical conceptions in which it is difficult for them to follow him.*

This is also true of music. Not only were Mozart and Beethoven misunderstood and underrated during their lives; but Dante and Shakespeare were as much retarded in their recognition as intellectual lights, and old theories were adhered to for a hundred years after Copernicus promulgated his theories; yet by the test of time—in most instances a long time—have they all proved their value against odds. They were recognized only when their discoveries were found to presage future needs, and without their adoption an important link would be missing in the chain of a future development. We all know how Helmholtz, through the studies of other sciences, came in contact with the science and philosophy of sound and tone, and from these went earnestly into research and the recesses of music's structure, and from its harmonic relations elaborated his best thought in contributions which have gone into, and shall ever rest as among, the world's greatest literature. Plato and Aristotle foresaw and forfeit its power. With the testimony of the greatest minds, the acceptance of the fact that music embraces a science, and the great works in music which have been handed down to us to last as long as the ceilings of the Sistine Chapel and the plays of Shakespeare shall last, is a strong argument that music is more than emotional. It is not reasonable to expect that one mind may grasp everything; and this apparent fact makes art's greatest plea for specialization. We may not ask from Bach a dissertation on the origin of species, or of Mozart a comprehensive work on the principles of psychology. Yet a knowledge of art may touch indirectly upon all these.

The Darwins may say music originated in a "physical sense," the Spencers may dispose of it by originating it in "emotional cadences of speech," or, *pace* Wallaschek, by "satisfying a rhythmic impulse;" but this all touches only on its edges, for none of these was a practical musician. Darwin said of himself in his writings that although the artistic impulse was very strong in his childhood, in later life not only was it lost to him, but he could not read a great novel, and it was impossible for him to read Shakespeare. Science, in his case, had engulfed all else. And until the structure of music's great works be studied as scholars study the "Nibelungen," "Paradise Lost," or the "Divine Comedy," let theorists not pass lightly upon the intellectuality of Bach's "Well-Tempered Clavichord," the symphonies and sonatas of Beethoven, and the works of Chopin, Schumann, and Wagner, which find so few interpreters.

* Helmholtz.

In the unemotional and intellectual Bach music we have its bone and sinew; in the poetic Chopin, its very *spirituelle* and psychic quality and content; as different in style as are Homer and Shelley. The gap is narrowing which has seemed to exist between musical, literary, and plastic art. Gaps between truths are fortunately ever narrowing; chasms are closing; and the sensational and falsely emotional, which forms so large a part of the product put out in Music's name, must go. Critics have in all times differed in their estimate of all works, the central idea often appealing from the personal standpoint, and it would seem that some even have a constitutional inability to appreciate this branch of art.

One of the certain arguments of such is, that no two persons understand music alike, and if left to an opinion of a given work, no two would interpret it the same way. Fortunately people of such constitutional inability are few. The difference in the subject-matter may easily be disposed of by the same amount of study that one would give to the meanings of Dante, Homer, or Milton, whose thoughts are no more obscure than the phrases and periods of Bach, Beethoven, or Schumann; content which must be made manifest in both by detailed and analytical development, proper emphasis, and clearness of phrasing and enunciation, to deliver which a degree of technique and the same sectional consideration or analysis, would be necessary to both. As to the second consideration, two persons equally scholarly will interpret a work alike or nearly so, holding the central idea or theme well to the foreground, as in a book or picture, and its embellishment and enlargement, its perspective, as it were, deepened in proportion and with due discrimination.

The analysis of the sonata is as clearly defined as anything in literary art; and in its first and second subjects, its connecting episode, its development and recapitulation, it has its structure in orthodox form. If the *littérateur* will but look deeper into music's intricacies, he will find there the Epic, the Lyric, and the Drama, as in the forms of other poems, expressed through different mediums. Liszt said once, "There is music which comes of itself to us, and other music which requires us to come to it." Therefore a theme in musical thought, given in clear musical sentence, need not be less intellectual for this reason of expression. Imagination plays no small part naturally in music as in all art, and a musician may have it to a greater degree developed than any other poet; the very nature of his undertaking looking ever to the inner, making it an adjunct, and its growth a foregone conclusion. As to style, every author in musical literature who can come under the head of good form has his style, so distinctive that the connoisseur, although perhaps unacquainted with the work, may, nine times out

of ten, know its author and characteristics and to what school it belongs.

Music's *spirituelle* can only be confused by those who place inadequate standards in trying to invest old terms with new meanings, taking away as far as possible established and preconceived standards of truth, beauty, and goodness, as does Tolstoi in a work, not on art, but on its iconoclasm. As to the hidden meanings in art, everyone with reasonable intelligence and appreciation can understand the "Angelus," the "Pastoral Symphony," the Chopin preludes, and the best of the "Madonnas" or the "Laocoon." Their intelligibility and uplifting are there, even without asking or answering the reason why. If these be not intellectual, they start the intellect — are its stimuli; and, with still more culture on their lines, their lucidity and beneficence are realized in corresponding proportion. Without words, it is all a language; without speech, it is a communication; to which words would add nothing.

Helmholtz says:

"It is a general principle that the physiology of the organs of sense is most intimately connected with psychology, inasmuch as physiology traces in our sensations the results of mental processes which do not fall within the sphere of consciousness, and must therefore have remained inaccessible to us."

As our sensations are the result of mental processes, emotion is an adjunct close to the thinking apparatus. Music, in its scientific sense, leads us into lines of physiology, psychology, æsthetics, embracing mathematics and their higher relation in philosophy. It all suggests that the physiological and psychological elements are so closely allied as to be each a part of an intelligence. Sense and intellect are closely akin. Goethe says that music is a higher revelation than either science or philosophy. I have refrained from quoting opinions of musicians in support of what has been said, but have aimed rather to supplement such an argument by the expressions of Carlyle, Helmholtz, and those who may not seem prejudiced to the laity in their testimony.

We know the brain is not the mind; we also believe the mind is that which relates to the soul, — the living, lasting, and divine part. Farther than the knowledge that the organ is not the mind, but the apparatus for its conveyance, we can scarcely go. We are not permitted to reason without a basis; but in and through it all is the great question of evolution, the history of a progression of steps; and by crumbs of experience, perhaps in time a progression of facts may be educed, which shall lead us toward the Infinite in all truth. So much to us is as yet unknowable, except in parts and relatively, of time and space and music and mind. But there is a hope, for life is growth, and growth is Mind.

LAURA HULL-MORRIS.

INDIANAPOLIS.

THE LITERARY WORLD

Arnold-Forster's Text-books on the history of *History of England* are numerous: there is perhaps none better than

Green's "Short History of the English People," which is at once the work of a scholar and of a thoughtful and accomplished writer. Highly as we esteem Green's well-known manual, we had not scanned many pages of the present work, by Mr. H. O. Arnold-Forster, M.P., ere we found that the book has positive merits and much to commend it to the general reader. True, it recapitulates the old familiar story in its leading lines and after the usual and well-known authorities. But it does so freshly, and with the quality of attractiveness; while it reserves for detailed description many episodes and even periods of the national annals which are essential parts of the history, and are too often treated drily or in an uninteresting and unenlivened manner. The author is not afraid of historical by-paths; nor is he too much impressed by the dignity of history, in treating of its occurrences, that he cannot make his narrative entrancing reading. The scope and fullness of the story are no less to be commended, while its arrangement and classification are, with the illustrations, happy features of the book. The sources drawn from, in many cases, are fresh and fertile, and the treatment throughout is sympathetic as well as popular. As a whole, the book deserves well at the hands of the reading community who are interested in the annals of the English nation. The author has written a clear, well-defined, and attractive narrative, and of pronounced value to those who have not access to the more ambitious histories, or to those that deal in detail with special periods of the national story. The character of the work is not unlike that of Charles Knight's history, which is still one of the best narratives of the social life as well as of the national annals of the English people. The volume is published by Messrs. Cassell & Company, Ltd., London and New York.

★

"Contemporary Spain" There is interest as well as novelty in the work which Miss Mary Wright Plummer has just compiled from the writings of recent Spanish novelists, with an introduction by Dr. Edward E. Hale. The book is entitled "Contemporary Spain as shown by her Novelists" (New York and London: Truslove, Hanson, & Combs), the design being to exhibit Spain and Spanish manners and customs as set forth in writers of fiction. The novelists drawn upon are chiefly Alarçon, Bazan, Galdós, Valera, and Valdés, and the extracts are grouped under Local

Description, Religion, Politics, Manners and Customs, and Society. Under the various classifications occur many delightful comments on the scenic beauties of the Spanish peninsula, as well as on the social, home, and religious life of the people. From the section dealing with Religion we cull the following from "Gloria," one of Galdós's best-known novels, as an example of the extracts of which the book is made up.

"The moral organism of Spain is as feeble as that of those sickly and hypersensitive beings who die poisoned by a mere baleful odor. . . . Spain, as I see her, cannot exist without sheltering herself within the lantern tower of Catholicism, for fear anything should touch or contaminate her, or any atom of external influence should reach her."

"And what do you prescribe for her?"

"Fresh air," said Morton vehemently; "open air, free exercise, under every wind that blows from above or below; freedom to be dragged and buffeted, helped or hindered, by all the forces that are abroad. Let her tear off her mendicant's hood, her grave-clothes and winding-sheet, and stand forth in the bracing storms of the century. Spain is like a man who is ill from sheer apprehension, and cannot stir for blisters, plasters, bandages, and wraps. Away with all this paraphernalia, and the body will recover its tone and vigor!"

✱

"Some Side Lights on American History" In this instructive little volume (New York: The Macmillan Co.) Prof. Henry W. Elson, M.A. recounts the story of the chief incidents in the national annals from the era of Independence to the history of political parties and the relation of the States to the nation just preceding the Civil War. The work is designed for popular use as well as a textbook in grammar schools. It deals with such episodes of growth and development in the country's career as the Framing of the Constitution and the Inauguration of Washington, the Alien and Sedition Laws, Fulton and the Steamboat, the Conspiracy of Aaron Burr, the Missouri Compromise, and the Monroe Doctrine, with later matters in the political and social life of the nation. The work is likely to excite interest in historical studies, and to assist the reader in getting readily at the heart of such subjects as the citizen ought to be familiar with.

★

"Source-Book of American History" Students of American annals who know the interesting series of volumes compiled by Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart, Professor of History in Harvard University, under the title of "American History Told by Contemporaries," will be prepared to understand, as well as to appreciate, the character of the little volume which he has edited for schools and readers under the

caption of "Source-Book of American History" (New York: The Macmillan Co.). The task with which Prof. Hart has here concerned himself is to compile and arrange extracts, from authoritative miscellaneous sources covering four centuries, from the period of the discovery of the New World, through the eras of early settlement and colonization, down through that of the Revolution and the founding of the national government to the era of the War of 1812, on to that of the Civil War, with its pendant questions; the whole closing with a group of extracts which deal with the recent war with Spain. The selections, which are mainly from private rather than from political sources, are of much value, as they throw great light upon the constitutional history as well as upon the social life of the successive eras covered by the book. The sources of the extracts, with accounts of the writers and the epochs illustrated, are given in the margins. The work will be found a most useful adjunct to the historical text-books. It moreover contains narratives not usually to be met with by the ordinary reader.

★

**The Standard
Intermediate
School Dic-
tionary**

We have previously commended in these pages the enterprise of the Funk & Wagnalls Co., of New York, in publishing their mammoth "Standard Dictionary" of the English language and the students' abridgment of the same, the latter under the editorship of Dr. James C. Fernald. From the same publishers, and under the same editorial supervision, we have here a further dilution of the material so laboriously gathered by eminent scholars for the monumental work—the "Standard Dictionary." The present book is designed for use in public schools below the academic grade, and supplies the pupil with the orthography, pronunciation, meaning, and etymology of about 38,000 words and phrases in the speech and literature of the English-speaking people. The volume is embellished with 800 illustrations. For general and handy reference it has not, of course, the value of the "Students' Standard Dictionary," the vocabulary of which is far more extensive; but for elementary school purposes it may be said to be ample, while it has many and obvious merits. For young pupils we are not sure that the system of diacritical marks which indicate the pronunciation is as intelligible as that of respelling the words phonetically, so as to enable the youth readily to understand the sounds and powers of the letters.

Like the larger compilations of the "Standard Dictionary," the present work handily groups under the stem word many of the inflected forms and phrases, and these are readily caught by the eye by means of black-letter type, and, moreover, are syllabified and accented for pronunciation. The work very commendably also gives the conservative spellings of words, as

well as the radical "Websterianisms," now happily going out of fashion. Fortunately the pupil will not find in the work authority for those mongrelisms in spelling which disfigure the publishers' announcement of the volume, such as *condensst*, *markt*, *tho*, *alfabet*, etc. If he looks for "programme," "theatre," "plough," and the spellings familiar to the historic literary student of the language, he will find them, though with them are ranged the spelling forms introduced by the lexicographer Webster, which to our mind desecrate the literature. In many cases the alternative pronunciations are given, though not in all and the necessary instances. We have on page 312 the two pronunciations, we note, of "obeisance"—only one of which, by the way, is in good English usage,—while on page 375 but one pronunciation is given of the word "recondite." Despite these and other shortcomings the work has obviously been carefully compiled and meets well the wants of those for whose use it has been designed.

★

**An Education-
ist's Memoirs** Among members of the educational profession in England there are few who in recent years have won greater fame than the Rev. R. H. Quick, author of an inspiring collection of "Essays on Educational Reformers." It was to Quick that Edward Thring—another of the great English lights of education in the present century—dedicated his well-known work on the "Theory and Practice of Teaching," in the following terms. Addressing his fellow laborer and master, Thring says of Quick:

"You are the only man I have met with who has not been a mere partisan in education, who has not looked at it through professional spectacles of more or less self-interest, and been a modernist, because that was his line, or a classicist, because that was his line; but has quietly looked and thought about what is best."

This estimate of the man is more than fully endorsed by Mr. F. Storr, in the "Life and Remains of R. H. Quick," which has just been issued by the University Press, of Cambridge, England, and in this country by The Macmillan Co., of New York. The work is delightful and instructive reading, not so much because of the biographical facts it gives of Quick's life and career, but for the extracts the volume contains, which throw light on the development of the great educationist's mind and character.

The "Life" proper constitutes only about a sixth of the volume; the remainder deals with gleanings from Quick's note-books, which refer to his experience in the various schools as a teacher, including his connection with Harrow, and sets forth the nature of his literary work as a pioneer in educational reform. The biographer has done his work with skill and judgment. Quick has in some quarters been regarded as a dreamer, but few men have done more than he in reforming abuses in educational systems and in inspiring men for their beneficent but arduous work.

G. M. A.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD

A WORD ON COLLEGE EDUCATION

THERE is a strange delusion prevailing that education consists of schooling. The idea is mediæval. Some centuries since, before the invention and distribution of printing, learning was confined to the very few, — to a certain class, and even in this class to a certain coterie. These were the learned men — the theologians, the classicists, the old masters of education, of whom Macchiavelli, Michelangelo, Galileo, and the Venerable Bede were types. Later, when books began to become in some sort common property, the great "seats of learning" arose, — Heidelberg, Salamanca, and the British universities. Their courses consisted of the studies of their founders and progenitors, followed out and amplified, or, in the lower branches, merely copied.

How far have we progressed since that day? We have gone this far — we begin to realize that erudition is only foundational, that it is ability which means success, and that education means, not accumulation, but growth; in brief, that real education is self-education. We are only beginning to realize this. We admit it theoretically; soon we will practise it. But we still send our coming engineers to seats of Latinity, and our architects, lawyers, merchants, controllers, managers, expanders, and innovators of the next generation cram Greek aorists and learn to read Xenophon with a dictionary, at the age of twenty, after four years of toil. Even the sons of immigrant laborers go to college in new clothes, while their wrinkled fathers carry on their ancestral trade in broken language.

All this is very well. It is an honor to America that the violent upward energy of our life provokes such inconsistencies. But the method is mediæval though the motive is fine. In this excellent eagerness for what we believe is education we adopt a prejudice and pursue a method ancestral, and therefore (let us dare to be progressive) out of place. Learning, in the school, college, and university sense, is excellent. It broadens a busy man's conceptions for the rest of his life, even though the facts of his studies fall away in the forgetfulness of hurry. But is this education, — this accumulation in the method of our ancestors? Is this the best education we can get in the time? Is the system of antiquity, reverend and established as it is, the best method for modernity? The knowledge of the world lies in its investigativeness, the civilization in its progressiveness (though certain æsthetic persons put the Golden Age in the Age of Stone). Let us even investigate our education.

(690)

First, let us put aside those collegians who study with the idea of pursuing and using their college course in after life, — the teachers, the professional educators (though a word might be said about them), and the men who embark in scientific careers to which special studies of their youth are the introduction. To all these the college course, if it have connection with their careers, is beneficial, expedient. But they are the minority. The average man, who is vastly in the majority, is, in this country, a business man in some sense or other. He manufactures, he trades, he finances, or he manages. The bulk of the professions range between the corner grocery and the financiers' offices. We are a nation of business men. We are other things also — but primarily we are business men.

Now take an average case. Suppose a well-to-do merchant, manufacturer, banker, financier, or railroad man, — say the head of a foundry. He has a son, to whom he will leave the business when he dies, and who is expected to succeed him. This boy is sent to school. When he reaches the age of nineteen, he studies for college, passes the examinations, and begins his four years' course. His father, the manufacturer, gives him an allowance, and he sits down to Horace. Freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, — four years pass. One spring afternoon he packs up his athletic medals, burns his Horace on the campus, and at twenty-three he leaves college. Thus at his second birth — the birth of his manhood, not of his childhood — he enters the world.

And what is he at this critical period, a period far more critical than that of his physical birth. He is almost always a good fellow, in spite of some degree of callow self-conceit. The world has not yet hardened him. Sometimes he is a brute, though the mere brutes are, after all, comparatively few. But above all he is young, — so young!

Let us look at his outfit for life. In the first place (I speak of the average), he has studied with no definite ambition. He has thought: "My business is to study my Horace, I will arrange my life when I enter it." Or, more probably, he has thought nothing of the subject. His father, the manufacturer, has perhaps mentioned it. But is not the boy busy at his studies? How has he time for other things? And as to those studies, surely the professors, whose business it is, know more about such matters than a man whose occupation has been the making of steel rails, and who has forgotten

what he learned in his college days, even if he should happen to be a college graduate.

So the son steps into the world, a man. In what? In trigonometry, calculus, Latin, or Greek? Can one be a man in these things? Yet what else is he? An athlete? Perhaps. That is well, but is he going to make that a career?

What else is he? Let us face it; he is a child and nothing else. So at the age of twenty-three he puts his foot on the first step and enters life to begin it. But there is coming to be too much competition in the world for this sort of thing to continue.

Even those who admit these observations usually adduce two benefits remaining from these four unapplicable years. These are, first, the habit of and ability to study; and second, friends. As to the first,—could not the boy as readily acquire that ability in the study of subjects applicable to the career of his after life? Must Greek teach him railroad-building, or Livy teach mining, trigonometry, or the management of millions? True, it would be a narrow training for the boy to confine himself, in his studies, to the boundaries of the requirements of his profession as a man. But would he never read or think except through the forced impetus of the college requirements? It is a low opinion of mankind, and one which facts do not justify.

But, even allowing that the boy would not study without the college, are there not some things more generally useful that he could be taught,—some more lasting knowledge than far mathematics and dead languages? Isolated as Americans are in a hemisphere where they have no rivals, they do not feel the need of live languages as do the European nations. But the need is already considerable. As communication and inter and outer relation grows more rapid, what is now a convenience will become a necessity. But our boys know no more German than they know Greek, in spite of the four years' mediævalism. Though English is a splendid speech, the ignorance of all others is a growing handicap.

Might not our boys be taught a little of the philosophy of history; of the simple scientific reasons of things; and of governments and how they are formed and how they work? And might they not be taught a little of the products and peoples and abilities of other countries—to say nothing of our own? Truly, do we not need a useful college as well as a classical one? These are things that every educated man should know. He need not know nine tenths of what our present colleges teach him. Their teachings fall from him because they are unapplicable teachings. If they were "fit" they would survive. By all means let us teach if that is the only way to make boys learn. But let us teach, not cram.

As to the second benefit of the college course, it is true that he makes friends. He also makes

associations. He makes good friends. He makes bad companions. It is a shocking fact—a fact so shocking that conservative people do not mention it, and professional optimists blind themselves to it—that the young man is also the young animal. It is the period of the brute, but happily for civilization most men grow out of it. The street has the "gang," the college has the "crowd," and we cannot expect the average boy to be lonely. The "crowd" is higher than the "gang," but it is more powerful; it is harder to drop it. A college class is a brood of chickens, and the odd chick is pecked.

A boy may make good friends, but he may also make bad ones. If he makes good ones, he has received a great benefit from his course (though there is no reason why he should not have made quite as good friends outside, especially if his parents are not merely his "parents"). If he makes bad friends he has received a detriment.

A word might be said about trade schools. But they are so apparently useful that commendation is a little trite. Such courses as University Extensions might also be mentioned, but comment would be superfluous for the same reason.

To generalize—anything that makes men work is beneficial. (And thinking is mental work.) But does the mediæval college make men work—that is, do? Or does it merely make them toil? Does it fill, not draw out? And with what does it fill? Is it possible that these four years of a man's youth are principally useless and therefore wasted? Is there no new thing?

It would be somewhat trite to mention the fact of the usual lack of schooling of those men who have left names famous in the annals of literature. Shakespeare's educational deficiencies are proverbial—but few people would call him an uneducated man. This is a word addressed to that vast class the average.

There is no reason why we should accept a thing that is good when we can get something better. To strive for the best is a duty to civilization.

Our present college courses are good, yet let us not be content, for content is stagnation. Only the restless move, and if our education halt it will either retard us or we will desert it. We need the great note of irreverence. Our educators should be innovators. They should be not only learned, but original. Surely nothing needs sensitiveness to the progress of the time more than our preparation for life.

Special courses and special schools are doing much, but there is still more to do. So long as the mental world continues to broaden and deepen there will be more to do. Individuality is the great characteristic of modernity. That which strengthens, raises, and realizes individuality is what the needs of the new man demand.

R. V. RISLEY.

NEW YORK.

YOUTHS' DEPARTMENT

THE LORD OF GREENWAY

OF THE noted men who lived during the American Revolution few, if any, left upon their respective localities a more lasting impress than did Thomas, sixth Lord Fairfax. The ancient Saxon house of which he was a scion has figured in the annals of England since the dawn of the thirteenth century, and boasts an unbroken line of "brave and stately men, of fair and virtuous women." The martial spirit, however, was not the only inheritance of its succeeding knights and nobles, for their gifts and accomplishments were many and of the highest order.

Foremost in the work of releasing the city of Rhodes from the thralldom of the infidel Turk rode Sir Nicholas Fairfax, knight of the Brotherhood of St. John. The learned Sir Guy Fairfax, of Steeton, Yorkshire, was Lord Chief Justice of England during the Wars of the Roses. Edward Fairfax, who died in 1632, produced the most poetical translation of Tasso's works yet given to the world. Sir Thomas Fairfax, of Denton, who received his knighthood for chivalrous conduct before Rouen, refused a title offered him, "for a consideration," by James I; but in 1627 he accepted one from Charles I, with the dignity of Lord Fairfax, Baron of Cameron in the Scottish peerage, the price being £1,500. He was the author of several books. His grandson, Thomas, the third lord, was the famous "Fighting Tom" of Yorkshire, who aided the cause of Parliament in the Revolution, but used all his influence against the execution of Charles I. "Fighting Tom" married "a Vere of the fighting Veres," and Lady Fairfax followed him through all his campaigns, accompanied by their daughter, who in 1657 became the wife of George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, the most gorgeous male butterfly of the court of Charles II. Her tired heart rests in the Chapel of Henry VII, Westminster Abbey.

"Fighting Tom" was succeeded by his cousin, Henry Fairfax, of Bolton Percy, whose son Thomas, fifth lord, for many years member of Parliament for York, "was zealous and active in placing William III on the throne." He married Catherine, daughter and heiress of Lord Colepepper. Her fortune comprised Leeds Castle, with several manors and estates in Kent and the Isle of Wight, and proprietary rights to the extent of more than 5,700,000 acres in the Northern Neck of Virginia. At his death in 1710, his eldest child—the subject of this sketch—was still in his minority. Lady Fair-

fax, always vain and extravagant, soon became seriously involved in financial difficulties; and, having heavily mortgaged her Kentish estates, undertook to release them by sacrificing a portion of the Fairfax property. To do this it was necessary to coerce the young lord, who, through lack of experience, easily became the victim of his imprudent mother and his unprincipled grandmother, the dowager Lady Colepepper. They sold Denton and other valuable portions of his inheritance, compelling him to cut off the entail and to accept for the property a sum little above the price of the timber which was cut from it. Thus passed from his hands property much of which had belonged to the Fairfaxes for fully five hundred years. With it went Nun-Appleton, which had succeeded Steeton as the principal seat of the family. This transaction was made possible only by threats of depriving the youthful heir of the vast and seemingly more valuable Colepepper estates. Thus robbed and injured in his early manhood by his natural and legal protectors, Fairfax learned to hate Leeds Castle, and it is said that he never forgave his mother and grandmother for the wrong they had done him.

After a brilliant career at Oxford he became, in the closing days of Queen Anne's reign, a marked figure at court. Of striking appearance, with a noble name, and a fortune popularly believed to be boundless, the inner social and intellectual circles received him with open arms. In him were combined the military and literary tastes of his family, for he was a commissioned officer in the crack regiment known as "The Blues," and contributed several papers to Addison's "Spectator." He was a cherished friend of Addison, Bolingbroke, and Sir Richard Steele. After a social career which brought him to years of discretion, he became betrothed to a lady of rank and beauty. The preparations for the wedding were well-nigh complete when he learned that his mother's extravagance had rendered him almost destitute of ready funds. He had already been informed that his property in the New World was depreciating from neglect. He determined to lead, with his narrowed means, the quiet life of an exemplary nobleman of the provinces, and expressed to his *fiancée* the hope that she would share it with him. She, however, ruthlessly jilted him—for a ducal coronet, it is said—though her identity is not known. Fully a century after this occurrence his marriage contract was found by a party of children playing in the attic of his

wilderness home. It had been drawn in England in the reign of George I, and was complete save for the signatures and seals. Its upper margin was cut in such a manner that the date and the name of the lady were both missing, and only the name of Thomas, sixth Lord Fairfax, remained to tell the sorrowful tale of ruined hopes and a blasted but by no means useless life.

Lord Fairfax paid his first visit to his New-World possessions in 1739. His cousin, Hon. William Fairfax, had already been settled for some years on the banks of the Potomac, and his beautiful home, Belvoir, was furnished with an elegance rarely seen at that period on this side of the Atlantic. This gentleman, royal collector of customs and President of the Council of Virginia, was the social leader in that section. His son-in-law, Lawrence Washington, was master of Mount Vernon, a few miles above. Leaving his affairs in the hands of his distinguished cousin, Lord Fairfax returned to England, relinquished his rights to Leeds Castle and all his other English possessions in favor of his brother Robert, sailed back to Virginia, and took up his residence at Belvoir. Despite his voluntary expatriation and celibacy, he was never morose, and never forgot the stately courtesy to women which then formed part of a gentleman's education. He had a tender feeling for youth, and was unfailingly kind to the shy, awkward, and almost penniless George Washington, who, as a friend of a son of the house, was a frequent guest at Belvoir.

Lord Fairfax took an active personal interest in his colonial possessions, which comprised about one fourth of the present area of Virginia; and when he paid his first visit to his outlying property he took with him as surveyors Messrs. George Washington and George William Fairfax. The wages received by these youths must have astonished them, for they were sometimes paid for their services a doubloon (nearly \$16), and sometimes six pistoles (about \$20), each per day. Eventually they reached the now far-famed valley of the Shenandoah, and, on the bank of the river called by the Indians "the daughter of the stars," the lonely lord decided to build for himself a manor-house in keeping with his wealth and rank. This plan was never carried out, and for thirty years Lord Fairfax was content with the building known as "Greenway Court," though originally he intended it as a residence for his steward. The commanding location, and the magnificent scenery afforded by the long line of the Blue Ridge Mountains, the beautiful river, the rich fields and deep forests, well bespoke the taste and wisdom of the lordly exile who, out of all the world, chose this spot—twelve miles from the present city of Winchester—for his home.

Greenway Court, now a ruin, was a long, low, rambling building. It had one story and an attic, massive outside chimneys, and stuc-

coed gables, into which small stones had been pressed before the mortar hardened. Its long shed-like porches ran the entire length of the building, and its sloping roof was surmounted by two wooden belfries, in which hung bells to sound an alarm in the event of an attack by hostile Indians. One of these bells was presented to the parish church, about a quarter of a century ago, by the present owner of Greenway. Below the belfries extended a line of dormer windows. The interior of the house was unique, the hallway and first-floor rooms being a few steps below the level of the porch. These rooms were spacious, with low ceilings, high mantels, and wide fireplaces, stoves being comparatively unknown at that period.

The rear porch looked out upon an open court surrounded by the houses of the domestics and retainers. At the far end stood the kitchen, connected with the mansion by a covered plankway fully fifty yards in length. The cellar contained numerous barrels of the best imported liquors. A small building a short distance from the house was used by the owner as an office, in which he signed deeds, gave quittances, and assisted in the work of adjusting boundary lines. He presided each day at a liberally spread board, always surrounded by squatters and Indians, and sometimes by a goodly number of the gentry of the neighborhood.

Lord Fairfax was a colonizer of the highest type, and it was never his purpose to be deprived of refined companionship. Many cavaliers from "The Tidewater" followed him to the valley of the Shenandoah, and to them he sold some of the choicest portions of his estate for only forty shillings an acre. These cavalier settlers were highly congenial to Fairfax, who sought to rear, in the colonial forest, a social order which should have all the graces and none of the heartlessness and worldliness of the court life with which he was never again to be identified. One of these purchasers was "King" Carter, to whom Fairfax conveyed 63,000 acres, now held by families who are all either descendants, or connections by marriage, of the grantee. Lord Fairfax's neighbors brought with them a firm adherence to the Church of England. They erected an unpretentious stone house of worship known as the "Old Chapel." The ruins of this wilderness-altar still stand, an impressive memorial of those who, a century and a half ago, knelt at its chancel-rail.

Fairfax soon became lord-lieutenant of his county. At this period he was fully six feet high, gaunt, raw-boned, and near-sighted, with iron-gray hair and a sharp, aquiline nose. Hunting was the great passion of his declining years, and to it he devoted all his leisure during the day, reserving his evenings for reading. He possessed a good library, containing the complete works of Shakespeare and Sir Walter Raleigh, as well as many volumes of the

"Spectator." He always retired early, sleeping on a couch in his hunting-lodge, surrounded by his dogs, guns, and other hunting equipments.

He kept open house from year's end to year's end, and frequently entertained Braddock and his attendant red-coats, one of whom had served his host five years as surveyor, and was destined later, by his military prowess, to break the old lord's heart. After Braddock's defeat the French and Indians put a high price on Fairfax's head, but he refused to leave Greenway and organized for defence a military company which he commanded. He inherited, in some respects, his mother's lax ideas with regard to money.

Archdeacon Burnaby, who visited him at Greenway, wrote:

"His dress corresponded with his mode of life, and, notwithstanding he had every year new suits of clothes of the most fashionable kind sent out to him from England, which he never put on, was plain in the extreme. His manners were humble, modest, and unaffected; not tinged in the smallest degree with arrogance and self-conceit."

The same authority cites Fairfax's unfailing generosity to the less prosperous planters and poor settlers in the neighborhood. It is also affirmed that he was given to filling the hats of beggars with guineas.

The story of his sudden illness on learning of the defeat of Cornwallis in October, 1781, is known to every schoolboy. It is said that he never left his couch after the receipt of the crushing news. Washington sent him gentle messages and letters of sympathy, from which the staunch old Tory, then ninety years of age, received little comfort. He died early in December, and was buried beneath the chancel of the episcopal church at Winchester. He was one of the first vestrymen of this church, which occupied land donated by him, and a tablet was affixed to its eastern wall to keep alive the

memory of his many virtues. One of his ablest biographers says:

"It is a fact to regret that his means and influence were never used in the cause which the greatest of his forefathers had championed, and in which they had won their chief renown. He never perceived that the colonies were entitled to the benefit of the Bill of Rights quite as much as England herself."

A few weeks after his death, the State of Virginia, by an act of its General Assembly, claimed the entire Northern Neck of Virginia, reciting that its proprietorship had descended upon an alien enemy. There were other claimants to various portions of the estate, among them Bryan Fairfax, son of William Fairfax, of Belvoir. These claims were carried from the Court of Appeals to the United States Supreme Court, and were finally settled under an act prepared by the celebrated John Marshall, and considered by the General Assembly of Virginia in 1796. Robert, seventh lord, died in 1793, and his nephew, Rev. Denny Martin, son of Denny Martin, Esq. and the Hon. Frances Fairfax, succeeded to the remnant of the Fairfax estate in England, assuming the family name. Rev. Bryan Fairfax, head of the Virginia branch of the house, and representative in its male line, went to England in 1800 and made good his succession before the House of Lords. His great-grandson, Dr. John Coutee Fairfax, a physician and farmer residing in Prince George County, Maryland, is eleventh Lord Fairfax and Baron of Cameron.

Greenway Court was devised to the Martin family, one of whose youthful representatives was with the old colonial lord when he died. It is still in the possession of their descendants, the present owner being Mr. Joseph Kennerly. He occupies a spacious modern brick mansion about fifty yards from the ruins of the old manor-house.

GABRIELLE MARIE JACOBS.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

WEIGHT OF A LION

ASK any acquaintance how much a lion weighs, and see what he will say. Those who know the look of the king of beasts best, and how small his lithe body really is, will probably come farthest from the truth. About 300 pounds to 350 pounds is the usual estimate. But this is below the mark. A full-grown lion will tip the scale at no less than 500 pounds. Five hundred and forty pounds is the record for an African lion. His bone is solid and heavy as ivory. The tiger runs the lion very close. A Bengal tiger, killed two years ago by an English officer, scaled 520 pounds. A tiger of this size has, however, considerably greater muscular strength than the biggest lion.

A BURYING-GROUND FOR DOGS

IN A corner of the ramparts of Edinburgh Castle, at its highest point, may be seen a tiny little burial-ground devoted to the remains of the deceased dogs of the soldiers who have occupied quarters in the castle from time to time for many years past. Some of the graves have neat headstones, recording their names, travels, regiment, and services; others are simple mounds, covered with flowers or colored patterns of pebbles and shells, the whole forming a touching sight, and teaching a great lesson—that the bravest men, as a rule, are the kindest. All branches of the service and all breeds are represented, from the Newfoundland of the Cameron Highlanders to the mongrel of the barrack laborer.

ROUND THE TABLE

SEA ETIQUETTE *

NOTHING is more loudly regretted by the praisers of old times than the gradual disappearance of etiquette under the stress and burden of these bustling days, and nowhere is the decay of etiquette more pronounced than at sea. Romance persists because until machinery can run itself humanity must do so, and where men and women live romance cannot die. But were it not for the navy, with its perfect discipline and unbroken traditions, etiquette at sea must without doubt perish entirely, and that soon. Such fragments of it as still survive in the merchant service are confined to sailing ships, those beautiful visions that are slowly disappearing one by one from off the face of the deep. Take, for instance, the beautiful custom, so full of meaning, of "saluting the deck." The poop or raised after-deck of a ship, over which floated the national flag, was considered to be always pervaded by the presence of the sovereign, and, as the worshipper of whatever rank removes his hat upon entering a church, so from the admiral to the powder-monkey every member of the ship's company, as he set foot upon the poop, "saluted the deck,"—the invisible presence. As the division between men-of-war and merchantmen widened, so the practice weakened in the latter; and only now survives in the rigidly enforced practice of every person below the rank of captain or mate coming up onto the poop by the lee side. And among the officers the practice is also observed according to rank, for with the captain on deck the chief mate takes the lee side. But since in steamers there is often no lee side, the custom in them has completely died out. To etiquette also belongs the strict observance of the rule in all vessels of tacking "Sir" onto every reply to an officer, or the accepted synonym for his position to a petty officer, as "Boss" for boatswain, "Chips" for carpenter, "Sails" for sailmaker, and "Doctor" for cook. A woful breach of etiquette is committed by the captain who, coming on deck while one of his mates is carrying out some manœuvre, takes upon himself to give orders direct to the men. It is seldom resented by junior officers for obvious reasons, but the chief mate would probably retire to another part of the vessel at once, with the remark that it was "only one man's work."

In many cases etiquette and discipline are so closely interwoven that it is hard to know where one leaves off and the other begins, but

in all such cases observance is strictly enforced as being one of the few remaining means whereby even a simulacrum of discipline is maintained in undermanned and oversparred sailing ships,—such as the repetition of every order given by the hearer, the careful avoidance of any interference by one man with another's work in the presence of an officer, and the preservation of each officer's rightful attitude toward those under his charge and his superiors. Thus, during the secular work of the day, work that is apart from handling the ship, the mate gives his orders to the boatswain, who sees them carried out. Serious friction always arises when during any operation the mate comes between the boatswain and his gang, unless, as sometimes happens, the boatswain be hopelessly incompetent.

In the private life of the ship every officers' berth is his house, sacred, inviolable, wherein none may enter without his invitation. And in a case of serious dereliction of duty or disqualification it becomes his prison. "Go to your room, sir," is a sentence generally equivalent to professional ruin, since a young officer's future lies in the hollow of his commander's hand. The saloon is free to officers only at meal times, not a common parlor wherein they may meet for chat and recreation, except in port with the captain ashore. And as it is "aft," so in its degree is it "farrard." In some ships the carpenter has a berth to himself, and a workshop besides, into which none may enter under pain of his instant wrath,—and "Chips" is not a man to be lightly offended. But in most cases all the petty officers berth together in an apartment called by courtesy the "half-deck," although it seldom resembles in a remote degree the dingy, foetid hole that originally bore that name. Very dignified are the petty officers, gravely conscious of their dignity, and sternly set upon the due maintenance of their rightful status as the backbone of the ship's company. Such a grave breach of etiquette as an "A.B." entering their quarters, with or without invitation, is seldom heard of, and quite as infrequent are the occasions when an officer does so. In large ships, where six or seven apprentices are carried, an apartment in a house on deck is set apart for their sole occupation, and the general characteristic of such an abode is chaos,—unless, indeed, there should be a senior apprentice of sufficient stability to preserve order, which there seldom is. These

* Condensed from the London "Spectator."

"boys' houses" are bad places for a youngster fresh from school, unless a conscientious captain or chief mate should happen to be at the head of affairs and make it his business to give an eye to the youngsters' proceedings when off duty. Of course etiquette may be looked for in vain here unless it be the etiquette of "fagging" in its worst sense.

The men's quarters, always called the fore-castle, even when a more humane shipowner than usual has relegated the fore-castle proper to its rightful use as lockers for non-perishable stores, and lodged his men in a house on deck, are always divided longitudinally in half. The port or mate's watch lives on the port side, the starboard or second mate's watch on the starboard side. To this rule there is no exception. And here we have etiquette *in excelsis*. Although the barrier between the two sides is usually of the flimsiest, and often quite imaginary, in effect it is a wall of separation with gates guarded and barred. The visitor from one side to the other, whatever his excuse, approaches humbly, feeling ill at ease until made welcome. And from dock to dock it is an unheard-of thing for any officer save the captain to so much as *look* into the fore-castle. Of course, exceptional circumstances do arise, such as a general outbreak of recalcitrancy, but the occasion must be abnormal for such a breach of etiquette to be made. Some captains very wisely make it their duty to go the round of the ship each morning, seeing that everything is as it should be, and these enter the fore-castle as a part of their examination. But this is quite the exception to the general rule, and is always felt to be more or less of an infringement of immemorial right.

In what must be called the social life of the fore-castle, although it is commonly marked by an utter absence of social observances, there are several well-defined rules of etiquette which persist in spite of all other changes. One must not lock his chest at sea. As soon as the last landsman has left the ship, unlock the "donkey," throw the key ostentatiously into the till, and, letting the lid fall, seat yourself upon it, and light your pipe. It is a Masonic sign of good-fellowship, known and read of all men, that you are a "Sou' Spainer" indeed, at home again. The first time that the newly assembled crew sit down gipsy fashion to a meal (for tables are seldom supplied), there may be one, usually a boy, who fails to remove his cap. Then does the nearest man's hand seek the "bread-barge" for a whole biscuit, generally of tile-like texture and consistency. Grasping it

by spreading his fingers all over its circumference, the mentor brings it down crushingly upon the covered head of the offender, who is thus initiated, as it were, to the fact that he must "show respect to his grub," as the term goes. But often when the commons have been exceptionally short or bad an old seaman will deliberately put on his cap again, with the remark, "'Tain't wuth it." If a man wants to smoke while a meal is in progress, let him go outside unless he desires deliberately to raise a storm. And when on the first day of serving out stores a man has been induced to undertake the onerous duty of dividing to each one his weekly portion,— "whacking out,"—gross indeed must be his carelessness or unfairness before any sufferer will raise a protest. It used to be the practice to load the boys or ordinary seamen (the latter a grade between "A.B." and boy) with all the menial service of the fore-castle, such as food-fetching, washing up utensils, scrubbing, etc. But a juster and wiser plan has been borrowed from the navy, whereby each man takes in rotation a week as "cook of the mess." He cooks nothing,—the "Doctor" will take care of that; but he is the servant of his house for that week, responsible for its due order and cleanliness. The boys are usually kept out of the fore-castle altogether, and berthed with the petty officers, a plan which with some advantages has grave drawbacks.

One curious old custom deserves passing notice. Upon the arrival of a vessel in a port where it is necessary to anchor, it is usual to set what is called an "anchor-watch" the first night. All hands take part in this for one hour each, or should do so, but sometimes there are too few and sometimes too many. As soon as the order is given to "pick for anchor-watch" an old hand draws a rude circle on the deck, which he subdivides into as many sections as there are men. Then one man retires, while all the rest come forward, and each man makes his private mark in a section. When all have contributed, the excluded one (whose mark has been made for him by deputy) is called in and solemnly rubs out mark after mark, the first to be rubbed out designating its owner for the first hour's watch, and so on.

Nothing has been said about etiquette in the navy, because there it is hardly ever to be distinguished from disciplinary rule. Nor has allusion been more than casually made to steamships, whose routine excludes etiquette, having no more room for it than it has for seamanship, except upon rare occasions.



ADVERTISEMENTS



The Secret's Out!

I've heard it said, and heard it read,
That put to any test,
Of all the mites a woman writes,
Her "P.S." is the best.
Though why the best, none ever
guess'd,

Nor saw a secret there,
Until a maid in mischief laid
The women's secret bare—

That P.S. means

✍ Pears' Soap



ADVERTISEMENTS

CONTENTS VOLUME VIII, 1898-99

SEPTEMBER

Some Portraits of the Late Prince Bismarck (Illus.) *The Editor.*
 Prosperity: Present and Future *C. Wood Davis.*
 An English Journal on the President.
 The American Volunteer and His Achievements *Joseph M. Rogers.*
 The Klondike and Alaskan Gold-Fields (Illus.) *The Editor.*
 Israel and the Monuments of the Nile (Illus.) *Prof. J. H. Breasted, Ph. D.*
 The Late Georg Ebers, Egyptologist.
 The Anglo-American Situation: From an American Standpoint *Henry Davies, Ph. D.*
 Guatemala: A Central American Republic of To-Day *D. O. Kellogg.*
 In the Home or Far Afield: A Conservative View of the Woman Question *J. E. Turner.*
 School or Business? *H. C. Hubbard, D.D.*
 Legal Self-Training: How to Become a Lawyer *Geo. Styles.*
 Henry David Thoreau, Naturalist (with Portrait) *Ennise V. Pennywilt.*
 Characteristics of R. L. Stevenson (with Portrait) *J. H. MacCulloch.*
 Dante and His Age: I—His Life and Times (with Portrait) *Prof. Wm. Clark.*
 Our Nation's Moral Responsibility *Edgar L. Vincent.*
 The World and Its Doings—Editorial Comment.
 Nine Departments.

OCTOBER

Socialism in the Price Question *Prof. J. L. Laughlin, Ph. D.*
 Life in Honolulu (Illus.) *Mabel Loomis Todd.*
 On Reading the Past and the Future.
 An Eminent Presbyterian Divine *The Editor.*
 The Issues of the Spanish-American War *Henry Davies, Ph. D.*
 England and the Spanish-American War *Chas. J. Harcourt.*
 A Literary Portrait—Col. T. W. Higginson (Portrait) *John Livingston Wright.*
 An Ideal Girl: Shakespeare's "Miranda" (Illus.) *Mary F. Cardwell.*
 Who are the English? America's Interest in the Parent Stock *Prof. C. W. Alvord.*
 How Our Wars Have Ended *Joseph M. Rogers.*
 The Study of the Future in the Light of the Past and Present *H. W. Boyd Mackay.*
 The Philippines and Their Prospects (Map and Illus.) *D. O. Kellogg, D. D.*
 Keep Thinking *Austin Bierbower.*
 Browning's Theory of Poetic Art (Portrait) *Mabel McL. Helliwell.*
 The Author of "Quo Vadis"—H. Sienkiewicz (Portrait) *Ellen A. Vinton.*
 The World and Its Doings: Editorial Comment.
 Chronicle of the Month.
 Correspondence: Inquiries Answered *The Editor.*
 Nine Departments.

NOVEMBER

The Omaha Exposition (Illus.) *Irene C. Byrne.*
 Henry George: A Reply *Thomas G. Shearman.*
 Spain's New World Colonies *M. B. Jordan.*
 President McKinley at Omaha *The Editor.*
 Holland's Place in Europe.
 Magna Charta: American Interest in Its Rights and Safeguards *Rear-Admiral F. A. Roe, U. S. N.*
 The United States and the Far Eastern Question *Francis B. White.*
 The "Reign of Terror," as Depicted in Veracious Contemporary Documents *T. Arnold Haultain.*
 Thanksgiving Day *Sara D. Swift.*
 The Americanization of Europe *Calvin Dill Wilson.*
 The Warren Hastings Controversy: Macaulay's Famous Essay Discredited (Portrait) *The Editor.*
 The Bible as Literature *F. C. H.*
 A War-Correspondent's Notes on Porto Rico (Illus.) *P. Lyle Weaver.*
 Sociological Light on the Hilltop: The George "Industrial Camp" and "Junior Republic" (Illus.) *Geo. L. Crittenden.*
 Mrs. Ward's "Helbeck of Bannisdale" (Portrait) *E. A. Vinton.*
 National Beverages *Arthur Inkersley.*
 The Art of Literary Style *G. H. Diebold.*
 The Foundations of Chemical Synthesis *Prof. H. C. Simpson.*
 Dante and His Age. II—Minor Works *Prof. Wm. Clark.*
 The World and Its Doings: Editorial Comment.
 Chronicle of the Month.
 Correspondence: Inquiries Answered *The Editor.*
 Nine Departments.

DECEMBER

The Seamy Side of Empire *Goldwin Smith.*
 Imperial Pilgrims to the Holy City (Illus.) *James S. Dennis, D. D.*
 Books and Politics: An Address *Pres. D. C. Gilman.*
 Book-Cover Designing and Decoration (Illus.) *W. G. Bowdoin.*
 Henry George: A Rejoinder *Arthur H. Holmes.*
 The Quebec Conference *John N. Blake.*
 What the Late Elections Mean *John DeWitt Warner.*
 The Stay-at-Home Voter *Edgar L. Vincent.*
 The Influence of War on Literature *Carina B. C. Eaglesfield.*
 Should Language Development be Controlled? *Pres. T. J. Allen.*
 The Strength of Constitutions *R. C. Macbail, M. D.*
 The Nation's New Departure *H. C. Belin.*
 Progressive Taxation in the United States *V. S. Yarros.*
 Pasteboard Majesties and Other Dignitaries *Amelia Wofford.*
 Mr. Howells and Some of His Novels (Portrait) *Adele M. Garrigues.*
 The Flower of the Navy (Portraits) *Minna Irving.*
 Pre-Raphaelitism in England (Illus.) *Irene C. Byrne.*
 Christian Science Arraigned.
 The World and Its Doings: Editorial Comment.
 Chronicle of the Month.
 Correspondence: Inquiries Answered.
 Nine Departments.

JANUARY

Canada's Political Development and Her Relations with the United States *Sir J. G. Bourinot.*
 The Six Days' Battle of the Farragut Fleet and the Capture of New Orleans (Portrait) *Rear-Admiral F. A. Roe, U. S. N.*
 The United States Naval Museum of Hygiene (Illus.) *J. E. Price.*
 Decline of American Sectional and Anti-British Feeling *Joseph M. Rogers.*
 Shakespeare's Knowledge of Spanish *Fanny Hale Gardiner.*
 Between the Covers of the "Postal Guide"—I. *Lora S. La Mance.*
 Victorian Thought and Thinkers: I.—The New Spirit of the Age *Eugene Parsons.*
 Portraiture and Creation *Lenora Bock Ellis.*
 The Janizaries—Who Were They? *Frank H. Mark.*
 Latest Developments of German Imperial Politics *Prof. P. S. Reinsch, Ph. D.*
 The Character of Benjamin Franklin (Portrait) *Prof. C. K. Edmunds.*
 The Wane of Legislative Dignity *D. Allen Willey.*
 Health Culture as Part of Self Culture *Oscar Hersberg.*
 Twelfth Night *Emma Seavers Jones.*
 The Passing of Old Mexico (Illus.) *Mark Lee Luther.*
 The Exhibition of American Paintings in Chicago. *Sherwin Cody.*
 The Rise of the Middle West
 Statesmanship and Literature.
 The World and Its Doings: Editorial Comment.
 Chronicle of the Month.
 Correspondence: Inquiries Answered *The Editor.*
 Nine Departments.

FEBRUARY

Washington (Portrait) *Pres. H. W. Rogers, LL.D.*
 Lincoln: Suggestions from His Life (Portrait) *Prof. F. W. Shepardson.*
 Columbia University (Illus.) *Prof. Geo. R. Carpenter.*
 Commissions on the Tariff and Money *Prof. J. L. Laughlin, Ph. D.*
 Desultory Reading.
 A Glance at Heidelberg, Past and Present (Illus.) *Anna L. Wetmore Smith.*
 The Tsar and Universal Peace *Henry Davies, Ph. D.*
 Statistics and Popular Education *Hon. Carroll D. Wright.*
 Matthew Arnold's "Anglicism" (Portrait) *T. Arnold Haultain.*
 Portugal's Place in Europe *S. G. W. Benjamin.*
 The New England Town Meeting *Prof. Lewis A. Rhodes.*
 Sudermann and His Recent Work (Portrait) *Prof. R. Clyde Ford.*
 Washington and the Ohio *Adele E. Thompson.*
 Jewish Charities in the United States (Illus.) *C. S. Bernheimer, Ph. D.*
 Devil's Island—Dreyfus's Prison *Prof. G. D. Fairfield.*
 The World and Its Doings: Editorial Comment.
 Chronicle of the Month.
 Correspondence: Inquiries Answered *The Editor.*
 Nine Departments.
 Index to Volume VIII.

SELF CULTURE MAGAZINE

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

ADVERTISEMENTS

"A most valuable book for women."
DR. AGNEW.

Approaching Maternity

BY

JOHN ROSS PANCOAST, M.D.

A great physician's experienced advice for this trying time. *No wife should be without it.* Sent by mail securely wrapped for **ONE DOLLAR.**

Indorsed by Dr. Agnew.
Named by Bishop Phillips Brooks.
Written by Dr. Pancoast.

FOR

EVERY

WOMAN

The Pancoast Company,

640 Bourse.

Philadelphia, Pa.

THE NATURAL BODY BRACE

CURES AILMENTS PECULIAR TO WOMEN
COSTS YOU NOTHING TO TRY IT.

WORN WITH OR WITHOUT CORSET.
Endorsed by Every Physician Who Has Used It.

BE COMFORTABLE
BE HEALTHY AND STRONG
BE MORE ATTRACTIVE
WORK AND WALK WITH EASE

All this is within your reach. Our Brace will do the work. Let us tell you how in our illustrated book mailed free in plain sealed envelope, with letters from delighted customers. Write for it to-day.

The following letter is one of many thousands:

Curtis, Miss., Sept. 1, 1898. "The Brace I purchased of you two years ago did all that you claimed for it. It cured me of the worst forms of female weakness—falling womb, ovarian troubles, headache, bearing down pains, constipation, inflammation and other things of 20 years' standing. I can never say enough in praise of the dear old Brace, since it has cured me after spending hundreds of dollars for medicine and doctors' bills."

Mrs. Susie Woodard.

MONEY REFUNDED IF BRACE IS NOT SATISFACTORY.
Address THE NATURAL BODY BRACE CO., BOX 561, Salina, Kansas.
Every woman anticipating motherhood should have this Brace.

SIMPLE IN CONSTRUCTION — COMFORTABLE — ADJUSTABLE TO ANY FIGURE.

PLAYS Dialogues, Speakers for School, Club and Parlor. Catalogue free.
T. S. DENISON, Publisher, Chicago, Ill.

UNITARIAN LITERATURE FREE.

Address Miss VAUGHN, 133 Bridgman St., Providence, R. I.

SEND NO MONEY.

to examination. You can examine it at your nearest freight depot, exactly as represented, equal to machines others sell as high as \$50.00, and THE GREATEST BARGAIN YOU EVER HEARD OF, pay your freight agent OUR Special Offer **\$15.50** and freight charges. The machine weighs 120 pounds and the Price freight will average 75 cents for each 500 miles. **GIVE IT THREE MONTHS' TRIAL** in your own home, and we will return your \$15.50 any day you are not satisfied. We sell different makes and grades of Sewing Machines at \$8.50, \$10.00, \$11.00, \$12.50 and up, all of which are fully described in Our Free Sewing Machine Catalogue, but **\$15.50** for this **SEVEN-DRAWER BURDICK** is the greatest value ever offered by any house.

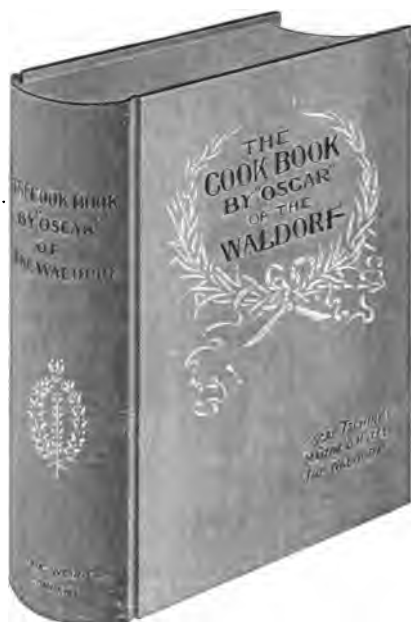
THE BURDICK has every modern improvement, every good point of none. Made by the best maker in America. **SOLID OAK CABINET, BEST COVER.** Latest 1899 Skeleton frame, piano polish, finest nickel drawer pulls, rests on casters, ball bearing adjustable treadle, genuine Smyth iron stand, finest large high arm head made, positive four-motion feed, self-threading vibrating shuttle, automatic bobbin winder, adjustable bearings, patent tension liberator, improved loose wheel, adjustable presser foot, improved shuttle carrier, patent needle bar, patent dress guard. **GUARANTEED** the lightest running, most durable and sweetest-noiseless machine made. Every known attachment is furnished and our Free Instruction Book tells just how anyone can run it and do either plain or any kind of fancy work. **A TWENTY-YEAR GUARANTEE IS SENT WITH EVERY MACHINE.** **IT COSTS YOU NOTHING** to see and examine this machine, compare it with those your storekeeper sells at \$40.00 to \$50.00, and then if convinced you are saving \$20.00 to \$35.00, pay your freight agent the \$15.50, **WE TO RETURN YOUR \$15.50** if at any time within three months you say you are not satisfied. **ORDER TO-DAY. DON'T DELAY.**

WRITE FOR FREE CATALOGUE. Address,
SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.), Chicago.
(Sears, Roebuck & Co. are thoroughly reliable.—Editor.)



Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

THE WALDORF COOK BOOK



By "OSCAR" of the Waldorf, Maitre d' Hotel of the Waldorf and Astoria, who is acknowledged to be one of the foremost culinary authorities of the world.



The Most Thorough
and Complete Treatise on

PRACTICAL COOKERY



Elaborate directions are given for making Ices, Ice-Creams, Pastries, and Tea and Coffee. Original and varied recipes are found herein for making Toothsome Confections, Preserves, Jams, Pickles, and other Condiments. Selections may be made to satisfy any taste

Description

OVER 900 pages of valuable information indispensable to families, hotels, cafes, and boarding houses. Wholesome, palatable, economic, and systematic cooking. Everything used as food is fully considered.

Nearly 4,000 recipes, which makes this the best and most comprehensive Cook Book ever compiled. Special features, such as suggestions in regard to the kitchen, menus, bills of fare, the seasons, market, etc., etc.

Size 8 x 10 1/4 x 2 3/4 inches.

Bound in one large octavo volume of over 900 pages, in handsome oilcloth, stamped in ink.



PRICE, \$2.50

What the Press Says

The Daily Inter-Ocean: It might appropriately have been named "The Wedding Gift Cook Book," for it would be a royal gift to every woman entering upon the new duty of building a home. The author explains everything so simply and clearly that any amateur can select from the many dishes the few she may require. The instructions of the book are well-nigh exhaustive upon the subject of cooking.

Boston Transcript: A great Cook Book. There is apparently no end to the making of cook books. The largest, and we presume, from the authorship, one of the most important issues in this line of literature, is the "Cook Book by Oscar of the Waldorf," Oscar being Oscar Tschirky, maitre d'hotel of the most aristocratic hotel in New York. There is hardly anything in the whole domain of cookery that is not touched upon.

The Times, Philadelphia: It is one of the most comprehensive volumes of its kind ever offered for the aid of those desirous of preparing either a small dainty home dinner or the most elaborate reception menu.

Boston Daily Globe: It is one of the neatest books of its kind ever placed on the market.

St. Louis Republic: "Oscar," the cook of the Waldorf, has written a book that is a Cook Book.

The Inquirer, Cincinnati, O.: The subject has been covered with so much care and thoroughness that it sets aside all other cook books.

THE WERNER COMPANY, PUBLISHERS

NEW YORK

AKRON, OHIO

CHICAGO

ADVERTISEMENTS

COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS

Illinois, Aurora.
AURORA COLLEGE, CORRESPONDENCE DEPT.,
 offers courses in Law, Journalism, Education, Short-
 hand, Bookkeeping, etc. Send for a copy of MODERN
 EDUCATION.
THOMAS J. ALLEN, Pres.

Illinois, Chicago.
**PRIVATE LESSONS AND CLASSES FOR NEGL-
 ECTED EDUCATION.** Ladies coached. Grammar, Con-
 versation, Angular Writing. Special topics. 12th
 year.
MRS. WYNNE, Athenaeum.
 Room 728, 26 Van Buren St.

Michigan, Ann Arbor.
**UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, DEPARTMENT OF
 ENGINEERING.**
 High School course required for entrance. Civil,
 Mechanical, Electrical, and Chemical Engineering.
 Technical work taught by experienced engineers. Work-
 shops and all laboratories. For announcements, etc.,
 address
CHAS. E. GREENE, Dean.

Pennsylvania, Williamsport.
POTTS SHORTHAND COLLEGE.
 MAIL and PERSONAL instruction. *Pioneer Home Course* in
 stenography. Catalogue and first lesson FREE. Write JNO.
 G. HENDERSON, Principal and Proprietor.

Law
 THE
Keynote
 to
Success
 Study law by correspondence and
 thus choose your own time and
 place for study. Same course as
 resident schools with additional
 advantage of individual instruction.
 One student writes: "Have
 learned more law in three weeks
 under your instruction than I
 learned in four months in a law
 office."
 Seventh year. Send for catalog.
Chicago Correspondence School of Law.
 623 Reaper Block Chicago.



**THE
 ART
 OF MEMORY**
 The Crowning System of Memory Culture!
 Highest endorsements! **WRITE US.**
NATIONAL PUBLISH'G CO., St. Paul, Minn.

SHORTHAND BY MAIL.

Study at HOME. Prepare for salaried position
 Steno's and Teachers always in demand. Thorough
 Mail instruction. Students in every State
 System endorsed by U.S. Govt. Guaranteed success.
 Particulars and Trial Lesson FREE. Write to-day.
SAUSSER'S SCHOOL OF SHORTHAND.
 Dept. F, Sausser Bldg., Tyrone, Pa.

**We Teach Your Mind!
 You Teach Your Fingers!**

MUSIC TAUGHT BY MAIL

All branches of Music taught by mail.
 Save money and get superior instructions.
 Write for particulars.

Chicago Correspondence School of Music,
 110 LaSalle Street, Chicago.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

LAWRENCE SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

DEPARTMENTS.

Civil Engineering.	Chemistry.
Mechanical Engineering.	Geology.
Electrical Engineering.	Biology.
Mining and Metallurgy.	General Science.
Architecture.	For Teachers of Science.
Anatomy and Physiology (as a preparation for Medical Schools).	

For Descriptive Pamphlet apply to

M. CHAMBERLAIN, Secretary.
N. S. SHALER, Dean. Cambridge, Mass.

HOMESTUDY
 of Book-keeping,
 Penmanship,
 Business Forms, etc.,
 and our instruction BY MAIL,
 opens for young men and women
 positions of trust and responsibility at good salaries.
 The kind of knowledge that pays is the best for any
 young man or woman. We also teach Shorthand, Let-
 ter Writing, etc. BY MAIL. It is at once the most
 pleasant and inexpensive method of securing a practical
 business education. Trial lesson 10 cents. A fine Cat-
 alogue free. Address,

BRYANT & STRATTON COLLEGE,
 NO. A-60 COLLEGE BLDG.,
 BUFFALO, N. Y.

TEACHERS WANTED

Union Teachers' Agencies of America.
 Rev. L. D. Bam, D.D., Manager

PITTSBURG	TORONTO
NEW ORLEANS	NEW YORK
WASHINGTON	SAN FRANCISCO
CHICAGO	ST. LOUIS
and DENVER	

We had over 8,000 vacancies during the past
 season. Teachers needed now to contract for
 next year. Unqualified facilities for placing
 teachers in every part of the U. S. and Canada.
 Principals, Superintendents, Assistants, Grade
 Teachers, Public, Private, Art, Music, etc.,
 wanted. More vacancies than teachers.

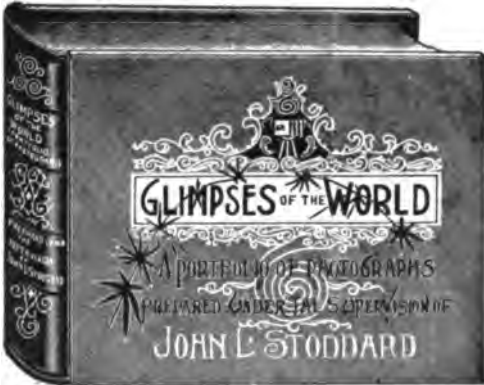
Address all Applications to Washington, D. C.

**MASTERY
 OF
 MEMORIZING**
 \$1.00 POSTPAID
 MEMORY BOOKLET FREE
MEMORY LIBRARY Box 1202 NEW YORK.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

IMPORTANT ANNOUNCEMENT

By special arrangement with the publishers, we are able to offer to any of our readers who may be willing to interest themselves in the introduction of SELF CULTURE among their friends, two most timely and beautiful books in return for such work.



Size 14x11 inches. 550 pages. Fine enameled paper.

We will forward this book, carriage prepaid, to any one sending us (5) five dollars for five subscriptions to SELF CULTURE for one year.

Publishers' price, \$4.50.

This great work embraces the finest and most elaborate collection of photographic views ever published. The volume contains grand panoramic views of famous cities, scenes of great events in the world's history, castles, cathedrals, paintings, statuary, etc., etc. The size of the picture on each page is 8x10 inches. Under each photograph is a graphic description of the scene or event presented, by the most famous traveler and lecturer of modern times, Mr. John L. Stoddard. Only one side of a page is printed upon, thus securing the most superb effects. The binding is a handsome and durable buckram.

No more interesting and instructive book has ever been published. Hours can be passed most pleasantly and instructively in looking over its pages and reading Mr. Stoddard's descriptions, which are vastly entertaining, and packed full of information. The book is especially valuable and helpful for students in history and geography, as in no other way can so many illustrations of places, historical events, and customs and dress of different peoples, be secured.

JOHN SHERMAN'S RECOLLECTIONS OF FORTY YEARS IN THE HOUSE, SENATE, AND CABINET

This great work, upon which Mr. Sherman was engaged for several of the best years of his life, presents a clear review of the political and financial history of the United States during his career as Representative, Senator, Secretary of the Treasury, etc. The period covered is the most important in the history of the United States. The distinguished writer's comments upon the leading men and movements of his time are most interesting and valuable.

The work is issued in two royal octavo volumes, bound in cloth, containing over 1,200 pages, finely and clearly printed on extra paper, and is fully illustrated with pictures of all the leading statesmen of the last forty years.

The publishers' price for the two volumes is \$7.50.



We will forward these volumes, carriage prepaid, to any one sending us (8) eight dollars for eight subscriptions to SELF CULTURE for one year.

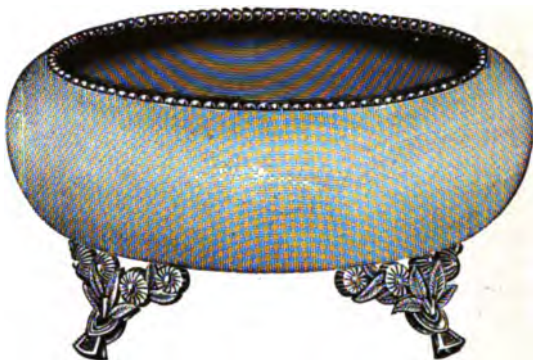
We would thank any one who can give special attention to the work of securing subscribers to SELF CULTURE, and will push the work energetically, to write us at once for the special terms we are offering on such work for the next three months. Most liberal cash commissions and attractive inducements.

SELF CULTURE MAGAZINE, AKRON, OHIO

ADVERTISEMENTS

WE have also made an unprecedented arrangement with one of the largest manufacturers of silverware in the country, by which we can make the following unparalleled offer to those who will interest their friends in SELF CULTURE. We believe these propositions are more liberal than those made by any other publishers.

To anyone sending us one new subscription, with one dollar, we will send this beautiful Bonbonniere. It is three inches in height and six inches across the top, and presents an elegant appearance. It is made of pure, hard white metal, is quadruple plated with finest silver, and the inside is lined with 24-carat gold. Its finish is perfect, and the design of the latest pattern. The manufacturer's guarantee accompanies each article.



This superb Ice-Water Pitcher is 12 inches high, and 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches in width — a full-sized pitcher. It is made of hard white metal, quadruple plated with finest silver, hand engraved and burnished, satin finished, and is of the latest (1899) pattern. The manufacturer's guarantee as to quality will accompany each pitcher. These pitchers regularly retail at \$7.00 each. We will send one to any person sending us five new subscribers with (\$5.00) five dollars. Under this offer any of our subscribers may include a renewal of their subscription for another year, sending four additional new subscribers.

Both these premiums will be sent FREE OF EXPENSE. Please notice that these two propositions can remain open only until May 1st, and as the number of pieces we have been able to secure is comparatively limited, we would advise all who wish to take advantage of these liberal offers to send in their subscriptions AT ONCE.

SELF CULTURE MAGAZINE, AKRON, OHIO

HEADACHE

Horsford's Acid Phosphate

by its action in promoting digestion and as a nerve food, prevents and alleviates headache arising from a disordered stomach, or that of nervous origin.

The best remedy for **insomnia** and **dyspepsia**.

Pleasant to take.

For sale by all Druggists.

IT COOKS IN A SINGLE MINUTE

Wheatena

The Best
Breakfast Food

DELICIOUS
NOURISHING
DIGESTIBLE

Samples of **Entona**, the great remedy for all intestinal inactivity in baby or adult, mailed free on application. Of **Entona**, Dr. W.M. TOD HELMUTH, the eminent Surgeon, says: "It is the best remedy for Constipation that I have ever prescribed." Dr. J. MONTFORT SCHLEY, Professor Physical Diagnosis Women's Medical College, writes: "I prescribe **Entona** for Constipation almost daily in my practice and am astonished at the permanent results obtained."

Health Food Co.

61 Fifth Avenue, New York
1013 Arch Street, Philadelphia
199 Tremont Street, Boston
1601 Wabash Avenue, Chicago



SAPOLIO

**DOUBLES
THE JOY
IN**

HOUSE-WORK

ADVERTISEMENTS



Soups That Suit
both palate and pocket are

Van Camp's
Concentrated **SOUPS**

Mock Turtle, Bouillon, Chicken, Ox Tail, Vegetable, Tomato.

A TEN-CENT can diluted with water makes sufficient to serve six people. It is solid, CONCENTRATED Soup. You do the diluting as you heat it. That's the cheapest, most satisfactory way. Sample can and booklet about our products sent all who enclose six cents in stamps.

VAN CAMP PACKING CO., 354 Kentucky Ave., Indianapolis, Ind.
"INSTANTLY AND DELICIOUSLY AT YOUR SERVICE."

Van Camp's Macaroni and Cheese, prepared with tomato sauce, is an inexpensive table luxury that's "so nice for a change." Sample can for six cents.



Syrup of Figs

DELIGHTFUL LIQUID LAXATIVE
TO GET ITS BENEFICIAL EFFECTS
BUY THE GENUINE.

MANUFACTURED BY
CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP CO.
SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

FOR SALE BY ALL DRUGGISTS.
PRICE, 50¢ PER BOTTLE.

LOUISVILLE, KY.
NEW YORK, N.Y.
U.S.A.
LONDON, ENG.

ADVERTISEMENTS



VOICE
IMPROVED

LUNGS
ENLARGED

THROAT
CURED

Singers, Speakers, Elocutionists, School Teachers, Clergymen, Lecturers, Readers, Talkers.

ADIRONDACK BALSAM

Breathed thro' our little tube (see that cut), the most powerful help to Voice Users. Five minutes each morning Trains the Voice. Enlarges the Lungs—Gives Plump Chest, Cures all Throat and Lung Troubles. Colds stopped quickly. Outfit, sixty cents. Pamphlet of fine Breathing and Voice Exercises. Outfit has Breathing Tube, bottle of Adirondack Balsam, Pipette, Medicated Absorbent, Pamphlet of Exercises and Instruction. Send sixty cents. Circulars? Yes.

ADIRONDACK BALSAM CO.

121 West 42d Street, New York.

A Skin of Beauty is a Joy Forever.

DR. T. FELIX GOURAUD'S

ORIENTAL CREAM, or MAGICAL BEAUTIFIER,

PURIFIES
AS WELL AS
BEAUTIFIES the Skin
No other cosmetic
will do it.



Removes Tan, Pimples, Freckles, Moth-patches, Rash and Skin diseases, and every blemish on beauty, and defies detection. On its virtues it has stood the test of 40 years; no other has, and is so harmless we taste it to be sure it is properly made. Accept no counterfeit of similar name. The distinguished Dr. L. A. Sayre, said to a lady of the haughtiest (a patient): "As you ladies will use them, I recommend 'Gouraud's Cream' as the least harmful of all the Skin preparations." One bottle

will last six months, using it every day. Also Poudre Subtile removes superfluous hair without injury to the skin.

FERD. T. HOPKINS, Prop'r, 37 Great Jones St., N. Y.

For sale by all Druggists and Fancy Goods Dealers throughout the U. S., Canada and Europe.

Beware of Base Imitations. \$1,000 Reward for arrest and proof of any one selling the same.



VARICOSE VEINS

Weak Knees, Weak Ankles and Swollen joints are greatly relieved and often CURED by Our Patented

Seamless
Heel

Elastic Stockings

Made strictly to measure at about half usual prices. Most comfortable stocking made. Don't suffer, send for prices and self-measuring directions.

Curtis & Spindell Company
105 Market St., Lynn, Mass.

NOTES

THERE are fewer marriages in proportion to population than formerly; families are smaller; they are less coherent; they are less lasting. In England the marriage rate fell from 17.2 per cent. in 1851 to 15.2 per cent. in 1881, and from 1873 to 1888 the ages of men and women who married rose respectively from 25.6 and 24.2 to 26.3 and 24.7. The rise in the number of divorces, 1860-85, was universal. In 1871 England and Wales show one divorce to 1020.4 marriages; in 1879 one in 480.83. From 1867 to 1886 divorces in the United States increased 157 per cent., while the population increased 60 per cent. One of the causes of change is the whole modern movement of liberation—of subjects from sovereigns, slaves from masters, wives from husbands, and children from parents. Another is the disappearance of the ecclesiastical view of marriage. A more special cause has been the growth of large cities, which completely alter the environment of the organism. Men become less dependent on women for their home needs, and women have resources and interests which the simple life of the country denies them.—J. H. Muirhead, in the "Journal of Ethics."

★

THE College of Agriculture at Minneapolis has now fifty young women enrolled among its members. They are entered for the three years' course in farming, and are to study side by side with the men. The only difference which is to be made on their account is that, for blacksmithing, carpentry, and military drill, sewing, laundry-work, and cooking are to be substituted. Until now those young women who desired a course in agriculture were obliged to solace themselves with such instruction as they could gain during the summer months when the men were away. This year, however, their fortunes have changed. A new dormitory has been built, and new instructors in special departments have been provided. In the three years' course are included a study of every practical subject relating to farming—field crops and seeds, agricultural chemistry, farm economics, animal husbandry, dairying, entomology, horticulture, forestry, veterinary medicine and surgery. Nothing more interesting than this departure has been made in some time.—"Harper's Bazaar."

★

THERE have been fresh terrible examples of the explosiveness of flour dust in more than one accident that has occurred lately in America. A dusty mill is in reality as dangerous as any gunpowder factory.—London "Miller."

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

WERNICKE ELASTIC BOOKCASE

"A SYSTEM OF UNITS."

Always complete but never finished. Small enough for 10, large enough for 10,000 books. Varieties to suit every taste and requirement. Dust proof glass doors, and every feature of a perfect and beautiful bookcase. Sent anywhere on trial and approval.

Wernicke pays the freight.

THE WERNICKE CO.,
160 S. Ionia St.,

Grand Rapids, Mich., U. S. A.

FREE BOOKLET AND LIST OF DEALERS FOR THE ASKING.

FREE!



SEND US YOUR NAME and address and we will send you, postpaid 10 Handsome Linen Doilies. Sell them among your friends at 10 cents each. Send us the dollar and we will send you a magnificent SOLID GOLD-plated CHAIN BRACELET.

Ft. PITT JEWELRY CO.,

531 Wood St., PITTSBURG, PA.

INGERSOLL PRINTERS, 10c.



Complete 3 A Font of Rubber Type, with Holder, Indelible Ink, Pad, Tweezers, Etc. Postpaid 10c. 5 A Font with Figures, 15c.; 3 for 25c. 5 A Font, 2 Sets Figures and 2 Line Holder, 25c. Send for Big Catalogue FREE. ROBT. H. INGERSOLL & BROTHER, Dept. 36 67 Cordland St., N. Y. C.

SEND ONE DOLLAR

and if you find it equal to any \$100.00 top buggy you ever saw, perfectly satisfactory and the **GRANDEST BARGAIN YOU HAVE EVER SEEN OR HEARD OF**, pay the railroad agent **OUR SPECIAL OFFER PRICE, \$55.00** and freight charges, less the \$1.00 sent with order.

\$16.50
..TO..
\$90.00
BUGGIES
..AND..
SURREYS



BUILT IN OUR OWN FACTORY

OUR ACME QUEEN at \$55.00

factory for the sole purpose of building and selling a better buggy than we can buy elsewhere, and to save our customers manufacturers' profit. The material and labor in our ACME

Cut this ad out and send to us and if you live east of the Rocky Mountains we will send this **HIGH GRADE TOP BUGGY** to you by freight C.O.D., subject to examination, you can examine it at your freight depot

in Chicago, on honor, from the best material money can buy. While in our Free Buggy Catalogue we show top buggies, made by other makers at \$21.50, \$28.75 and \$34.75, the exact same buggies that are being sold by machinery dealers at \$45.00 to \$75.00 and are being widely advertised by many at \$35.00 to \$60.00.

Is the most wonderful value ever offered. The lowest price ever quoted on the best buggy that can be built. We maintain our own five story building and selling a better buggy than we can buy elsewhere, and to save our customers manufacturers' profit. The material and labor in our ACME

QUEEN costs more than double that in the ordinary factory buggy. We use a \$2.50 cushion cloth, some use 90 cent; we use a \$1.50 head lining, some use 40 cent; we use a 23-cent leather, some use 9 cent; we use \$3.50 colors and varnishes, some use 75 cent and \$1.00. We pay almost double the price most makers pay for Wheels, Axles, Springs, Dashboards and Sockets because we want the best. Our wheels, gears and bodies are water rubbed and the material and labor in painting our Acme Queen would paint 3 cheap buggies.

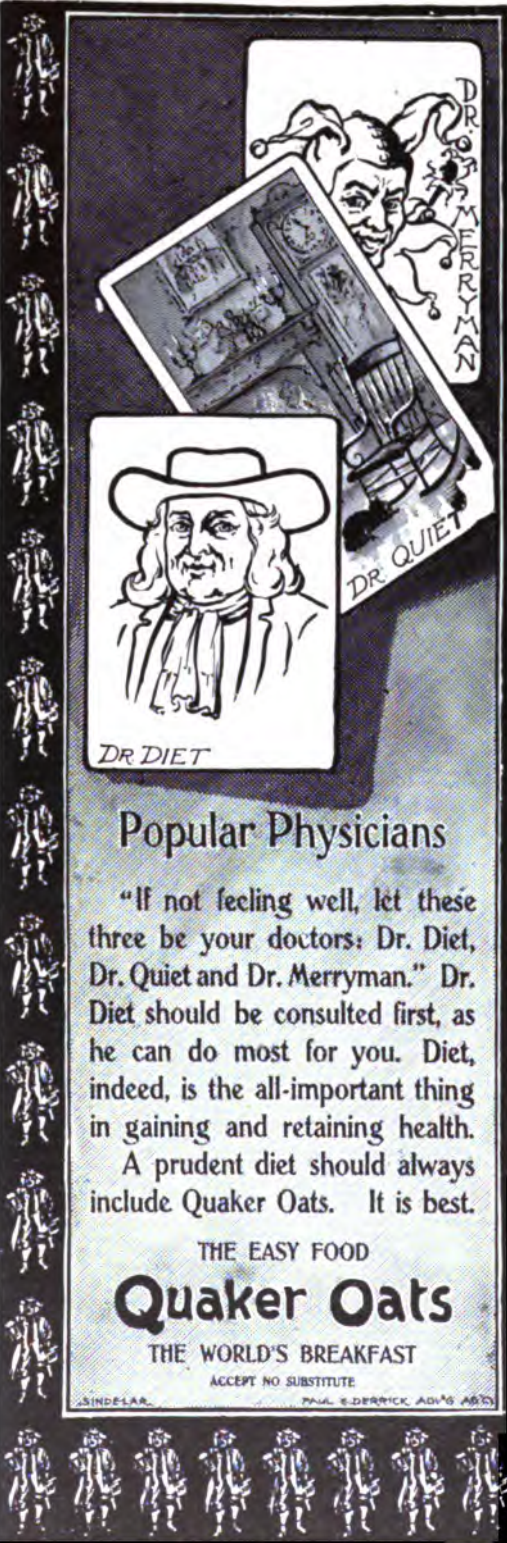
\$55.00 BARELY COVERS COST of material and labor, leaving us the smallest profit imaginable, but we are building 70 buggies a day and to advertise our buggy factory we are

willing to sell them on \$1.00 profit each. We know \$70.00 daily profit on 70 buggies will satisfy us, advertise us everywhere and build up the **LARGEST** buggy business in the world. **THE ACME QUEEN** we build in narrow or wide track, cloth or leather trimmed, end springs, buffed leather quarter top, solid panel back, springs in back, leather covered bows and nuts, rubber steps, velvet carpet, body 24x44 inches, No. 1 Sarven's patent screwed rim wheels, painted in 16 coats, body black, gear dark green with very delicate modest striping, complete with shafts, side and back curtains, boot, storm apron and anti-rattlers and shafts. Felt, neckyke and Whiffletrees in place of shafts, \$1.75 extra. Buggy weighs 400 lbs. and the freight will average for 200 miles, \$2.00; 300 miles, \$2.75; 400 miles, \$3.25; 500 miles, \$3.60; and 1000 miles, \$5.00. (Sears, Roebuck & Co. are thoroughly reliable. —Editor.)

SEND ONE DOLLAR with your order, we guarantee the buggy to reach you safely, and if satisfactory, pay the railroad agent balance, \$54.00 and freight charges, otherwise pay nothing and the agent will return buggy at our expense and we will return your \$1.00. **DON'T BUY A CHEAP FACTORY BUGGY** now sold almost exclusively by all machinery dealers and catalogue houses. Buy the best buggy money can build direct from the maker at the lowest price ever known. **ORDER TO-DAY. DON'T DELAY.** Write for our Free Buggy, Carriage and Harness Catalogue. Address

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO., (Inc.) CHICAGO, ILL.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.



Popular Physicians

"If not feeling well, let these three be your doctors: Dr. Diet, Dr. Quiet and Dr. Merryman." Dr. Diet should be consulted first, as he can do most for you. Diet, indeed, is the all-important thing in gaining and retaining health.

A prudent diet should always include Quaker Oats. It is best.

THE EASY FOOD

Quaker Oats

THE WORLD'S BREAKFAST

ACCEPT NO SUBSTITUTE

SINDELAR PAUL E. DERRICK ADG'S 1870

THE accepted plans for the new battleship "Maine," and her sister ships, the "Ohio" and the "Missouri," call for a ship of approximately 12,150 tons, with a water-line length of 388 feet, beam 72 feet, and draught of 24 feet 6 inches, with full stores, supplies, and ammunition, and a guaranteed speed of 18 knots, at a cost of \$2,885,000. In appearance the "Maine," "Ohio," and "Missouri," up to the top of the superstructure, and as far as the armament is concerned, are identical with the "Illinois," "Wisconsin," and "Alabama." They will carry four 18-inch breech-loading rifles, paired in elliptical turrets forward and aft, fourteen 6-inch rapid-fire guns in broadside batteries, and twenty-four rapid-fire and machine guns in the secondary battery, mounted at various points throughout the ship. For armoring these ships the original 16½-inch Harveyized armor plating will be superseded by a 10-inch Kruppized plating, which admits of a broader and longer belt for the same weight of steel.—"Harper's Weekly."

★

THE Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences has received the entire entomological collection of the late Berthold Neumoenen, a life member of the Institute. The collection is regarded as one of the finest in the world. It comprises upwards of 50,000 beautiful and perfect specimens of lepidoptera, including both butterflies and moths. Mr. Neumoenen was twenty-five years in collecting and at an expense of over \$40,000. For some specimens he paid \$500. The collection was purchased by Mr. Frank S. Jones for \$10,000, and presented to the Institute. This has inspired at once other givers, and among them Mr. Edward L. Graef, a life member of the Institute, has given his fine collection worth \$5,000.

★

IT is truly wonderful that London's vast population of 6,291,667, located on only 693 square miles, should have in 1897 so low a death rate as 17.7 per one thousand. This rate is not greater than that of a fairly healthy rural district. England well deserves the name she has received as the birthplace and home of sanitary science and practice.—"Lancet," London.

★

THE story goes that when Li Hung Chang was in England, an admirer sent him a specially fine bull-terrier, intended to watch over the veteran statesman's declining years. The following letter—so the story goes—was received in acknowledgment: "My dear —, While tendering my best thanks for sending me your dog, I beg to say that, as for myself, I have long since given up the practice of eating dog's flesh; but my attendants, to whom I handed the creature, tell me they never tasted anything so nice. Your devoted L."—"Household Words."

ADVERTISEMENTS

Enameline is the Modern Stove Polish, which means **UP-TO-DATE**; that is, labor-saving, brilliant in effect, no dust and no odor. It makes a rusty old stove look as good as new in a minute. Put up in paste, cake or liquid form.

J. L. PRESCOTT & CO., New York.



56 PIECES FREE

Full-Size, for Families.

There is no fake about this; send your address at once. Every person answering this advertisement can get a Handsomely Decorated Set, absolutely free—we mean it. There is no trick, no juggling with words, nothing but what is honest. Our offer is in black & white, no misrepresentation of any sort; everybody can receive & take advantage of it, & we positively will not go back on it no matter what it costs us. We wish to put our paper on top, & will do anything to get it in the lead quickly. It is one of the best & most interesting Fashion, News & Story Papers in existence. You can prove all we say, the absolute TRUTH, if you will send mailing, addressing & packing, & we will send you the paper for three months free. All Sets carefully boxed & packed at our expense.

Use 10c. silver or 15c. stamps to cover expense of postage. Send no money. Every one can have their choice of Breakfast, Dinner or Tea Set Free. All Sets carefully boxed & packed at our expense.

POPULAR FASHIONS, NEW YORK CITY, DEPT. 155 A. P. O. BOX 2617.

RUPTURE CURED.

and speedy cure. Comfortable Belts made to reduce corpulency. The use of these belts reduces your size and leaves no room for surplus fat to accumulate. They can be used after any operation. Elastic Stockings, Knee Caps and Anklelets. Our trusses are not sold by agents or druggists. (Established 17 years.) Send for free pamphlet to the IMPROVED ELASTIC TRUSS CO., 78 1/2 Broadway, New York.



WHY PAY MONEY WHEN IT WILL NOT COST YOU ONE CENT to secure a **SOLID GOLD** laid Carlen DIAMOND RING, here illustrated. Similar looking rings could not be bought of any jeweler for less than \$25. Do you want one for nothing but a few hours of your spare time? We wish to enlarge the sale of our celebrated Persian Perfumery, the most unique novelty now on the market, and in order to do so, we agree on receipt of your name and address only, to send you twenty cases of the Perfume, WHICH YOU CAN SELL AT FIVE CENTS PER CASE in as many hours. Free by mail, post-paid, without asking you one cent in advance. When you have sold the 20 cases at 5c. per case, then remit us \$1.00 and we send you as a free present the HANDSOME RING described above. No capital required. We take all risk. The most liberal offer ever heard of. Simply send your name & address & we forward you the Perfumery at once. PERSIAN PERFUMERY CO., 7 Warren St., New York.

WE All you have guessed about life insurance may be wrong.
PAY If you wish to know the truth,
POST- send for "How and Why,"
AGE issued by the PENN MUTUAL LIFE, 920 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

GET RICH

Fortunes in STOCKS. Shares \$1.00 a month. Safe as a Bank. Send 4c for Guide. A. H. WILCOX & CO. 529 Broadway, New York.



740 Silk Fringe Cards, Love, Transparent, Favorit Acquaintance Cards, LAUGHING CAMERA, Prize Puzzles, New Games, Magical Illusions &c. Finest Sample Book of CARDS Premiums All for 2c. stamp. OHIO CARD CO., Cadiz, Ohio.



HYPNOTISM UNVEILED!

Free to Everybody

The modern man must have light as well as freedom. The world has grown tired of mysteries. The day-dawn of the twentieth century is already piercing into the caverns of knowledge. Among the sciences unveiled by this new radiance there is none so marvelous, so fascinating and so powerful as that of Hypnotism. All the magic and occultism of olden times, all the mesmerism, clairvoyance, mind-reading and faith-curing of later days, are embodied in the one fact of knowing **HOW TO HYPNOTIZE!** Who would not covet such a wonder-working power! And yet it is open to all who wish to acquire it. The greatest Hypnotist of the century has just issued a treatise covering the whole ground of his science and will send it while the edition lasts absolutely FREE to all who apply. The book is profusely illustrated and makes plain to everybody how Hypnotism insures health, competence and social repute, how it cures disease, conquers pain, wins reluctant affection, makes happy homes, and gives endless recreation in public or private—in fine, how it proves an honorable and lucrative calling. If you desire all this precious knowledge you have only to send for the book. It costs you nothing. It may be the chance of your life. If you are wise, send for it today and you will not be TOO LATE. Address

Prof. L. A. Harraden, Sta. A, Jackson, Mich.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

ADVERTISEMENTS

Why Pay \$60 More

for a surry than is actually necessary. If you buy a job as good as this from a dealer or agent he will charge you about that amount in commission. Buy direct from our factory and save it. We are the largest manufacturers of Vehicles and Harness in the world selling to the consumer exclusively.

WE HAVE NO AGENTS



No. 77—Single Surry
Harnes. Price, \$18. Equal to
those selling for \$24.

We make 170 styles of vehicles and 65 styles of harness and ship anywhere for examination. You take no risk, as all our work is guaranteed as to quality, style and finish. You have the advantage of the largest stock in the country to select from. Don't buy a vehicle or harness of any kind until you get a free copy of our large illustrated Catalogue.

Elkhart Carriage and Harness Mfg. Co., W. B. PRATT, Elkhart, Indiana.



No. 911—Canopy-top Surry, has long-distance axles and open rubber head springs. Price, complete with curtailins, storm apron, sun-shade and fine lamps, \$115. As good in every way as sells for \$175.

SEND NO MONEY



cut this Ad out and send to us, my COLOR WANTED, state your Height, Weight, number inches around Body at Bust, at Waist and Length of Shirt from Waist to bottom in front, and we will send you THIS FINE TAILOR MADE SUIT, by express C. O. D. subject to examination. You can examine it at your express office, and if found Perfectly Satisfactory, Exactly as Represented, A PERFECT FIT, such a stylish dress as you could not get in your town, and WORTH TWICE AS MUCH as suits advertised by others at about our price, pay your express agent OUR SPECIAL OFFER PRICE, \$4.95 and express charges.

THIS SUIT is made from a GENUINE HENRIER ENGLISH WOOL REPELLANT CLOTH, in either Black, Navy Blue or Brown, cut in the Latest Style for 1899 by EXPERT CUTTERS from a Genuine Stalmer Model, fine tailor made throughout. If you don't find this suit has a distinctiveness in STYLE, FIT, GRACEFUL SHAPE, MATERIAL, WORKMANSHIP and FINISH, we will be glad to have you RETURN IT AT OUR EXPENSE.

SKIRT is very full sweep, lined with fancy percaline, bottom bound with MOHAIR BRAIDS. SKIRT BIND- with neat buttons and Case Cording, and veiled seams in back.

JACKET is one of the Handsomest Shown This Season, single breasted, light fitting back, latest accents, lined with GENUINE NEAR-SILK, HANDSOMELY TRIMMED AND FINISHED. BEWARE OF IMITATORS who copy our advertisements and promise you goods like ours. Write to friends in Chicago and learn who are reliable, and who are not, ask your neighbors, ask any one about us. Write for Free Catalogue of Ladies' and Children's Clothing. (This Firm is Reliable.)

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO., (INC.) Chicago.

MME BENOIT'S

Russian Depilatory

PERMANENTLY REMOVES

SUPERFLUOUS HAIR



MARRED
BEAUTY.

without torturing, blistering, discoloring, or leaving any blotch, signs, or other ill effect on the skin. An effective, instantaneous, harmless remedy.

Send for Booklet Giving Full Information.

MME. BENOIT,

45 E. 42d St., New York City.

Kindly mention SELF CULTURE.

Big Drop in Dress Goods.

Everyone can now buy Dress Goods of every description, and from one yard upwards, for just as little money as the largest merchants can buy in quantities. You will receive free by mail, postpaid, a book of 60 cloth samples of latest things in all kinds of Dress Goods, at 12 1/2 to 1.25 per yard, also full instructions how to order, etc., if you will cut this notice out and mail to the big reliable house of

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.), Chicago.

INGERSOLL SHIRT SET, 15c.



SOLL & BRO., Dept. 96

All Rolled Gold Plate; Guaranteed to Wear at least a year. All the Latest Buttons shown in cut, also a Pair of Latest Style Dumb-Bells and Nickel Tie Clasp. Postpaid for 15c. 2 for 30c. \$1.25 Doz. This Set would cost 60c. in any store. SEND for Big CATALOGUE of JEWELRY and other Goods FREE. R. H. INGERSOLL.

67 Cortlandt St., N. Y. CITY.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WITH LITERARY ABILITY, TO ACT AS CORRESPONDENTS

FOR A NEW YORK MAGAZINE TO FURNISH PHOTOS AND ILLUSTRATIONS PROVIDED FREE. Send names and address to the Editor.

Cost of Finest Hair Switches.

The finest human hair switches, to match any hair, are now being made in Chicago and sent to anyone anywhere for 65 cents to \$1.25. For full particulars, how to order, etc., cut this notice out and send to

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO., Chicago.

REDUCED TO \$3.50.



To place our new improved THERMAL VAPOR BATH CABINET in every home, we send them complete for 30 days, with alcohol stove, directions, formulae, to any address, upon receipt of \$3.50 cash. First steam bath, 75c. extra. Order to-day. Ours the best cabinet made. Rubber-lined. Latest improvements. Cures without drugs a hard cold with one bath, rheumatism, laryngitis, female troubles, all blood, skin, kidney and nervous diseases. Guaranteed or represented or money refunded. We're responsible. Ship promptly. Descriptive Book FREE. Special Wholesale Prices to Agents. Address, TOLEDO BATH CABINET CO., Toledo, O. The above firm are reliable, and do as they agree.—Editor.

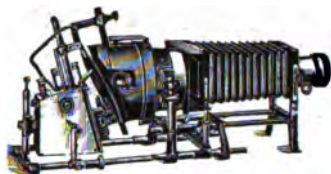
\$2.75 BOX RAIN COAT.

A Regular \$5.00 WATER-PROOF RAINCOAT for \$2.75. Send no Money. Cut this out and send to us, state your HEIGHT and WEIGHT, state number of inches around body at Breast taken over vest under coat close up under arms and we will send you this coat by express C. O. D., subject to examination; examine and try it at your nearest express office and if found exactly as represented and the most wonderful value you ever saw or heard of and equal to any coat you can buy for \$5.00, pay the express agent our special offer price, \$2.75, and express charges.



THIS MACKINTOSH is latest style, made from heavy waterproof, sea color, genuine Davis Cover Cloth; extra long, double-breasted, Sager velvet collar, fancy plaid lining, waterproof sewed, strapped and cemented seams, suitable for either rains or overcoat, and guaranteed greatest value ever offered by us or any other house. Two Free Cloth Samples of Men's Mackintoshes up to \$5.00, and Made-to-Measure Suits and Overcoats at from \$5.00 to \$10.00, write for Free Book No. 80 (L) Address, SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO., Chicago, Ill. (Sears, Roebuck & Co., are thoroughly reliable.—Editor.)

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.



The Teacher's Duty

IS TO IMPART BY THE BEST MEANS KNOWN.

Our Magic Lanterns and Stereopticons

supply this "means," we having made this subject a *specialty*. Write for new catalogue giving new prices.

J. B. COLT & COMPANY, Dept. C
3 to 7 W. 29th St., NEW YORK

Electric Lighted Trains

North-Western Limited

Leaves Chicago,	6:30 p. m.
Arrives St. Paul,	7:50 a. m.
Arrives Minneapolis,	8:15 a. m.
Leaves Minneapolis,	7:30 p. m.
Leaves St. Paul,	8:10 p. m.
Arrives Chicago,	9:30 a. m.

Other trains from Chicago are

Badger State Express,	8:30 a. m.
Duluth-Superior Limited	
and St. Paul Fast Mail,	10:00 p. m.
Night Express,	10:15 p. m.

All Agents sell tickets via

Chicago & North-Western Ry

NEW YORK	BOSTON	CHICAGO
401 Broadway.	308 Washington St.	212 Clark St.



COPYRIGHTED, 1884,
FALK, N. Y.

"Ten little blackbirds sitting in a line;
One flew away and then there were nine."

Yet you pay no attention to the falling of your hair! As if ten would be left after one had escaped!

Better stop this escape! Save what hair you have.

Hall's Vegetable Sicilian Hair Renewer certainly checks falling of the hair. And it brings back all the dark, rich color of early life, too.

If your druggist cannot supply you, send one dollar to R. P. Hall & Co., Nashua, N. H.

ADVERTISEMENTS



GUBA FREE

HOMES and
PLANTATIONS

ABSOLUTE
FREE WARRANTY DEED

TO ONE OF THE FOLLOWING:

90 PLANTATIONS of 40 Acres each	
120 " " 20 " "	
360 " " 10 " "	
720 " " 5 " "	
1440 " " 2 1/2 " "	
1300 HOUSE AND BUSINESS LOTS.	

The Grandest Colonization Enterprise Ever Offered to the American Public!

An American Colony, for Americans Only, in one of the Choicest, Most Beautiful and Fertile Spots on the Most Fertile Island in the World.

THE GUBAN LAND AND STEAMSHIP CO.

CAPITAL, \$1,000,000.

OFFICERS AND DIRECTORS.

President..... **GEORGE P. RHODES,**
Pres. Stuyvesant Fire Ins. Co.
Vice-President..... **WILLIAM C. BAIRD,**
Pres. Tropical Fruit Importing Co.
Treasurer..... **F. H. MOLLENAUER,**
Importer and Manufacturer Havana Cigars.
Secretary..... **LEWIS F. WILSON,**
Attorney at Law.

Counsel..... **Ex-Judge DAVID MITCHELL,**
Ex-Ass. District Attorney, N. Y. City.
Hon. BENJAMIN WRIGHT, Attorney on Title.
Hon. JOHN VINCENT, Ex-Dist. Att'y, N. Y. City.
J. W. CROSSLEY, Civil and Mechanical Engineer.
J. T. BOKENHIMER, Pres. London Needle Co.
GEO. HUELLER, Man'r and Jobber Boots and Shoes.
E. PARKE COBY, of E. P. Coby & Company.
H. A. ZAYAS, Engineer and Cuban Representative.

This Company incorporated with an authorized capital of \$1,000,000, and composed of some of the most successful and shrewdest business men of New York and other States, who are far-seeing enough to know the vast wealth to be made in Cuba within the next few years, are securing immense landed properties on that beautiful and fertile island.

They are incorporated for the purpose of buying, selling, improving and cultivating Lands in Cuba. Establishing and maintaining Steamship Lines, Railroads, Mills, Factories, Hotels, Docks, Plantations, etc. ?

Our real estate experts are now in Cuba selecting and buying choice Tobacco, Sugar, Banana, Pine-apple, Coffee, Fruit and Vegetable Lands.

With the sole object of making all of this land worth fifty times its present value, they have inaugurated the most gigantic and liberal colonization enterprise in the history of the world.

With a broader business policy than has characterized any similar enterprise, the Company propose to give away all of the above-named House lots, Business lots and Plantations of from 2 1-2 to 40 acres, absolutely Free, to found an American colony.

THE LAND ABSOLUTELY FREE.

No charge is made for the land for making deed, notary fee, taxes or other so-called expense, but we require all to send 25 cents when application is made. This amount is simply to help pay cost of this advertisement, postage and handsome illustrated book on Cuba—its climate, soil, tobacco, sugar and fruit culture. Each applicant can receive a Warranty Deed for a Plantation, or a House or Business Lot, as he or she may choose.

The Plantations and Lots to be given away, will consist of only one-fifth of our property, the remaining four-fifths we shall hold for the Company's profit, to be sold in the future at enormously increased values. ?

Large and diversified ownership by energetic and enterprising Americans, will make all of our property

worth, in five years, fifty times what it is to-day—hence our offer. Such a field of wealth has never before been opened. It may mean a fortune to you. It certainly means happiness, comfort, and a competence to those who accept our offer now.

\$300 to \$1,500 PER ACRE

can be made from Cuban Land, raising Sugar, Tobacco, Coffee, Oranges, Coconuts, Pineapples, Bananas, Figs, Citron, and all early vegetables. Three crops per year. No frost, a beautiful, healthful climate, under American system of government; a life on the richest and most fertile island in the world. Forty acres will make you a fortune in a few years. Five acres a competence for life. We start you on the road to this. Why toil and starve, and freeze, when by at once taking advantage of this offer, you can reap a golden harvest, and live a life of comparative ease.

PLANTATIONS SET OUT AND CULTIVATED.

The Company will set out and take care of Plantations for those who are not in a position to attend to it personally. After two years a 20-acre plantation will pay \$4,000 yearly, and after five years over \$8,000. Think of it!

Our offer is open to all except girls or boys under 16, or paupers. We want people with ambition and energy. Those who have something and want to see that something grow into a splendid and easy livelihood.

CONDITIONS. There are absolutely NO conditions that cannot be complied with. You are not required to move there, to improve in any way except at your own pleasure, though we prefer that you should.

EXCURSIONS will be run several times yearly by steamships, for the benefit of stockholders and land owners. These excursions will be either given in one of our own steamships, or one chartered for the purpose at actual cost of transportation and food.

TO-DAY is the day to answer this advertisement to secure its full benefits. Should your application be too late to receive the full benefits then the money will be returned. Send 25 cents, stamps or silver.

CUBAN LAND & STEAMSHIP CO.,

P. O. Box 1624,

Dept. 128

32 Broadway, New York.

ADVERTISEMENTS



\$1.80 NO MONEY DOWN.

Cut this ad. out and send to us, state age of boy and say whether large or small of age and we will send you this **BOYS' KNEE PANT SUIT** (for boys from 4 to 15 years of age) by express, C. O. D. subject to examination. You can examine it at your express office and if found perfectly satisfactory, exactly as represented, the greatest value you ever saw, far better than boys' suits advertised by small houses at more money and equal to suits your storekeeper asks double our price, pay your **SPECIAL OFFER PRICE \$1.80** and express agent our charges.

THESE SUITS are made from a Genuine Wilder Scotch Cashmere, a wear resisting wool fabric, woven expressly for children's garments, good weight, light, medium or dark shades, handsome patterns, fine serge lining, Clayton padding, staying and re-inforcing, silk and linen sewing, fine tailor made in latest 1899 style, a suit any boy or parent would be proud of. **FOR FREE CLOTH SAMPLES** of everything in Boys' Clothing for boys 4 to 19 YEARS, write for Sample Book No. 15E, contains fashion plates, tape measure and full instructions how to order.

HEN'S SUITS AND OVERCOATS MADE TO ORDER FROM \$5.50 UP. Samples sent **FREE** on application. Address, **SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.), CHICAGO.**

BROWN'S BRONCHIAL TROCHES

TRY THEM FOR
**Coughs, Colds,
Asthma, Bronchitis,
Hoarseness
and Sore Throat.**

Fac-Simile Signature of *John A. Brown* on every box.



HAVE YOU CONSIDERED

that a poorly colored slide hurts your business? Why should you engage amateurs to do your work when you can have them executed for 50 cents in the very best style and the work guaranteed at that: *if not giving perfect satisfaction, we do the work over again*, as one customer satisfied brings us a dozen others. Send a sample slide and 60 cents and we will color and mail it back to you free with our catalogue and lists. Send for our catalogue, 30 cents, of over 30,000 subjects kept in stock or hire, or War lists free.

RILEY BROTHERS, Dept. S, 16 Beckman Street, New York

BRANCHES:

KANSAS CITY, Mo., 515 E. 14th St.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., 222 Nicollet Ave.

FREE TEA SET

Ladies, send us your full address plainly written, and we will express you 75 of our exquisite **ARABIAN PERFUMO PACKETS** (in powder form, scents handkerchiefs, gloves, clothing, etc.) to sell among friends, at 10 cents each; when sold, remit us the money (less express charges) and we will send you a lovely decorated china tea set of 56 pieces for your trouble, full size for family use. Name nearest express office and address, **Arabian Perfumo Co., Dept. 11, Bridgewater, Conn.**

THE IDEAL SIGHT RESTORER

THE INESTIMABLE BLESSING OF SIGHT.

AVOID SPECTACLES; HEADACHE AND SURGICAL OPERATION. READ OUR ILLUSTRATED TREATISE ON THE EYE. MAILED FREE.

THE IDEAL COMPANY, 239 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

OPIUM

Habit. A new guaranteed Painless and Safe Home Cure. Wholly different from all others. Positively no interference with work or business. Send for Free Sample and Book.

Dr. Purdy, Q. Binz Building, Houston, Texas.



Cancer and Tumor Cured without the aid of knife or plaster, and without pain.

A treatise, testimonials and letter of advice free. Address,

VEGETABLE CANCER CURE CO., CHATHAM, N. Y.

The finest sanitarium in America.

MORGAN & WRIGHT TIRE



\$8.25 TO \$23.75

Send One Dollar

and we will send you this **OUR HIGH GRADE '99 MODEL ACME PRINCE BICYCLE** by express C.O.D., subject to examination. You can examine it at your express office and if found perfectly satisfactory, exactly as represented, the greatest bargain you ever saw and equal to bicycles others sell as high as \$50.00, pay your express agent our **SPECIAL OFFER PRICE, \$18.75** and express charges, less the \$1.00 sent with order. Express charges average \$1.00 for 500 miles; greater or lesser distances in proportion.

Morgan & Wright's

Highest Grade, 1 year guaranteed, Pneumatic Tire, 22, 24 or 26-inch Diamond, 1 1/4-inch seamless steel tubing frame, finest 2-piece Sealy hanger, finest crystal steel adjustable bearings throughout. Wheels, Kowl's best 23-inch. Full ball bearing throughout. Acker ball retainers throughout. Finest equipment. Index chain. Canton padded saddle. Best handle bar made, up or down turn. Clark's anti-friction, ball bearing, ball retaining pedals, heavy leather tool bag, fine wrench, oiler, pump and repair kit. Wheel is more handsome. A **BINDING ONE-YEAR GUARANTEE** with every bicycle. **IF YOU DON'T FIND IT EQUAL TO OTHER \$40.00 WHEELS, DON'T TAKE IT.** \$8.25 Stripped, \$11.75 and \$16.95 Fully Equipped is our price for cheaper (1899) bicycles. No old models, no second hand wheels. Our **FREE BICYCLE catalogue** shows our entire line up to \$35.75. **WRITE FOR IT. ORDER OUR \$18.75 BICYCLE AT ONCE, MORGAN & WRIGHT TIRE,** highest equipment you will save \$20.00. You can make \$100.00 every month selling these \$18.75 WHEELS at \$25.00 to \$35.00.

(Sears, Roebuck & Co. are thoroughly reliable—Editors.)

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (INC.) CHICAGO, ILL.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS



Vapo-Cresolene

**Whooping
Cough, Croup,
Asthma, Colds.**

Hundreds of thousands of mothers use Vapo-Cresolene. Do you! Cresolene cures Whooping Cough every time; stops Croup almost immediately, and if used at once will cure a Cold before any complications can arise. I. N. Love, M.D., of St. Louis, says: "I have instructed every family under my direction to secure it." Mrs. Ballington Booth, says: "I recommend that no family where there are young children should be without it." W. R. Chichester, M.D. of New York, says: "As a vehicle for disinfecting purposes Cresolene is immediately successful." Anthony Comstock, says: "Malignant Diphtheria in my house; Cresolene used; cases recovered in two weeks; no others were affected."

Descriptive booklet with testimonials free. Sold by all druggists.

VAPO-CRESOLENE CO., 69 Wall St., New York.

Schleffelin & Co., New York, U. S. Agents.



SEND US \$1.00

AND THIS AD. and we will send you this BIG 410-pound new 1899 model nickel trimmed **ACME STEEL RESERVOIR RANGE** by freight, C. O. D., subject to examination. You can examine it at your freight depot and if you pronounce it the handsomest and most perfect range you ever saw and equal to ranges that retail at \$60.00. **OUR SPECIAL PRICE, \$28.55**, less the \$1.00 sent with order, or \$30.55, and freight charges. The freight charges on this range will average \$1.50 for 500 miles; greater or lesser distances in proportion.

WE GUARANTEE THIS THE HIGHEST GRADE STEEL RANGE ON THE MARKET,

made from extra heavy Bessemer refined sheet steel, 2-gauges thicker than is usually used, wrought steel connection construction throughout, wrought steel oven plate, brood and bolted, lined throughout with non-conducting fireproof asbestos, economizing fuel and making it the **BEST BAKER MADE**; has heavy duplex grate for either hard or soft coal, or wood, extra large porcelain lined reservoir.

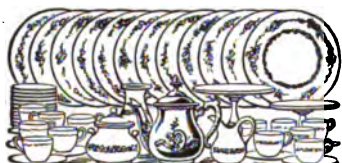
THIS ACME IS A 6-HOLE HIGH CLOSET RESERVOIR STEEL RANGE,

24 1/2 size; oven 18x19x13 inches; closet is 23x14 inches; firebox, for wood, 20 inches. **FINISH**—Highly enameled with heat-resistant black, striped in fine lines of bronze, richly nickel-plated and ornamented throughout, heavy nickel bands on balanced oven door, nickel oven door ornament, heavy nickel bands full length of top, front and ends; large nickel fowl rod, nickel bands on corners and bottom, all doors nickel plated, heavy nickel plated shield on reservoir, heavy nickel bands on high shelf and roll closet, nickel plated tea shelf, nickel plated pipe draft.

Handsome or Better Range Made. **WE ISSUE A WRITTEN BINDING GUARANTEE** with every range and guarantee safe delivery to your railroad station. Your local dealer would ask \$60.00 to \$60.00 for such a range. **ORDER AT ONCE and save \$32.00.** **WE SELL STEEL RANGES from \$15.50 up; OVEN STOVES \$4.90 and up; HEATERS \$1.50 and up.** **WRITE FOR FREE STOVE CATALOGUE.**

Address

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.), Chicago.



TEA SET FREE

56 PIECES.

Full size for family use, beautifully decorated & most artistic design. A rare chance. You can get this handsome china tea set & one dozen silver plated tea spoons for selling our Pills. We mean what we say & will give this beautiful tea set absolutely free if you comply with the extraordinary offer we send to every person taking advantage of this advertisement. To quickly boxes of Pills at 25 cts. a box write to-day and we send Pills by mail, when sold send us the money & we send you one dozen Silver plated tea spoons together with our offer of a 56 piece china tea set same day money is received. This is a liberal inducement to every lady in the land and all who received the spoons and tea set for selling our Pills are delighted. **AMERICAN MEDICINE COMPANY, Dept. J 30 West 13th St., NEW YORK CITY.**

\$2.95



OUR 1899 MACKINTOSH

SEND NO MONEY, cut this ad-out and send to us, state your height and weight, bust measure, length of garment from collar down back to waist line, and waist line to bottom of skirt, state color wanted and we will send you this mackintosh by express C. O. D., subject to examination; examine and try it on at your nearest express office and if found exactly as represented and by far the greatest value you ever saw or heard of, pay your express agent **OUR SPECIAL OFFER PRICE, \$1.95**, and express charges.

THIS MACKINTOSH is made of BLACK or BLUE genuine HAINESLEY double texture, waterproof SERGE CLOTH, with fancy plaid lining, velvet collar, double detachable cape, extra full sweep cape and skirt, guaranteed latest style and finest tailor-made.

FOR FREE CLOTH SAMPLES of everything in ladies' mackintoshes, write for free Sample Book No. 85 C. ADDRESS,

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.), CHICAGO, ILL. (Sears, Roebuck & Co. are thoroughly reliable.—Editor.)

Any Initial Desired.

10c.

This is a fine **SOLID GOLD** plated initial ring, enameled in black around the initial and is fully worth \$1.00. We shall give away 5,000 of these to advertise our business. Send 10 cents to pay postage and packing. **Send size CURTIN JEWELRY CO., Attleboro, Mass.**

2 CENTS.

We will send for a two-cent Postage Stamp a sample of this Triple Silver-plated Ladies' Stick-Pin, or Gentleman's Scarf-Pin (The Famous Lucky Star Pin). The Star and words are in blue enamel. Sample, by mail, Two Cents. Address



LYNN & CO., 48 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

THE GUARANTY COUPON
VELVET GRIP CUSHION BUTTON
 is guaranteed to the dealer
 and user against imperfections
 Look for the Name on every loop.

NEVER SLIPS OR TEARS

**THIS GUARANTY GOES
 WITH EVERY PAIR**

**No Stitching
 in the Elastic.**

Velvet Grip

**CUSHION
 BUTTON**

HOSE SUPPORTER

GEO. FROST CO., Makers, Boston.

LOOK FOR THE NAME "VELVET GRIP" ON EVERY LOOP.

Sample pair,
 by mail, 25c.
 Catalogue free.



\$2.50 TAN COVERT COAT

A STYLISH SPRING, SUMMER and FALL OVERCOAT
 AND A WATERPROOF RAINCOAT in one. SEND
 NO MONEY, cut this ad out and send to us,
 state your Height and Weight, state number inches
 around body at Breast taken over coat, close
 up underarms and we will send you this coat by
 express C.O.D. subject to examination. Examine and
 try it on at your nearest express office,
 and if found exactly as represented, the most
 wonderful value you ever saw or heard of and
 equal to any coat you can buy for \$5.00,
 pay the express agent \$2.50 and express
 Our Special Offer Price, \$2.50 charges.

THIS HANDSOME COAT is made from a
 genuine HAINSEL plain medium TAN COVERT EN-
 GLISH WATERPROOF CLOTH, lined with a fancy
 plaid Hainsel waterproof lining, valenced by the
 celebrated Selkirk process, with the best English
 rubber compound to make it waterproof. IT IS
 A PERFECT, HANDSOME WATERPROOF MACKIN-
 TOSH COAT, and cut short and made single
 breasted, fly front, makes a very stylish overcoat
 for Spring, Summer and Fall. While lined and vul-
 canized for a waterproof Mackintosh, worn as an
 overcoat, no one can tell it from the most styl-
 ish \$20.00 Spring Overcoat. Fine Tailor Made, latest
 style for 1899, fly front, correct overcoat length,
 velvet collar, sanitary arm fittings. ORDER TO DAY, DON'T
 DELAY. For Free Cloth Samples of everything in men's tailoring,
 suits \$5.50 and up, write for Free Book No. 5K. Address:
SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.) CHICAGO, ILL.



THE DEWEY GIRDLE, 20c."



For the Patriotic

White metal ribbon girdle or belt; continuous piece unbreakable,
 26 inches long, over 200 slots for ribbon; Sterling Silver Plate; beau-
 tiful embossed medallion buckle; complete with best silk Red, White
 and Blue Ribbon; adjustable to any size; store price, 60c.; our price,
 with large catalogue postpaid, Only 20c. 3 for 50c. R. H.
 Ingersoll & Bro. Dept. 96 67 Cortlandt St., N. Y.,

Girls of America!



1899 MODELS

are the best we have ever built, at
 any price, and the 1899

PRICE IS \$40

We are confident, after 20 years' ex-
 perience, that we can build and are
 building the

"BEST BICYCLES IN THE WORLD"
 and no wheel at a lower price can be
 of RAMBLER quality.

Catalogue is free.

GORMULLY & JEFFERY MFG. CO.
 Chicago Boston Washington New York
 Brooklyn Detroit Cincinnati Buffalo
 Cleveland London

BIG ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE FREE!

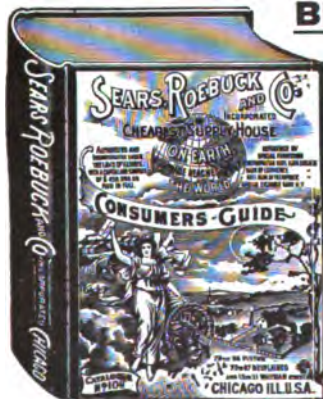
THIS BIG ENCYCLOPEDIA is our catalogue for spring and summer of 1899. It is 9x12
 inches in size, contains thousands of quotations and illustrations, the handsomest, most
 complete and lowest priced catalogue ever published. NAMES THE LOWEST WHOLE-
 SALE CHICAGO PRICES ON EVERYTHING in Clothing, Cloaks, Dresses, Boots, Shoes, Watches,
 Jewelry, Stoves, Ranges, Buggies, Carriages, Sewing Machines, Bicycles, Organs, Pianos, Musical
 Instruments, Drugs, Photographic Goods, etc. Tells just what your storekeeper at home must
 pay for what he buys and will prevent him from overcharging you on what you buy; ex-
 plains just how to order, how much the freight, express or mail will be on anything to your
 town. THE BIG BOOK COSTS US NEARLY \$1.00.

OUR FREE OFFER. Cut this advertisement out and send to us with 10c.
 will be sent to you FREE by mail postpaid, and if you don't say it is worth 100 times the 10
 cents you send, as a key to the lowest wholesale prices of everything, say so, and we will
 immediately return your 10 cents.

WHAT THE PRESS SAYS ABOUT THIS CATALOGUE:

"It is a monument of business information."—Minneapolis (Minn.) Tribune.
 "A wonderful piece of work."—Washington National Tribune.
 "The catalogue is a wonder."—Manchester (N. H.) Union.
 "Sears, Roebuck & Co. is one of the largest houses of its kind in Chicago."—Chicago
 Inter Ocean.
 "The big catalogue forms one of the finest shopping mediums that could possibly be
 sent into a district."—Boyce's Monthly, Chicago.
 "Their catalogue is a vast department store boiled down."—Atlanta Constitution.
 "Their catalogue is certainly a merchandise encyclopedia."—Chicago Epworth Herald.
 "A law should be passed compelling the use of this catalogue in all public schools."—
 The Hon. G. A. Southtown. We could quote thousands of similar extracts.

SEND 10 CENTS AT ONCE and you will receive the book by return mail.
Address, SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.), CHICAGO, ILL., U. S. A.



BEST ROUTE



NEW YORK BUFFALO

CLEVELAND

CINCINNATI CHICAGO

...Erie Railroad...

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

The Larkin Soaps

The 30 Days
Trial Begun



The Whole Family Supplied with Laundry and Toilet Soaps for a year at Half Price. Sent Subject to Approval and Payment after Thirty Days' Trial.

The First Award of the Omaha Exposition was given the Larkin Soaps.

IT IS WISE ECONOMY TO USE GOOD SOAP. Our soaps are sold entirely on their merits, with our guarantee of purity. THOUSANDS OF FAMILIES USE THEM, and have for many years, in every locality, many in your vicinity. Ask us for your neighbors' testimonials.

The Larkin Idea

saves you half the retail cost of your soaps, and doubles the purchasing value of this 50 per cent. saving in a premium bought for you below usual cost of making. One premium is A White Enameled Steel, Brass-Trimmed, Bow-Foot Bed. Brass top rod at head and foot, and heavy brass, gold-lacquered trimmings. Malleable castings that never break. Detachable ball-bearing casters. 4½ or 4 or 3½ feet wide. 6½ feet long. Head, 4½ feet. Foot, 3½ feet high. Corner posts, 1 inch in diameter. Very strong and will last a lifetime.

AFTER THIRTY DAYS' TRIAL if the purchaser finds all the Soaps, etc., of excellent quality and the premium entirely satisfactory and as represented, remit \$10.00; if not, notify us goods are subject to our order. We make no charge for what you have used.

If you remit in advance, you will receive in addition a nice present for the lady of the house, and shipment day after order is received. Money refunded promptly if the Soaps or Premium disappoints. Safe delivery guaranteed. The transaction is not complete until you are satisfied.

Many girls and boys easily earn a Chautauqua Desk or other premium free by dividing the contents of a Combination Box among a few neighbors who readily pay the listed retail prices. This provides the \$10.00 needed to pay our bill, and gives the young folk the premium as "a middleman's profit." The wide success of this plan confirms all our claims.

Booklet Handsomely Illustrating
20 Premiums sent on request.

THE LARKIN SOAP MFG. CO., Buffalo, N. Y.

Estab. 1875. Incor. 1892. Capital, \$500,000.
READ NOTES BELOW.

Our Great Combination Box.

Enough to Last an Average Family One Full Year.
This List of Contents Changed as Desired.

100 BARS "SWEET HOME" SOAP	\$5.00
Gold Medal Winner. For all laundry and household purposes it has no superior.	
10 BARS WHITE WOOLLEN SOAP	.70
A perfect soap for flannels.	
12 Pkgs. BORAXINE SOAP POWDER (full lbs.)	1.30
An unequalled laundry luxury.	
5 BARS HONOR BRIGHT SCOURING SOAP	.35
1-4 DOZ. MODJESKA COMPLEXION SOAP	.60
Perfume exquisite. A matchless beautifier.	
1-4 DOZ. OLD ENGLISH CASTILE SOAP	.30
1-4 DOZ. CRISME OATMEAL TOILET SOAP	.35
1-4 DOZ. ELITE GLYCERINE TOILET SOAP	.35
1-4 DOZ. BORATED TAR SOAP	.35
Unequalled for washing the hair.	
1-4 DOZ. SULPHUR SOAP	.35
1 BOTTLE, 1 oz., MODJESKA PERFUME	.35
Delicate, refined, popular, lasting.	
1 JAR, 2 ozs., MODJESKA COLD CREAM	.35
Soothing. Cures chapped hands.	
1 BOTTLE MODJESKA TOOTH POWDER	.35
Preserves the teeth, hardens the gums, sweetens the breath.	
1 STICK WITCH HAZEL SHAVING SOAP	.10
THE CONTENTS, Bought at Retail, Cost	\$10.00
THE PREMIUM, Worth at Retail	10.00
All for \$10. (You get the Premium you select, gratis.)	\$20

New York Observer says: We unhesitatingly recommend the Larkin Soap Mfg. Co. of Buffalo, N. Y. This concern makes large promises and fulfils them in a large way. No one need hesitate to send money to them. Extraordinary value will be received.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

N. E. A. Convention

Los Angeles, Cal.,
July 11-14, 1899.

The Santa Fe Route

Is the most comfortable summer route—
It is the shortest line—
It provides the best dining-car and eating-house service in the world.

All the way from Chicago, Kansas City,
Galveston or Denver—
Over its own rails.

This Route presents scenes of extraordinary interest to the educated traveler, which are fully set forth in the following illustrated descriptive books, mailed free on application:

To California and Back,
176 pp., 176 illustrations.

The Moki Snake Dance,
60 pp., 64 illustrations.

New Mexico Health Resorts, 88 pp., 45 illustrations.

Grand Canon of Arizona,
32 pp., 15 illustrations.

Las Vegas Hot Springs,
48 pp., 39 illustrations.

Arizona Health Resorts,
84 pp., 27 illustrations.

Address General Passenger Office,
The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway,
CHICAGO.

Correspondence solicited.

Wool Soap



*is as good
as any
Soap sell-
ing for ten
times the
Wool Soap
price*



No chapped or rough hands
from Wool Soap using

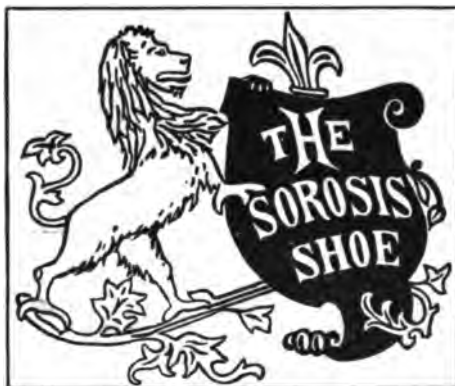
**SWIFT AND COMPANY
CHICAGO**

SOROSIS

The New Shoe for Women

A PERFECT SHOE AT A FAIR PRICE

and the best at any price



This Trade Mark branded into the sole enables you to identify the Sorosis shoe. *Always, Everywhere, \$3.50.* Until the price was advertised, this shoe was retailed by reliable firms for \$5, \$6 and \$7. Sorosis make your feet look well, no matter what size you wear, and combine the extreme of style with the perfection of comfort and common sense. All imitations lack the peculiar and remarkable qualities of the genuine "Sorosis."

Our catalogue (shows twenty-seven styles) mailed *free* if you ask for it.

A. E. LITTLE & Co., Lynn, Mass.


85 Blake Street.

Pears' Soap



Wears to the Thinness of a Wafer

Moisten the soap-wafer and moisten the top of a new cake. Stick the worn piece on the new cake; then all the soap is used, not a particle is lost. Pears' is the soap that lasts longest.

 Pears' soap is not only the best in all the world for toilet and bath but also for shaving. Pears was the inventor of shaving stick soap.

All sorts of people use Pears' Soap, all sorts of stores sell it, especially druggists.

ADVERTISEMENTS

"A most valuable book for women."
DR. AGNEW.

Approaching Maternity

BY

JOHN ROSS PANCOAST, M.D.

A great physician's experienced advice for this trying time. *No wife should be without it.* Sent by mail securely wrapped for **ONE DOLLAR.**

Indorsed by Dr. Agnew.
Named by Bishop Phillips Brooks.
Written by Dr. Pancoast.

FOR
EVERY
WOMAN

The Pancoast Company,

640 Bourse.

Philadelphia, Pa.

The **J. W. O'Bannon Co.**

Agents for Holliston Linen Finish Book Cloths and Buckrams.

Importers of GERMAN BOOK CLOTH

..... 72 Duane Street, NEW YORK.

...Importers and Dealers in..

BOOK BINDERS'

.....SUPPLIES.....

Of Every Description.



HYPNOTISM UNVEILED!

Free to Everybody

of the twentieth century is already piercing into the caverns of knowledge. Among the sciences unravelled by this new radiance there is none so fascinating and so powerful as that of Hypnotism. All the magic and occultism of olden times, all the mesmerism, clairvoyance, mind-reading and faith-curing of later days, are embodied in the one fact of knowing **HOW TO HYPNOTIZE!** Who would not covet such a wonder-working power! And yet it is open to all who wish to acquire it. The greatest Hypnotist of the century has just issued a treatise covering the whole ground of his science and will send it while the edition lasts absolutely **FREE** to all who apply. The book is profusely illustrated and makes plain to everybody how Hypnotism insures health, competence and social repute, how it cures disease, conquers pain, wins reluctant affection, makes happy homes, and gives endless recreation in public or private—in fine, how it proves an honorable and lucrative calling. If you desire all this precious knowledge you have only to send for the book. It costs you nothing. It may be the chance of your life. If you are wise, send for it today and you will not be **TOO LATE.** Address

Prof. L. A. Harraden, Sta. A, Jackson, Mich.

\$15.95



ONLY ONE DOLLAR DOWN

Cut this ad. out and send to us with \$1.00 and we will send you this **HIGH GRADE 1899 MODEL \$50.00 VICUNA BICYCLE** by express, C. O. D., subject to examination. Examine it at your express office and if you find it a genuine 1899 model **HIGH GRADE \$50.00 VICUNA**, the greatest bargain you ever saw or heard of and you are convinced it is worth \$10.00 to \$15.00 more than any wheel advertised by other houses up to \$25.00, pay your express agent the balance, \$14.95 and express charges.

THE VICUNA IS COVERED BY A **BINDING GUARANTEE.** Frame is 22 or 24 inch, made from best seamless tubing, finest two-piece **Deaton hanger**, finest full ball bearings, **Mason arch crown**, enameled black, green or maroon, highly nickel finished, **Delhi padded saddle**, up or down turn handle bars, best **Dovle pedals**, **HIGH GRADE GUARANTEED REGAL PNEUMATIC TIRES**, fine leather bag, complete with all tools and repair outfit. **ORDER TODAY. YOU CAN MAKE \$50.00 EVERY MONTH SELLING THESE WHEELS AT \$25.00.** (Sears, Roebuck & Co. are thoroughly reliable—Editors.) **CATALOGUE FREE.**

SEARS, ROEBUCK & CO. (Inc.), Fulton, Desplaines and Wayman Streets, **CHICAGO, ILL.**

FOR \$1.00 we furnish a Gas Lamp, the exact same lamp as is now being widely advertised as a premium with a bicycle as a **REGULAR \$3.50 ACETYLENE GAS LAMP**, but we do not guarantee or recommend it.

Please mention **SELF CULTURE** when you write to advertisers.

FREE FOR 15 DAYS

300 instrumental selections for the piano. 1,100 pages. { Over 2,200 Pages } 350 songs for all voices, with 1,100 piano accompaniment. pages.

Editors and special contributors:

Victor Herbert
Reginald de Koven
Gerritt Smith
Helen Kendrick Johnson
Fanny Morris Smith

This valuable permanent collection of musical masterpieces can be obtained by those who act promptly, at

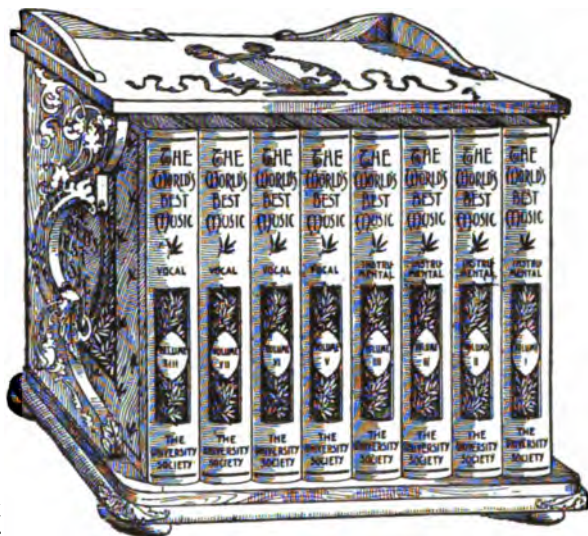
Less than one-tenth the cost in sheet form

"The most complete and valuable Musical Library ever published."—*The Key-note*.

"Nothing so fine and well worth having in one's home."—*Margaret E. Sangster*, Ed. Harper's Bazar.

"It is a publication we can recommend. There is something that will interest all."—*The Etude*.

"A vocal and instrumental library of rare excellence and comprehensiveness."—*The Pianist*.



Size of volume, 9x12 inches.

Library of The World's Best Music

**IN A NEW ENLARGED EDITION OF 8 VOLUMES,
4 VOCAL AND 4 INSTRUMENTAL, CONTAINING**

Instrumental selections by the greatest composers; melodious, not too difficult, and including popular and operatic melodies, dances, funeral marches, nocturnes, adagios, military pieces, and classic and romantic piano music. The best old and new songs, duets, trios, quartettes, and choruses upon every subject. Upon friendship, admiration, love, and home; upon absence, sorrow, reminiscence, and reverie; upon humor, patriotism, nature, and morality; no hymns, however. 400 portraits and illustrations, over 500 biographies of musicians, and more than 100 new and copyrighted selections by American musicians. The work is planned for cultured homes and sympathetic performers.

IT WILL COST YOU NOTHING

To get this Treasury of Music, Art, and Biography into your home. Use the volumes for 15 days. If they are not satisfactory return them at our expense. If you are fully satisfied, make payments as stipulated below.

Special Thirty-Day Offer for Our Readers

Send us your application **AT ONCE**, stating which style of binding you prefer, cloth or half leather. We will forward the entire set, charges prepaid. We will allow you 15 days in which to examine this wonderful collection of music. **IF YOU ARE NOT SATISFIED, YOU CAN RETURN THE SET AT OUR EXPENSE.** If satisfactory, you can make your first payment of one dollar, and remit thereafter \$1.00 a month for sixteen months if cloth is ordered, making total payment of \$17. If you select the half-leather binding, which we recommend, there will be four more monthly payments of \$1.00, making a total payment of \$21.00. We assume all risk. We suggest that you **APPLY AT ONCE** if you desire to obtain a set of this limited edition. Don't fail to mention **SELF CULTURE**. Address

Absolutely no risk to you.

We pay transportation charges.

THE UNIVERSITY SOCIETY
78 Fifth Avenue, NEW YORK

All these and over 400 other Composers represented in this matchless collection:

Kelley
Arditi
Emmett
Strauss
Buck
Damrosch
Mozart
De Koven
Faure
Gilbert
Tosti
Brahms
Gleason
Foster
Gounod
Chopin
Handel
Benedict
Haydn
Kreutzer
Mottel
Czibulka
Molloy
Pinsuti
Robyn
Hatton
Bartlett
Schumann
Beethoven
Schubert
Balfe
Sullivan
Wagner
Bishop
Chwatal
Cowen
Dibdin
Adam
Faure
Godard
Lange
Lover
Moore
Wilson
Payne
Russell
Smith
Verdi
Bendel

JOHN SHERMAN'S RECOLLECTIONS....

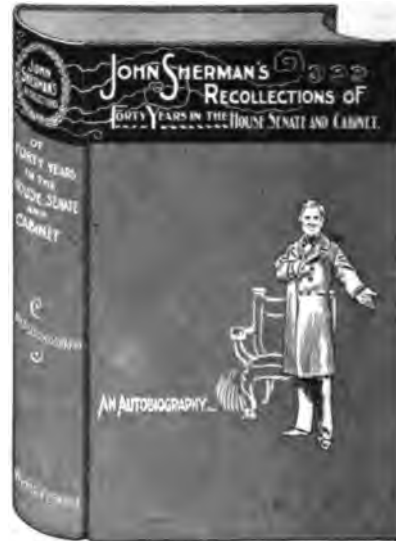


— OF —
**FORTY YEARS in the
HOUSE and
SENATE and
CABINET.....**

AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY

Being the Personal Reminiscences of the Author,
including the Political and Financial History of
the United States during his public career as.....

*MEMBER OF CONGRESS,
UNITED STATES SENATOR,
SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY,
PRESIDENT of the U. S. SENATE, Etc., Etc.*



The Greatest History of Modern Times

By America's **GREATEST LIVING STATESMAN**. It covers a period of time which, next to that of the Revolution itself, is the most important in America's history. The issues of National existence and constitutional right; of territorial integrity and the emancipation of a race; of the raising and disbanding of great armies; of victory gained in battle and strife averted by arbitration; of a sound currency and a protected ballot; all these tremendous issues were involved in the years embraced in Mr. Sherman's remarkable history.

LIBRARY EDITION—2 vols.

Cloth	\$ 7.50
Full Sheep	10.00
Half Morocco	12.00
Full Morocco	16.00

AUTOGRAPH EDITION—2 vols.

Three-Quarters Calf, Gilt Top,
boxed

\$25.00

HOUSEHOLD EDITION—1 vol.

Cloth	\$ 4.00
Half Morocco	6.00

(Sent Post-paid to Any Address)

THE WERNER COMPANY

NEW YORK

AKRON, OHIO

CHICAGO

THE WERNER LIBRARY

Comprising Thirty 12mo Volumes,
Richly Bound, All Illustrated. * *

BIOGRAPHIES:

Life of Holmes,
Life of Lincoln,
Life of Longfellow,
Life of Lowell,
Life of Bayard Taylor,
Life of Daniel Webster,
Life of Whittier.

MISCELLANEOUS:

Our Business Boys,
Rural Bird Life in England,
Steam, Steel and Electricity,
Wonder Stories of History,
Wonder Stories of Travel.

HISTORIES:

History of America,
History of China,
History of the Civil War,
History of Egypt,
History of India,
History of Mexico,
History of The Netherlands,
History of Our Own Times (2 Vols.),
History of Russia,
History of Spain,
History of Switzerland,
Military Career of Napoleon,
The Queens of England (3 Vols.),
The Queens of Scotland (2 Vols.).

Silk Cloth, Gold and Black Stamped \$.75 per volume
Half Crushed Levant 1.00 per volume

Abraham Lincoln

His Life and Public Services

By PHEBE A. HANAFORD.

The Author of this volume has traced, in narrating the events of ABRAHAM LINCOLN'S life, the growth and development of his grand and heroic virtues, and has clearly indicated how he was specially commissioned for his day and work,—“a man of the times and a man for the times.”

Cloth bound; stamped in three colors; price \$1.00.

Sent post-paid upon receipt of price.

UUUUUU

THE WERNER COMPANY

NEW YORK.

AKRON, O.

CHICAGO.

ADVERTISEMENTS

THE WERNER UNIVERSAL EDUCATOR

"Every man has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives himself."
—Gibbon.

An Imperial Volume, 10½ x 9 inches, 830 Double Column Pages, Magnificently Illustrated. English Cloth, Gold Back and Side Stamps.

Price \$4.00



A Complete Cyclopedia of reference in HISTORY, SCIENCE, BUSINESS, and LITERATURE. One Million Facts and Figures; One Thousand Forms and Rules; Five Hundred Illustrations; One Hundred Colored Plates and Diagrams; Sixty Colored Maps, all up-to-date.

Military Career of Napoleon the Great

BY MONTGOMERY B. GIBBS

This is not a technical Military History, but a gossip, anecdotal account of the career of NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, as his Marshals and Generals knew him on the Battle-field and around the Camp-fire.

Crown 8vo. 32 pages of illustrations. Half green leather. Gilt top and back. Uncut edges. Price, \$1.25, sent post-paid.

THE WERNER COMPANY

NEW YORK

AKRON, O.

CHICAGO

WERNER'S DICTIONARY

... of Synonyms
Antonyms

Mythology
Familiar Phrases

Contains over TWENTY-THOUSAND Words of both Similar and Contrary Meaning.....

MYTHOLOGY,

The Heathen Deities and other Fabulous Persons of Greek and Roman History.

FAMILIAR ALLUSIONS,

Words and Phrases, Persons, Places, Pictures, Buildings, Streets and Monuments frequently alluded to in Literature and in Conversation.

FOREIGN PHRASES,

Including Sentences and Quotations from both Living and Dead Languages.

HEROES AND HEROINES OF PROSE AND POETRY,

A Compendium of the Celebrated Characters in the Literature of the World.

Musical Terms, Dates, Abbreviations, etc., including Prof. Loissette's MEMORY SYSTEM, The Art of Never Forgetting.

A BOOK FOR BUSY PEOPLE, FOR QUICK REFERENCE AND PRACTICAL USE.

Price, 25c., post-paid to any address.

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, O.

ADVERTISEMENTS



Magner's...

A-B-C GUIDE TO SENSIBLE HORSE SHOEING

... BY ...

D. MAGNER,

Author of "Art of Taming and Educating Horses," "Magner's Standard Horse and Stock Book," etc., etc.

**A SIMPLE AND PRACTICAL TREATISE
OF THE ART OF SHOEING HORSES.**

8vo; Cloth Binding; over Two Hundred Illustrations with Seventeen Colored Plates, showing all details of the structure of the Foot, which is by far the finest that has ever been published. Contains facts which the UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT paid \$25,000 to have taught to the veterinary surgeons connected with the cavalry and other service of the Army.

PARTIAL CONTENTS:

Principles of Shoeing,
Contraction and its Cure,
Crack, or Fissure of the Toe,
Weak Heels, their Management,
Shoeing Sore or Foundered Horses,
Taking up the Colt's Foot,
The Control of Difficult Cases,

Tips and Thin Shoes,
Quarter-crack and its Cure,
Corns, Causes, etc.,
Interfering, Clicking or Stumbling,
Causes of Injury in Shoeing,
Easy Method of Controlling Colts,
Feeding and Watering, etc., etc.

PRICE, \$1.00, SENT POST-PAID TO ANY ADDRESS.

F. J. DRAKE, 160 Adams St., Chicago, Ill.

"THE GODHOOD OF MAN ..

By
**Nicolas
Mikalowitch.**

It shakes the foundation of Religious
Conceptions by exposing the

FALACIES of the MODERN CHURCH

And points the way to a better social
condition of MAN.

**Every Student, Minister, Thinker
SHOULD READ IT.**

The Chicago Chronicle says: "Not even
Col. Ingersoll makes the ordinary religious
views of the creation, the peculiarity of
the Hebrew people and the rank unchristian-
ness of the Christian Church practice
more glaringly absurd." If your news-
dealer does not have it order direct of

**NICHOLAS MICHELS,
Chamber of Commerce,
Chicago, Ill.**

Paper, 25c.
Cloth, 50c.

THE DEWEY GIRDLE, 20c.



For the Patriotic

White metal ribbon girdle or belt; continuous piece unbreakable,
28 inches long, over 200 slots for ribbon; Sterling Silver Plate; beau-
tiful embossed medallion buckle; complete with best silk Red, White
and Blue Ribbon; adjustable to any size; store price, 60c.; our price,
with large catalogue postpaid, Only 20c. 3 for 60c. R. H.
Ingersoll & Bro. Dept. 96 67 Cortlandt St., N. Y.

Girls of America!

GOING ABROAD?

A BOOK **BY ROBERT LUCE**

SUGGESTED by difficulty in getting pre-
liminary information; based on jour-
neyings in many parts of Europe;
written to make the paths of other trav-
ellers smoother; meant to contain in the
most compact form all the facts that ex-
perience could suggest as likely to aid the
tourist in preparation, and to save time,
money, and trouble in a trip abroad.

Here is information and advice worth many
times the cost of the book.—*Woman's Journal.*

It will be found invaluable in the preparation
for a journey to foreign lands and equally in-
dispensable in the actual experience of European
travel.—*Omaha Bee.*

We do not hesitate to say that it is beyond all
odds the best directory for foreign travel that we
have yet seen in the English language. It is
written so wisely, sensibly, and admirably in
every way that we have nothing to say of it but
in the highest praise.—*Literary World.*

The time to read it is before one sets sail, on
the voyage over, or, best of all, when he is count-
ing the cost, making his plans, and deciding
whether to go at all. A better adviser for these
stages cannot be had.—*Independent, New York.*

In Cloth, \$1; in Paper, 50 cents.

Order through any book-seller, or by mail of

ROBERT and LINN LUCE, Publishers

68 Devonshire Street, BOSTON

WAR TIME ECHOES

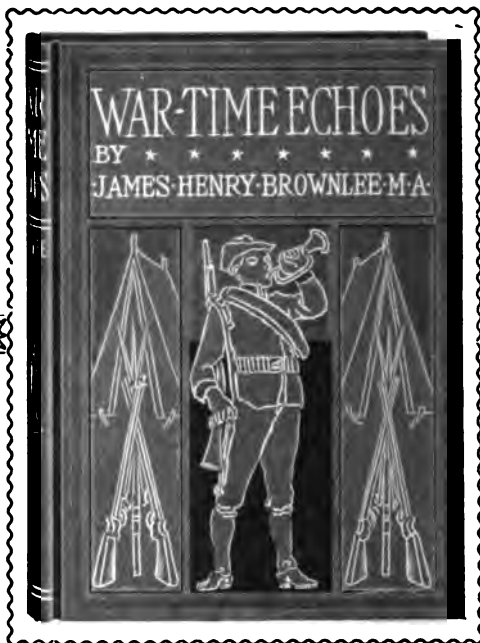
A VOLUME of thrilling interest, consisting of a collection of the best poems of the Spanish-American War.

By sea and crag, where'er our flag
Victorious, be unfurled,
It shall stay, if we say, till the Judgment Day,
In spite of a snarling world.

HEROIC PATHETIC
DIALECTIC HUMOROUS

BY
JAMES HENRY BROWNLEE

*Of the State Normal School, Carbondale, Ill. Compiler of "Mar-
tial Recitations for the Veteran's
Camp-Fire."*



BEAUTIFUL VOLUME, handsomely bound in Cloth, for every Library and every Home in the land.

Out of the many hundreds of poems waked by the War for Humanity, one hundred and forty of the most striking and beautiful were selected for "WAR-TIME ECHOES." These, arranged in order of time, make up a series of vivid pictures that unroll before the reader's eye like the scenes of a panorama.

"WAR-TIME ECHOES" is a text-book of *Patriotism*. It should be placed in the hands of every boy and girl in America. Better than the narrative of the historian, it will inspire in their hearts a love for their native land, and fit them to serve it with loyal hearts in the coming years. Anyone, indeed, who would form a true conception of the late momentous struggle, which resulted in such glory to our arms and so vast an addition to our national territory, must read "WAR-TIME ECHOES."

BOUND IN CLOTH, GOLD STAMPED; 208 PAGES. PRICE, \$1.00

THE WERNER COMPANY, PUBLISHERS

NEW YORK

AKRON, OHIO

CHICAGO

N. E. A. Convention

Los Angeles, Cal.,
July 11-14, 1899.

The Santa Fe Route

Is the most comfortable summer route—
It provides the best dining-car and eating-
house service in the world—
It is 24 to 36 hours shorter to Los Angeles
than any other.

All the way from Chicago, Kansas City,
Galveston or Denver—
Over its own rails.

This Route presents scenes of extraordinary interest to the
educated traveler, which are fully set forth in the following
illustrated descriptive books, mailed free on application:

To California and Back,
176 pp., 176 illustrations.

The Moki Snake Dance,
60 pp., 64 illustrations.

**New Mexico Health Re-
sorts,** 88 pp., 45 illustrations.

Grand Canon of Arizona,
32 pp., 15 illustrations.

Las Vegas Hot Springs,
48 pp., 39 illustrations.

Arizona Health Resorts,
84 pp., 27 illustrations.

Address General Passenger Office,
The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway,
CHICAGO.

Correspondence solicited.

ADVERTISEMENTS

COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS

Michigan, Ann Arbor.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING.

High School course required for entrance. Civil, Mechanical, Electrical, and Chemical Engineering. Technical work taught by experienced engineers. Workshops and all laboratories. For announcements, etc., address
CHAS. E. GREENE, Dean.

Pennsylvania, Williamsport.

POTTS SHORTHAND COLLEGE.

MAIL and PERSONAL instruction. Pioneer Home Course in stenography. Catalogue and first lesson FREE. Write JNO. G. HENDERSON, Principal and Proprietor.

Illinois, Aurora.

AURORA COLLEGE, CORRESPONDENCE DEPT., offers courses in Law, Journalism, Education, Shorthand, Bookkeeping, etc. Send for a copy of MODERN EDUCATION.

THOMAS J. ALLEN, Pres.

MASTERY OF MEMORIZING
\$1.00 POSTPAID
MEMORY BOOKLET FREE
MEMORY LIBRARY BOX 1202 NEW YORK.

**We Teach Your Mind!
You Teach Your Fingers!**

MUSIC TAUGHT BY MAIL

All branches of Music taught by mail. Save money and get superior instructions. Write for particulars.

Chicago Correspondence School of Music,
110 LaSalle Street, Chicago.

WANT GOOD WORK?

Then work for the U. S. Gov't. Over 85,000 Positions filled through Civil Service Examinations. We teach and aid you to secure employment. Write, inclosing stamp, for information to

BUREAU OF CIVIL SERVICE INSTRUCTION,
Sta. B, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Law
THE
Keynote
TO
Success

Study law by correspondence and thus choose your own time and place for study. Same course as resident schools with additional advantage of individual instruction. One student writes: "Have learned more law in three weeks under your instruction than I learned in four months in a law office."

Chicago Correspondence School of Law,
523 Reaper Block Chicago.



TYPEWRITER HEADQUARTERS,

102 Fulton st., New York, sell all makes under half price. Don't buy before writing them for unprejudiced advice and prices. Exchanges, immense stock for selection. Shipped for trial. Guaranteed first class. Dealers supplied. 62-page illus. cat. free

HOME STUDY OF BOOK-KEEPING BUSINESS FORMS PENMANSHIP SHORTHAND, etc.



and private lessons By Mail, open up to Young Men and Women good-paying positions, affording chances for promotion. Gives just the training needed for success in business. Only spare

time required. No interference with daily occupation. The cheapest and best method of study; highly endorsed. Established 40 years. National reputation. We also teach all English and Civil Service branches BY MAIL. Trial lesson only 10 cents, showing how thorough our system is. Interesting Catalogue free. Write to

BRYANT & STRATTON'S COLLEGE
No. 60 College Building, - - - Buffalo, N. Y.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

LAWRENCE SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

DEPARTMENTS.

Civil Engineering. Chemistry.
Mechanical Engineering. Geology.
Electrical Engineering. Biology.
Mining and Metallurgy. General Science.
Architecture. For Teachers of Science.
Anatomy and Physiology (as a preparation for Medical Schools).

For Descriptive Pamphlet apply to

M. CHAMBERLAIN, Secretary.

N. S. SHALER, Dean. Cambridge, Mass.

HOME STUDY
Improve your leisure moments and fit yourself for positions of trust and responsibility by studying at home by our simple yet complete course in
PENMANSHIP, BOOK-KEEPING, BUSINESS FORMS,

COMMERCIAL LAW, STENOGRAPHY, etc.

Our free booklet, "Getting on in the World," sent all who write for it. Trial lesson 10 cents.

METROPOLITAN BUSINESS COLLEGE,
7 Monroe St., Chicago, Ill.

AUTHORS can have book MSS. and other material put into proper shape for publication by the **ROYAL MANUSCRIPT SOCIETY, 63 Fifth Ave., New York.**

TEACHERS WANTED

Union Teachers' Agencies of America.
Rev. L. D. Bass, D.D., Manager

PITTSBURG TORONTO
NEW ORLEANS NEW YORK
WASHINGTON SAN FRANCISCO
CHICAGO ST. LOUIS
and DENVER

We had over 8,000 vacancies during the past season. Teachers needed now to contract for next year. Unqualified facilities for placing teachers in every part of the U. S. and Canada. Principals, Superintendents, Assistants, Grade Teachers, Public, Private, Art, Music, etc., wanted. More vacancies than teachers.

Address all Applications to Washington, D. C.

Crude Rubber.

Several of our clients, gentlemen of high standing, who have been attracted by the 200 per cent dividends now being earned in Rubber Culture, are organizing a small private company, under the auspices of a powerful New York State corporation, and have asked us to offer for sale a portion of the capital stock. Shares \$100 each, payable in yearly instalments, as money is required for plantation. *Particulars on request.*

For list of Bonds and Investment Securities see our advertisement in *New York Sunday Herald*.

W. E. PENTZ & CO.,
BOND DEALERS,

44 Broad Street, New York.

NOTE.—A very attractive article on Crude Rubber was published in *SELF CULTURE* for March, entitled "Rubber Gathering."

One Night To Denver

Any ticket agent will tell you about THE COLORADO SPECIAL, the train *par excellence* for Denver, Colorado Springs, Manitou, Pueblo, Glenwood Springs and all the summer resorts of Colorado.

Lv. Chicago 10:00 a. m. daily
Ar. Denver 2:55 p. m.

PRINCIPAL AGENCIES

Chicago & North-Western Ry

461 Broadway, 368 Washington St., 212 Clark St.,
NEW YORK. BOSTON. CHICAGO.

SOUPS

OFTEN LACK RICHNESS
AND A DELICACY OF FLAVOR.
A FAULT EASILY REMEDIED BY USING

**LEA
&
PERRINS'
SAUCE**

THE ORIGINAL AND GENUINE
WORCESTERSHIRE.

It has more Imitations
than any other brand
ever produced.

John Duncan's Sons, Agts., New York.

PROMOTES
HEALTH

Jaeger
PURE WOOL UNDERWEAR

Send for
illustrated
catalogue,

New York: { 18 West 23d Street.
 { 168 Broadway.
Brooklyn: 604 Fulton Street.
Boston: 189 Tremont Street.

INGERSOLL PRINTERS, 10c.



Complete 3 A. Font of
Rubber Type, with Holder,
Indelible Ink, Pad, Tweez-
ers, Etc. Postpaid 10c.
5 A. Font with Figures,
15c.; 2 for 25c. 5 A.
Font, 2 Sets Figures and
2 Line Holder, 25c. Send
for Big Catalogue FREE.
ROBT. H. INGERSOLL
& BROTHER, Dept. 96
67 Cortlandt St., N. Y. C.

WE All you have guessed about
PAY life insurance may be wrong.
POST- If you wish to know the truth,
AGE send for "How and Why,"
issued by the PENN MUTUAL
LIFE, 920 Chestnut Street,
Philadelphia.

OPIUM

Habit. A new guaranteed Pain-
less and Safe Home Cure. Wholly
different from all others. Posi-
tively no interference with work
or business. Send for Free Sample and Book.
Dr. Purdy, Q. Binz Building, Houston, Texas.

HEADACHE

Horsford's Acid Phosphate
by its action in promoting digestion and as a nerve food, prevents and alleviates **headache** arising from a disordered stomach, or that of nervous origin.

The best remedy for **insomnia** and **dyspepsia**.

Pleasant to take.

For sale by all Druggists.

It cooks in a single minute!
and all grocers sell it.

Wheatena

THE BEST
Breakfast Food
Delicious
Nourishing
Digestible

Samples of **ENTONA**, the great remedy for all intestinal inactivity in baby or adult, mailed free on application. Of Entona Dr. Wm. Tod Helmuth, the eminent Surgeon, says: "It is the best remedy for Constipation which I have ever prescribed." Dr. J. Montfort Schley, Prof. Physical Diagnosis, Women's Medical College, writes: "I prescribe **ENTONA** almost daily in my practice, and am astonished at the permanent results obtained."

ENTONA is for sale by all Druggists.

Health Food Co.

61 Fifth Avenue, New York
1013 Arch Street, Philadelphia
199 Tremont Street, Boston
1601 Wabash Avenue, Chicago



SAPOLIO

**DOUBLES
THE JOY
IN**

HOUSE-WORK



Oh Rose-leaf ! flushing when the South
 Doth woo thee with a warm caress,
 Thy dainty hues enchant me less
 Than Hebe's rosebud cheek and mouth;

For nothing ever can repair
 Thy tender blushes when they fade;
 But Hebe, happy little maid !
 Hath **Ivory Soap** to keep her fair.

Copyright 1896, by The Procter & Gamble Co., Cin. O.

ADVERTISEMENTS

A GODSEND TO ALL HUMANITY.

Invention of An Ohioan That Guarantees Health, Strength and Beauty by Nature's Method and Cures Without Drugs all Nervous Diseases, Rheumatism, La Grippe, Neuralgia, Kidney Troubles, Piles, Weakness and the Most Obstinate Diseases.

Those Who Have Used It Declare It To Be the Most Remarkable Invigorant Ever Produced for Man, Woman or Child.

An inventive genius of Cincinnati, Ohio, has patented and placed on the market a Bath Cabinet that is of great interest to the public, not only the sick and debilitated, but also those enjoying health.

It is a sealed compartment, in which one comfortably rests on a chair and with only the head outside, may have all the invigorating, cleansing and purifying effects of the most luxurious Turkish bath, hot vapor or

no doubt but that the long-sought-for means of curing rheumatism, la grippe, Bright's disease and all kidney and urinary affections has been found. The

Well-Known Christian Minister

of Una, S. C., Rev. R. E. Peale, highly recommends this Cabinet, as also does Mrs. Kendricks, Principal of Vassar College; Congressman John J. Lentz, John T. Brown, editor of the *Christian Guide*, many lawyers, physicians, ministers and hundreds of other influential people.

Reduces Obesity.

It is important to know that the inventor guarantees that obesity will be reduced 5 lbs. per week if these hot vapor baths are taken regularly. Scientific reasons are brought out in a very instructive little book issued by the makers. To

Cure Blood and Skin Diseases

the Cabinet is unquestionably the best thing in the world. If people instead of filling their systems with more poisons, by taking drugs and nostrums, would get into a Vapor Bath Cabinet and sweat out these poisons and assist Nature to act, they would have a skin as clear and smooth as the most fastidious could desire.

The Great Feature

of this Bath Cabinet is that it gives a Hot Vapor Bath that opens the millions of pores all over the body, stimulating the sweat glands and forcing out by nature's method all the impure salts, acids and effete matter, which, if retained, overwork the heart, kidneys and lungs and cause disease, debility, and sluggishness. A Hot Vapor Bath instills new life from the very beginning, and makes you feel 10 years younger. With the bath, if desired, is a

Head and Complexion Steamer,

in which the face and head are given the same vapor treatment as the body. This produces the most wonderful results. It removes pimples, blackheads, skin eruptions and

Cures Catarrh and Asthma.

L. B. Westbrook, Newton, Ia., writes: "For 45 years I have had catarrh and asthma to such an extent that it had eaten out the partition between my nostrils. Drugs and doctors did me no good. The first vapor bath I took helped me and two weeks' use cured me entirely, and I have never had a twinge since."

Whatever Will Hasten Perspiration, every one knows, is beneficial. Turkish baths, massage, hot drinks, stimulants, hot foot baths are all known to be beneficial, but the best of these methods become crude and insignificant when compared to the convenient and marvelous curative power of the Cabinet Bath referred to above. The Cabinet is known as the

Quaker Folding Thermal

Vapor Bath Cabinet, was patented May 18, 1897, and is made only in Cincinnati, O. This Cabinet, we find, is durably made of the best materials. It is entered and vacated by a door at the side. The Cabinet is air-tight, made of the best hygienic waterproof cloth, rubber-lined, and a folding steel-plated frame supports it from top to bottom. The makers furnish a good alcohol stove with each Cabinet; also, valuable receipts and formulas for medicated baths and ailments, as well as plain directions.

Another excellent feature is that it folds

into so small a space that it may be carried when travelling—weighs but five pounds.

People don't need bathrooms, as this Cabinet may be used in any room. Thus bath tubs have been discarded since the invention of this Cabinet, as it gives a far better bath for all cleansing purposes than soap and water. For the sickroom its advantages are at once apparent. The Cabinet is amply large enough for any person. There have been

So-Called Cabinets

on the market, but they were unsatisfactory for they had no door, no supporting frame, but were simply a cheap affair to pull on or off over the head like a skirt or barrel subjecting the body to sudden and dangerous changes of temperature, or made with a bulky wooden frame, which the heat and steam within the cabinet warped, cracked, and caused to fall apart and soon become worthless.

The Quaker Cabinet made by the Cincinnati firm is the only practical article of its kind, and will last for years. It seems to satisfy and delight every user and the

Makers Guarantee Results.

They assert positively, and their statements are backed by vast amount of testimony from persons of influence, that their Cabinet will cure nervous troubles and debility, clear the skin, purify the blood, cure rheumatism. (They offer \$5 reward for a case that cannot be relieved.) Cures women's troubles, la grippe, sleeplessness, obesity, neuralgia, headaches, gout, sciatica, piles, dropsy, blood and skin disease, liver and kidney troubles. It will

Cure a Hard Cold

with one bath, and break up all symptoms of la grippe, fevers, pneumonia, bronchitis, asthma and is really a household necessity. It is the most

Cleansing and Invigorating Bath

known, and all those enjoying health should use it at least once or twice a week, but its great value lies in its marvelous power to draw out of the system the impurities that cause disease, and for this reason is really a godsend to all humanity.

How to Get One.

All our readers who want to enjoy perfect health, prevent disease or are afflicted should have one of these remarkable Cabinets. The price is wonderfully low, space prevents a detailed description, but it will bear out the most exacting demand for durability and curative properties. Write to the World Manufacturing Co., 23 World Building, Cincinnati, O., and ask them to send you their pamphlets and circulars describing this invention. The regular price of this Cabinet is \$5. Head Steaming Attachment, if desired, \$1 extra, and it is indeed difficult to imagine where one could invest that amount of money in anything else that guarantees so much real genuine health, vigor and strength.

Write today for full information, or better still, order a Cabinet. You won't be deceived or disappointed, as the makers guarantee every Cabinet and will refund your money if not just as represented. They are reliable and responsible. Capital, \$100,000.00, and fill all orders as soon as received.

Don't fail to send for booklet, as it will prove very interesting reading.

This Cabinet is a wonderful seller for agents, and the firm offers special inducements to good agents, both men and women—upon request.



CABINET OPEN—Step in or out.



FOLDED.

medicated vapor baths at home for 3 cents each, with no possibility of taking cold, or in any way weakening the system.

A well-known physician of Topeka, Kansas, E. L. Eaton, M. D., gave up his practice to sell these bath Cabinets, feeling that they were all his patients needed to get well and keep well, as they cured the most obstinate diseases often when his medicine failed, and we understand he has already sold over 600. Another physician of Chicago, Dr. John C. Wright, followed Dr. Eaton's example, moved West and devotes his entire time to selling these Cabinets. Many others are doing likewise.

Hundreds of remarkable letters have been written the inventors from those who have used the Cabinet, two of which referring to

Rheumatism and La Grippe

will be interesting to those who suffer from these dread maladies. G. M. Lafferty, Covington, Ky., writes: "Was compelled to quit business a year ago, being prostrated by rheumatism when your Cabinet came. Two weeks' use of it entirely cured me, and have never had a twinge since. My doctor was much astonished and will recommend them. Mrs. S. S. Noteman, Hood River, Ore., writes that her neighbor used the Bath Cabinet for a severe case of la grippe and cured herself entirely in two days. Another neighbor cured eczema of many years' standing and her little girl of measles. A. B. Strickland, Bloomington, Idaho, writes that the Bath Cabinet did him more good in one week than two years' doctoring, and entirely cured him of catarrh, gravel, kidney trouble and dropsy, with which he had been long afflicted. Hundreds of others write praising this Cabinet, and there seems to be

ADVERTISEMENTS

A Skin of Beauty is a Joy Forever.

DR. T. FELIX GOURAUD'S

ORIENTAL CREAM, or MAGICAL BEAUTIFIER,

**PURIFIES
AS WELL AS
BEAUTIFIES THE SKIN**
No other cosmetic
will do it



Removes Tan, Pimples, Freckles, Moth-patches, Rash and Skin diseases, and every blemish on beauty, and defies detection. On its virtues it has stood the test of 50 years; no other has, and is so harmless we taste it to be sure it is properly made. Accept no counterfeit of similar name. The distinguished Dr. L. A. Sayre, said to a lady of the *hauton* (a patient): "As you ladies will use them, I recommend 'Gouraud's Cream' as the least harmful of all the skin preparations. One bottle

will last six months, using it every day. Also Poudre Subtile removes superfluous hair without injury to the skin.

FERD. T. HOPKINS, Prop'r, 37 Great Jones St., N. Y.

For sale by all Druggists and Fancy Goods Dealers throughout the U. S., Canada and Europe.

Beware of Base Imitations. \$1,000 Reward for arrest and proof of any one selling the same.

KNOWLEDGE THAT PAYS



Commended by the ablest and brightest minds of the world. Turn spare moments into financial and literary profit. Course of home study through correspondence, together with helpful literature, is a most attractive as well as a pre-eminently educational and profitable pastime for busy men and women who desire to enlarge their general intellectual horizon so as to better occupy

any public or social position. Philosophy of success as demonstrated daily. Keep abreast of the times and join the thousands in this grandest of all attainments. Nothing like it ever before offered. Our methods have gained world-wide popularity. Commence now—tomorrow may be too late. Terms are so low as to be entirely inadequate with value imparted. Thousands of endorsements similar to these:

A. Henry, Evanston, Ill., writes: "You have helped me to overcome all obstacles, and the returns physically and mentally have surpassed even my hopes." Rev. S. J. Carlock, San Diego, Cal., says: "Every moment brings its own reward, and life grows brighter and sweeter every day; nervousness cured, health increasing, mind clear. Others are swayed by the resistless force. I have always believed in a perfect life, but now I realize it."

Business carried on by correspondence, and those in the remotest parts of the world have the same success as residents of our city. Write at once for interesting literature. It is free.

Key to power 30c. or 12c. and addresses of three ministers, lawyers, or doctors. Address Prof. L. H. ANDERSON, S. C. 59, Masonic Temple, Chicago.

VARICOSE VEINS

Weak Knees, Weak Ankles and Swollen joints are greatly relieved and often CURED by Our Patented



Elastic Stockings

Made strictly to measure at about half usual prices. Most comfortable stocking made. Don't suffer, send for prices and self-measuring directions.

Curtis & Spindell Company
105 Market St., Lynn, Mass.

THE annual Spring Exhibition of paintings in the National Academy of Design will be held from April 3 to May 13. This will probably be the last Spring Exhibition in the old Academy building.

★

THE Longfellow National Memorial Association propose erecting a statue to the great poet at Washington, D. C. There are more than a score of statues representing the great men of America already at the capital. The idea is a good one. The Association want \$35,000. and they will surely get it. Though Longfellow was emphatically a New Englander, yet in a larger sense he was an American.

THE annual Exhibition of Paintings in the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts is larger and in every way more important than usual. There are fine contributions from New York and Boston artists. The pictures are well hung, and the display is really of high order. The Philadelphians are justly proud of it. It is being well patronized.



**Perfect...
Development**

FOLLOWS THE USE
OF THE....

**BI-TENSION
EXERCISER**

The hands are free in using it.

"The kind
that's smooth."

Made of pure rubber without pulleys or covering, hence neither jars nor binds. Everybody should have a copy of our Exercising Chart. Send for free booklet, "Science in Exercise."

THE SPINK CO.,
29 H Colonial Arcade, Cleveland, O.

"THE BUST OF BEAUTY"

(HOW TO SECURE IT.)

Scrawny
Necks
and Flat
Busts
are
Quickly
Made
Round,
Plump
and
Graceful.



This is the title of an interesting illustrated book, which we will mail, sealed in a plain envelope for the asking. It tells how (without the use of drugs) any lady may possess a perfect and attractive figure.

Even the plainest figure can be transformed to one of queenly beauty superb and fascinating.

Write to-day enclosing two cent stamp.

Correspondence confidential.

Address,

S. PEAL MEDICINE CO., Cleveland, O.

\$1.65—A Great Offer—\$1.65.

Cosmopolitan with SELF CULTURE \$1.65
Cosmopolitan with Munsey or Puritan 1.65
Cosmopolitan with McClure 1.65
Order to-day, and receive two magazines, *one full year*, for only \$1.65. Reference, Phoenix National Bank, Lexington, Ky., or any leading publisher.
Address all orders to J. M. HANSON, Lexington, Kentucky.
(Send for full club-rate catalogue.)

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertise.



GEN. LA FAYETTE

RENDERED TO THE
INFANT STATES OF AMERICA
AN INESTIMABLE SERVICE.

Van Camp's

BOSTON BAKED **PORK AND BEANS**
PREPARED WITH TOMATO SAUCE

is food Americans appreciate,
being wholesome, easily prepared, economical.
Sample can and book about best food
products for 6 cents in stamps.

VAN CAMP PACKING CO.,
354 Kentucky Avenue, Indianapolis, Ind.

VAN CAMP'S Concentrated Soups—Mock Turtle,
Vegetable, Bouillon, Tomato, Chicken and
Ox Tail—a ten-cent can makes soup for six.
Sample can for 6c in stamps.

"Instantly and deliciously at your service."

Syrup of Figs

DELIGHTFUL LIQUID LAXATIVE

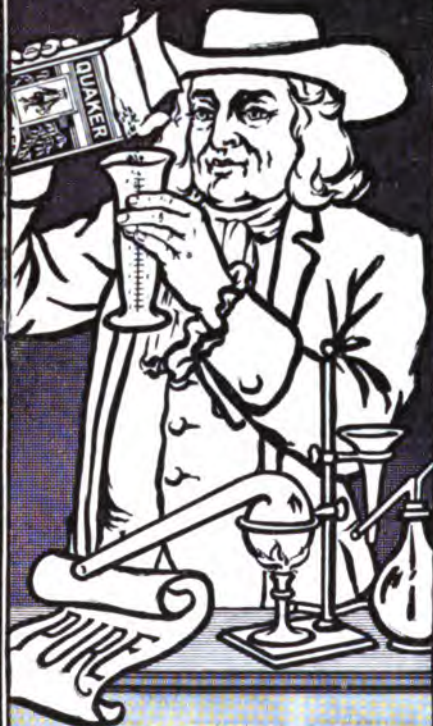
TO GET ITS BENEFICIAL EFFECTS
BUY THE GENUINE.

MANUFACTURED BY
CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP CO.
SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

FOR SALE BY ALL DRUGGISTS.
PRICE, 50¢ PER BOTTLE.

LOUISVILLE, KY.
NEW YORK, N.Y.
U.S.A.
LONDON, ENG.





A Scientific Truth

Prof. Atwater says: "We eat too much of the fuel elements of food—too much fat, butter, starch and sugar; too little of the flesh-forming elements; too little of blood, bone and nerve foods."

Quaker Oats contains the desired elements to an unequalled degree. Delicate and delicious.

THE EASY FOOD

Quaker Oats

THE WORLD'S BREAKFAST

ACCEPT NO SUBSTITUTE

ANDERSON

PAUL E. DERRICK AD'G. AGENCY

A NEW fuel composition, which has received the name of "velna," has been invented in Germany. Its principal ingredients are waste products of petroleum, refuse animal fats, and soda lye. It is proposed to make up the material into briquettes, and the fuel is said to possess gas-making and caloric qualities of a high order.

★

DR. CALMETTE, of the Pasteur Institute at Lille, has discovered an antivenomous serum by means of which the poisoning from snake-bites can always be checked and death prevented if the serum be injected within four hours after the person has been bitten.


★

WHITE flour bread, eaten, will make the eater's skin white. Arsenic, eaten, will do the same. But while white bread may give one the whiteness of the lily, it may also banish the rose-tint of health. In a New York city restaurant a new rosy face among the waiting girls told of a new arrival from over the sea, but a year later the bloom had flown. Why? Travel throughout Ireland and Scotland for a few days, and you will observe two things: First, that the distinguishing characteristic of the young men and young women is their complexion, the tint of rich red blood mounting to the cheek "as a rose in a garden of lilies"; and second, the almost utter absence of white flour. When you come back to America, and note the almost utter absence of wholesomely prepared whole-wheat flour, and the everywhere-abounding presence of the done-to-death white flour, the cause of the pallor, ill-health, and increased mortality among our people is immediately apparent.

Let us recall to your mind the story of Daniel. When taken captive and made servant to the king of Babylon, Daniel resolved that he would not be defiled by the wine from the king's table, nor starved with his ultra-refined food; so he persuaded his keeper to feed himself and his fellow captives for a given period on food of their own choosing. This food was "pulse" (flour of the whole wheat—nature's food) and water, and at the end of the time there were not found in all the king's household such strong, and ruddy, and handsome, and wise young men as Daniel and his friends, so that the king marveled. This is not the record of a miracle, but of the common sense of a country lad who suddenly found himself surrounded by the temptations of high life in a great city.

Such flour as that prepared by the Franklin Mills Co., of Lockport, N. Y., is a priceless blessing to all who are wise enough to profit by it. If anyone is determined to be ghastly, let him put the white flour ghastliness on from the outside, and not develop it from the inside at the expense of life-giving red blood.

THE MODERN **STOVE POLISH**



Enameline

PASTE
CAKE OR
LIQUID.

Every Package Guaranteed.
J.L. PRESCOTT & CO., NEW YORK.

Wool Soap Comfort

You take comfort in Wool Soap using because you know it won't hurt you, and you know it's good for your skin, for it's pure and safe. Scientifically and carefully made, quality, purity, and experience rightly mixed. If your dealer doesn't sell it, send us his name, and we will send you a cake free.

Swift and Company, Makers, Chicago

RUPTURE CURED

The Improved Elastic Truss is the only truss in existence worn with absolute comfort night and day and it retains the rupture under the hardest exercise or severest strain, and will effect a permanent and speedy cure. Comfortable Belts made to reduce corpulency. The use of these belts reduces your size and leaves no room for surplus fat to accumulate. Also belts that can be used after any operation. Send for free pamphlets to the IMPROVED ELASTIC TRUSS CO., 768 Broadway, New York. Our trusses are not sold by agents or druggists. (Established 17 years.)

ADVERTISEMENTS

DIRECT FROM DISTILLER TO CONSUMER



\$3²⁰
FOUR FULL QUARTS
Express Prepaid.

Saving Middlemen's Profits, Preventing Possibility of Adulteration.

We are distillers with a wide reputation of 30 years' standing. We sell to consumers direct, so that our whiskey may be pure when it reaches you. It is almost impossible to get pure whiskey from dealers. We have tens of thousands of customers who never buy elsewhere. We want more of them and we make this offer to get them:

We will send four full quart bottles of Hayner's Seven Year Old Double Copper Distilled Rye for \$3.20, Express Prepaid. We ship in plain packages—no marks to indicate contents. When you get it and test it, if it isn't satisfactory return it at our expense and we will return your \$3.20. Such whiskey cannot be purchased elsewhere for less than \$5.00.

We are the only distillers selling to consumers direct. Others who claim to be are only dealers. Our whiskey has our reputation behind it.

Hayner Distilling Co., 75-81 W. Fifth St., Dayton, O.

Reference—Third Nat'l Bank, any business house in Dayton or Com'l Agents.

P.S.—Orders for Ariz., Colo., Cal., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. Mex., Ore., Utah, Wash., Wyo., must call for 20 quarts, by freight, prepaid.

(The above offer is genuine. We guarantee the above firm will do as they agree.—EDITOR.)



No. 1284—Two-seater Phaeton; leather top, long-distance axles, open rubber band springs, etc. Price complete with side curtains, storm apron, lamps, fenders and shafts, \$90. As good as retails for \$140.

Don't Waste Money

When you buy a vehicle or harness from your local dealer you are compelled to pay about 30 per cent more than is actually necessary. The bulk of this increased price is represented in his profit. Buy direct from the factory and save it.

We have no Agents....

And are the Largest Manufacturers of Vehicles and Harness in the World Selling to the Consumer Exclusively.

We make 170 styles of vehicles and 65 styles of harness. You may not be accustomed to this method of doing business, but it will save you money. Don't buy anything in this line until you get a copy of our large free illustrated catalog.



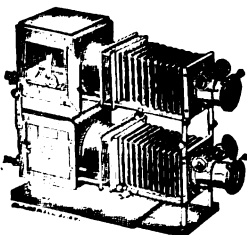
No. 65—Single Breast Strap Harness with genuine rubber trimmings, \$15.50. Same as sells for \$25.

ELKHART CARRIAGE AND HARNESS MFG. CO., W. B. Pratt, Secy., ELKHART, INDIANA.

LARKIN SOAPS

AND PREMIUMS.—FACTORY TO FAMILY
Send for a beautiful booklet free. It tells how to obtain, free, the famous Larkin premiums worth \$10.00 each.
The Larkin Soap Mfg. Co., Larkin St., Buffalo, N.Y.

OUR OFFER FULLY EXPLAINED IN APRIL SELF CULTURE.



HAVE YOU CONSIDERED

that a poorly colored slide hurts your business? Why should you engage amateurs to do your work when you can have them executed for 50 cents in the very best style and the work guaranteed at that; if not giving perfect satisfaction, we do the work over again, as one customer satisfied brings us a dozen others. Send a sample slide and 60 cents and we will color and mail it back to you free with our catalogue and lists. Send for our catalogue, 20 cents, of over 30,000 subjects kept in stock or hire, or War lists free.

RILEY BROTHERS, Dept. S, 16 Beekman Street, New York

BRANCHES:
KANSAS CITY, MO., 515 E. 14th St. MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., 222 Nicollet Ave.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

ASTIGMATISM POSITIVELY CURED OR MONEY REFUNDED.

THE IDEAL SIGHT RESTORER

THE INESTIMABLE BLESSING OF SIGHT.

AVOID SPECTACLES & EYEGLASSES. HEADACHE & SURGICAL OPERATION. ILLUSTRATED PAMPHLET ON THE EYE, MAILED FREE.

PAT. FEB. 7, 1899.

THE IDEAL COMPANY, 239 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.



Cancer and Tumor Cured without the aid of knife or plaster, and without pain. A treatise, testimonials and letter of advice free. Address, VEGETABLE CANCER CURE CO., CHATHAM, N. Y. The finest sanitarium in America.

No Fire, Smoke or Heat. Absolutely Safe. Send Five Stamps for Catalogue.

TRUSCOTT BOAT MFG. CO., ST. JOSEPH, MICH.

INGERSOLL SHIRT SET, 15c.



SOLL & BRO., Dept. 93

All Rolled Gold Plate; Guaranteed to Wear at least a year. All the Lever Buttons shown in cut, also a Pair of Latest Style Dumb-Bells and Nickel Tie Clasp. Postpaid for 15c. 2 for 25c.; \$1.25 Doz. This Set would cost 60c. in any store. SEND for Big CATALOGUE of JEWELRY and other Goods FREE. R. H. INGER-

67 Cortlandt St., N. Y. CITY.

GET RICH

Fortunes in STOCKS. Shares \$1.00 a month. Safe as a Bank. Send 4c for Guide. A. H. WILCOX & CO. 529 Broadway, New York.



WHY PAY MONEY WHEN IT WILL ONE CENT TO SECURE A SOLID GOLD laid Carben DIAMOND RING, here illustrated. Similar looking rings could not be bought of any jeweler for less than \$25. Do you want one for nothing but a few hours of your spare time? We wish to enlarge the sale of our celebrated Persian Perfumed Perfumery, the most unique novelty now on the market, and in order to do so, we agree on receipt of your name and address only, to send you twenty cases of the Perfume, WHICH YOU CAN SELL AT FIVE CENTS PER CASE in as many hours. Few by mail, postpaid, without asking you one cent in advance. When you have sold the 20 cases at 5c. per case, then remit us \$1.00 and we send you as a free present the HANDSOME RING described above. No capital required. We take all risk. The most liberal offer ever heard of. Simply send your name & address & we forward you the Perfumery at once. PERSIAN PERFUMERY CO., 7 Warren St., New York.

Patent SAFETY PIN TOP No Stitching in the Elastic

The *Velvet Grip* Hose CUSHION BUTTON Supporter

NEVER SLIPS OR TEARS

LOOK for the little YELLOW GUARANTY COUPON on every pair—a ready identification of the Genuine

EVERY PAIR WARRANTED

GEORGE FROST CO. MAKERS, BOSTON, U.S.A.

Sample pair by mail, 25c. Catalogue Free.

The **BUTTON** is moulded from the Best Grade of RUBBER and the Name 'VELVET GRIP' is stamped on every LOOP

BE SURE IT'S THERE

Best Materials

Most Durable

PATENT SLIDE BAR BUCKLE

Does not injure the ELASTIC



BEST ROUTE



NEW YORK BUFFALO

CLEVELAND

CINCINNATI CHICAGO

...Erie Railroad...

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

N. E. A. Convention

*Los Angeles, Cal.,
July 11-14, 1899*

The Santa Fe Route

Is the most comfortable summer route—
It provides the best dining-car and eating-
house service in the world.

It is 24 to 36 hours shorter to Los Angeles
than any other line.

This Route presents scenes of extraordinary interest to the
educated traveler, which are fully set forth in the following
illustrated descriptive books, mailed free on application :

To California and Back,
176 pp., 176 illus-
trations.

The Moki Snake Dance,
60 pp., 64 illustra-
tions.

**New Mexico Health Re-
sorts,** 88 pp., 45 il-
lustrations.

Grand Canon of Arizona,
32 pp., 15 illustra-
tions.

Las Vegas Hot Springs,
48 pp., 39 illustra-
tions.

Arizona Health Resorts,
84 pp., 27 illustra-
tions.

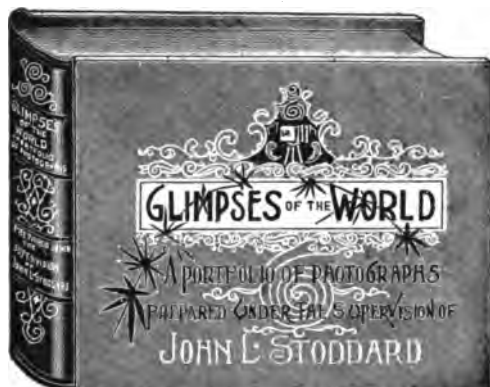
The summer climate of southern California is delightful.
The mid-summer temperature of Los Angeles, San Diego, Coronado and Santa
Barbara is lower than that of most Eastern cities.

Address General Passenger Office,
The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway,
CHICAGO.

Correspondence solicited.

IMPORTANT ANNOUNCEMENT

By special arrangement with the publishers, we are able to offer to any of our readers who may be willing to interest themselves in the introduction of SELF CULTURE among their friends, two most timely and beautiful books in return for such work.



Size 14 x 11 inches. 550 pages. Fine enameled paper.

We will forward this book, carriage prepaid, to any one sending us (5) five dollars for five subscriptions to SELF CULTURE for one year.

Publishers' price, \$4.50.

This great work embraces the finest and most elaborate collection of photographic views ever published. The volume contains grand panoramic views of famous cities, scenes of great events in the world's history, castles, cathedrals, paintings, statuary, etc., etc. The size of the picture on each page is 8x10 inches. Under each photograph is a graphic description of the scene or event presented, by the most famous traveler and lecturer of modern times, Mr. John L. Stoddard. Only one side of a page is printed upon, thus securing the most superb effects. The binding is a handsome and durable buckram.

No more interesting and instructive book has ever been published. Hours can be passed most pleasantly and instructively in looking over its pages and reading Mr. Stoddard's descriptions, which are vastly entertaining, and packed full of information. The book is especially valuable and helpful for students in history and geography, as in no other way can so many illustrations of places, historical events, and customs and dress of different peoples, be secured.

JOHN SHERMAN'S RECOLLECTIONS OF FORTY YEARS IN THE HOUSE, SENATE, AND CABINET

This great work, upon which Mr. Sherman was engaged for several of the best years of his life, presents a clear review of the political and financial history of the United States during his career as Representative, Senator, Secretary of the Treasury, etc. The period covered is the most important in the history of the United States. The distinguished writer's comments upon the leading men and movements of his time are most interesting and valuable.

The work is issued in two royal octavo volumes, bound in cloth, containing over 1,200 pages, finely and clearly printed on extra paper, and is fully illustrated with pictures of all the leading statesmen of the last forty years.

The publishers' price for the two volumes is \$7.50.



We will forward these volumes, carriage prepaid, to any one sending us (8) eight dollars for eight subscriptions to SELF CULTURE for one year.

We would thank any one who can give special attention to the work of securing subscribers to SELF CULTURE, and will push the work energetically, to write us at once for the special terms we are offering on such work for the next three months. Most liberal cash commissions and attractive inducements.

SELF CULTURE MAGAZINE, AKRON, OHIO

Some Valuable Opinions

"WE ARE ADVERTISED BY OUR LOVING FRIENDS."—HENRY VI.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

"The issues of SELF CULTURE are, like previous numbers which you have sent me, solid and attractive. You are to be congratulated upon putting out so good a publication."

J. G. SCHURMAN,
President.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE

"I wholly agree with the opinion that the magazine is admirable in many respects; that a wide circulation of such a magazine, so reasonable and sane in all its judgments, and so judicious in its selection of subjects, cannot fail to be of great service to just the class for whom it is designed. I congratulate the editor on the skill manifested in his own personal work."

FRANKLIN CARTER, *President.*

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

"You are conducting an admirable magazine and likely to do great good throughout the country. I was surprised, in looking at the numbers sent me, to see so many articles that were interesting to me, and how many of them seemed well fitted to interest and instruct the bright youth of our country."

D. C. GILMAN, *President.*

UNIVERSITY of WISCONSIN

"I am favorably impressed by the variety of subjects and the excellence of the work in SELF CULTURE. Evidently the magazine deserves a large measure of success."

C. K. ADAMS,
President.

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

"I have long been a reader of SELF CULTURE. The magazine seems to me to cultivate in a most fitting way its great field. I am sure that it is at once an instruction and inspiration to many."

CHAS. F. THWING,
President.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY

"It is a publication of high grade, and yet it appeals to a class of readers whose wants are not properly met in most of the magazines to-day. I wish you great success in your work."

J. H. KIRKLAND,
Chancellor.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY

"I have looked over the numbers of SELF CULTURE with great interest. It seems to me that your magazine cannot fail to be of great value in the interest of general culture. I should be glad if I could aid you in any way in the commendable work you have undertaken."

DAVID S. JORDAN, *President.*

LAFAYETTE COLLEGE

"I am very pleasantly impressed with the scope and purpose of your publication (SELF CULTURE), and congratulate you on the able men whom you have secured as contributors. Many of your departments seem to me exceedingly valuable for the school teachers of our country in supplying them with sources of information scarcely otherwise to be obtained. With best wishes for your success."

E. D. WARFIELD, *President.*

BOSTON UNIVERSITY

"From those issues of SELF CULTURE which have fallen under my eye, I judge that the magazine is doing an excellent service to a large public."

WM. F. WARREN, *President.*

UNIVERSITY of CALIFORNIA

"I see much valuable material furnished in SELF CULTURE, and doubt not it will have a field of very considerable usefulness."

MARTIN KELLOGG,
President.

UNIVERSITY of MONTANA

"From the variety of contents, including both new and old, and from the crisp, attractive style in which the articles are written, SELF CULTURE must become deservedly very popular."

OSCAR J. CRAIG, *President.*

NEVADA STATE UNIVERSITY

"I have read with pleasure the several copies of SELF CULTURE which you have been so kind as to send to my address. The general plan of the magazine, including tasteful mechanical features and its moderate price, ought to commend it to the very large constituency of men and women who are alive to the worth of steady self-culture year by year, regardless of age and position in life. Please put my name on your subscription list."

J. E. STUBBS,
President.

UNIVERSITY of IDAHO

"I am much pleased at the general scope of the work outlined and with the general appearance and tone of SELF CULTURE. I shall be glad to have you contribute it to our library and reading-room or make us a special rate for the magazine. If I can be of any assistance to you in any way, please command me."

F. B. GAULT, *President.*

IOWA STATE COLLEGE

"SELF CULTURE is a most commendable magazine and deserving of wide patronage."

W. M. BEARDSHEAR, *President.*

TESTIMONIALS

"I have been a subscriber to your magazine less than one year. It is true to its name, and supplies a long-felt want for a magazine that is interesting, instructive and uplifting. SELF CULTURE is all of these and more. I for one am pleased to see it illustrated."

MYRA E. WARNER,
Newtown, Conn.

"It has been a great help to me in my study, and now I hardly know how I could do without it. I wish you great success in your new plans for its betterment."

R. W. MARTIN,
Danville, Ill.

"Here is one dollar as payment for continuing SELF CULTURE, the best magazine for the money published. It has for a long time been a welcome visitor in my family, and we shall try to continue the acquaintance. Such a treasury of knowledge, abundant and choice, is invaluable to old and young alike, who may desire to cultivate a taste for the best products of the best minds."

Very truly yours,
N. H. WHITMORE,
Prin. Mary Hemenway School,
Boston, Mass.

"I am greatly pleased with SELF CULTURE, and can say but good of it, and hope that many may become readers of SELF CULTURE soon who are not now."

Yours kindly,
FLOSSIE BAXTER,
Rose Lawn, Ind.

"Inclosed find Express Order for one dollar, a year's subscription to your magazine SELF CULTURE. Congratulations on its appearance in its new form. It is a remarkable work."

Yours truly,
W. S. WILSON,
St. Catharines, Ont.

"I find that it is the leading magazine for all seekers after knowledge."

Yours truly,
WM. EDWARDS,
Easton, Pa.

"It affords me pleasure to submit the names of a few friends who I believe may be interested in SELF CULTURE. The magazine is one of the very best that I receive. I appreciate the efforts to make it still better."

Yours respectfully,
J. S. FLORY,
Bridgewater, Va.

"I read SELF CULTURE with great profit and pleasure. It has been commended by all to whom I have introduced it. I will continue to urge it upon my friends."

E. S. B.,
New York city.

"I do not know that you will get a single subscriber from the inclosed list. I can only hope you will, for you deserve the largest possible encouragement. The people in this section of Virginia are poor, and have a pretty hard struggle, but sometimes this very class are attracted by something so thoroughly good as SELF CULTURE. I have asked above not to mention my name. The magazine must sell on its intrinsic merits."

E. C. PECHIN,
Torega, Va.

"I have been greatly pleased with the magazine, and would not exchange it for any other published in the United States, and earnestly hope you may secure 500,000 new subscribers."

Respectfully,
(MRS.) ANNE L. CRUMP,
Washington, D. C.

"I hope your reduction in price is the result of your success, and trust that at the reduced rate you may have a million subscribers."

Yours truly,
J. W. ARCHIBALD,
Jacksonville, Fla.

"A few days ago I laid hands on a copy of SELF CULTURE, and was more than pleased with its contents. It is the best magazine I have had the pleasure of reading. Find inclosed \$1.00 in Her Majesty's legal tender, I think it is worth its face value in your state, for a year's subscription commencing with the September number of the current year."

Sincerely,
FRED B. ELLIOTT,
Burlington, Ont.

"Let me say I am delighted with the new magazine. I thought it could not be improved heretofore, but you certainly have improved it 50 per cent. I trust your subscription list may double, for it is worthy of it."

MISS ELLA A. GRIFFITH,
Bangor, N. Y.

"I am glad to recommend your enterprise as I consider it by far the best magazine for a cultured home."

I am,
Yours very truly,
(REV.) C. A. ANDERSON,
Epiphany Rectory, Kingsville, Ont.

Profitable Work

.....**For** Intelligent Service



IT every residence, in every town and hamlet in America, we expect to have some one call during the next six months, leave sample copies and present the high merits of our Magazine.

This offers an opportunity for profitable employment of a most delightful character, as it gives easy access to every refined home. It approaches the ideal of pleasant and highly remunerative labor.

The Magazine is liked everywhere, known widely, and gives more and a better character of literature of interest to every member of the family circle than can be obtained elsewhere for one dollar per year. We will protect you in territory. In towns of 2,000 or less one representative is allowed.

Give references and reply at once. Samples furnished free. We guarantee satisfactory terms. Address

Self Culture Magazine, Akron, Ohio

ADVERTISEMENTS



THE WERNER COMPANY

FACTORY

AKRON, OHIO

NEW YORK

BERLIN

LONDON

CHICAGO

*Publishers, Manufacturers of Books, Lithographers,
..... General Printers and Engravers*

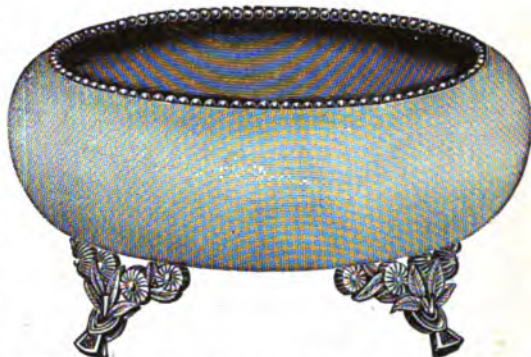
*PUBLISHERS
SELF CULTURE MAGAZINE*

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

WE have also made an unprecedented arrangement with one of the largest manufacturers of silverware in the country, by which we can make the following unparalleled offer to those who will interest their friends in SELF CULTURE. We believe these propositions are more liberal than those made by any other publishers.

To anyone sending us one new subscription, with one dollar, we will send this beautiful Bonbonniere. It is three inches in height and six inches across the top, and presents an elegant appearance. It is made of pure, hard white metal, is quadruple plated with finest silver, and the inside is lined with 24-carat gold. Its finish is perfect, and the design of the latest pattern. The manufacturer's guarantee accompanies each article.



This superb Ice-Water Pitcher is 12 inches high, and 9 3/4 inches in width — a full-sized pitcher. It is made of hard white metal, quadruple plated with finest silver, hand engraved and burnished, satin finished, and is of the latest (1899) pattern. The manufacturer's guarantee as to quality will accompany each pitcher. These pitchers regularly retail at \$7.00 each. We will send one to any person sending us five new subscribers with (\$5.00) five dollars. Under this offer any of our subscribers may include a renewal of their subscription for another year, sending four additional new subscribers.

Both these premiums will be sent FREE OF EXPENSE. Please notice that these two propositions can remain open only until May 1st, and as the number of pieces we have been able to secure is comparatively limited, we would advise all who wish to take advantage of these liberal offers to send in their subscriptions AT ONCE.

SELF CULTURE MAGAZINE, AKRON, OHIO

SOROSIS



THE above trade-mark branded into the sole enables you to identify the "Sorosis" shoe. **Always, everywhere, \$3.50** (excepting in countries where duties are charged). Until the price was advertised, this shoe was retailed by reliable firms for \$5, \$6, and \$7. "Sorosis" make your feet look well no matter what size you wear, and combine the extreme of style with the perfection of comfort and common sense. All imitations lack the peculiar and remarkable qualities of the genuine "Sorosis."

Our catalogue (showing twenty-seven styles), for all seasons and all occasions, mailed free if you ask for it.

A. E. LITTLE & CO.
85 BLAKE STREET, LYNN, MASS.

ADVERTISEMENTS

THE GUARANTY COUPON
THE Velvet Grip CUSHION BUTTON
 HOSE SUPPORTER
 is guaranteed to the dealer
 and user against imperfections.
 Look for the Name on every loop.

NEVER SLIPS OR TEARS

**THIS GUARANTY GOES
 WITH EVERY PAIR**

**No Stitching
 in the Elastic.**

Velvet Grip
**CUSHION
 BUTTON**
HOSE SUPPORTER

GEO. FROST CO., Makers, Boston.
LOOK FOR THE NAME "VELVET GRIP" ON EVERY LOOP.

Sample pair,
 by mail, 25c.
 Catalogue free.



The J. W. O'Bannon Co.

Agents for Holliston Linen Finish Book Cloths and Buckrams.

Importers of GERMAN BOOK CLOTH

..... 72 Duane Street, NEW YORK.

...Importers and Dealers in..

BOOK BINDERS'

.....SUPPLIES.....

Of Every Description.



THE FUCHS & LANG MFG. CO.
 MANUFACTURERS OF
**Photo-Engravers
 Supplies**
ZINC & COPPER PLATES, SCREENS, & C
 29 WARREN ST.
NEW YORK

273 DEARBORN ST.
CHICAGO
 FACTORY
 BROOKLYN, N.Y.




Skin- Keeping Wool Soap

Wool Soap is made for the skin, and even for skin as delicate as baby's skin. Only the best and purest of soap-making elements are used in manufacturing it. Wool Soap is positively safe for the

Toilet and Bath

Swift and Company, Makers, Chicago

Pure Whiskey

Direct from
Distiller to
Consumer

\$3.20
FOUR
Full Quarts,
Express Paid.

Saves Middlemen's
Profits. Prevents
Adulteration.

FOR thirty
years we
have been
distilling the
best whiskey
that can be
made. Our rep-
utation for
making pure
whiskey is as
wide as Amer-
ica, and we have
thousands of
customers in
every State in
the Union.



Proposition :

We will send
you four full quart
bottles of Hayner's
Seven Year Old Double Copper Distilled
Rye for \$3.20, Express Prepaid. We ship
in plain packages—no marks to indicate
contents. When you get it and test it,
if it isn't satisfactory return it at our
expense, and we will return your \$3.20.
Such whiskey cannot be purchased else-
where for less than \$5.00.

No other distiller sells to consumers
direct. Others who offer you whiskey
in this way are dealers buying and sell-
ing. Our whiskey has the Hayner rep-
utation behind it.

References—Third National Bank, any
business house in Dayton, or Com-
mercial Agencies.

THE HAYNER DISTILLING CO.,
75-81 West Fifth St., DAYTON, OHIO.

P. S.—Orders for Ariz., Colo., Cal., Idaho, Mont.,
Nev., N. Mex., Ore., Utah, Wash., Wyo., must
be for 20 qts., by freight, prepaid.

We guarantee the above firm will do as they agree.—STACK

Have You Seen the Quality



of our slides? If not we will
give you an opportunity to do
so; we will mail you our illu-
strated catalogue, 225 pages.
Hire and War lists, and sam-
ple slide, plain for \$5.00, or col-
ored slide for \$1.00. This will
give you some idea of the
beauty of our work and we guarantee orders to
be equal to samples.

RILEY BROTHERS

Department S, 16 Beekman St., New York

BRANCHES

{ Kansas City—515 E. 14th Street.
Minneapolis—222 Nicollet, Avenue.

LADIES.....

ATTENTION PLEASE

"KNOWLEDGE IS POWER." Medical knowledge often saves and prolongs life. Keep in perfect health yourself and be prepared to minister to the health of those you love.

CONFIDENTIAL MEDICAL TALKS TO WOMEN

By....
ROBERT A. GUNN,
M. D.

gives absolutely reliable information regarding the Health of Women and Children, Woman's Physical Structure, Maidenhood—Education of Women, Womanhood and Wifehood, Motherhood, Babyhood, Childhood.

DISEASES OF WOMEN and GENERAL HYGIENE

This book saves doctor's bills

You cannot afford to be without it.

Price, Cloth, \$1.50

SENT POSTPAID UPON RECEIPT
OF PRICE * * * * *

D. M. MACLELLAN

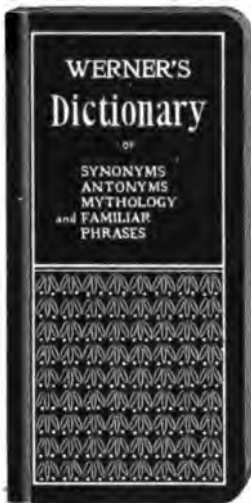
111 FIFTH AVENUE

NEW YORK, N. Y.

Werner's Dictionary

.....OF..... SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

No two words in the English Language have exactly the same significance. To express the precise meaning that one intends to convey, a Dictionary of Synonyms is needed in order to avoid repetition.



The strongest figure of speech is Antithesis.

In **WERNER'S
DICTIONARY
of SYNONYMS
and
ANTONYMS,**

the appended
Antonyms will therefore
be found extremely
valuable.

Read what Senator **DANIEL WEBSTER** Groping for Synonyms :

"He had a singular habit, which made it wearisome to listen to his ordinary speech, of groping after the most suitable word, and trying one SYNONYM after another till he got that which suited him best. 'Why is it, Mr. Chairman, that there has gathered, congregated, come together here, this great number of inhabitants, dwellers, that these roads, avenues, routes of travel, highways, converge, meet, come together here? Is it not because we have here a sufficient, ample, safe, secure, convenient, commodious port, harbor, haven?' Of course, when the speech came to be printed all the SYNONYMS but the best one would be left out."

OTHER SPECIAL FEATURES CONTAINED IN WERNER'S DICTIONARY OF SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS:

MYTHOLOGY —

The Heathen Deities and other Fabulous Persons of Greek and Roman History.

FAMILIAR ALLUSIONS —

Words and Phrases, Persons, Places, Pictures, Buildings, Streets and Mouuments frequently alluded to in Literature and in Conversation.

FOREIGN PHRASES —

Including Sentences and Quotations from both Living and Dead Languages.

HEROES AND HEROINES OF PROSE AND POETRY —

A Compendium of the celebrated Characters in the Literature of the World.

DICTIONARY of MUSICAL TERMS, DATES, ABBREVIATIONS, etc., concluding with Prof. **LOISETTE'S MEMORY SYSTEM, the ART OF NEVER FORGETTING.**

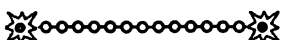
CLOTH, Price 25c., postpaid.

FULL LEATHER GILT, 50c., postpaid.

THE WERNER COMPANY, - - AKRON, OHIO

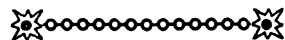
MRS. GILLETTE'S COOK BOOK

THE ART AND SCIENCE OF COOKING.



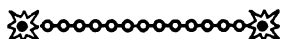
COMPRISES:

Cooking, Toilet,
.. and ..
Household Recipes,
MENUS,
Dinner Giving,
Table Etiquette,
Medical Items,
Diet for Invalids.



The Author has had **Fifty Years** of Experience in practical house-keeping. She has just celebrated her Golden Wedding Anniversary.

Adapted alike to **Town, City, and Country Life**, and is strictly Up-to-Date American Cookery.



THINGS WORTH KNOWING.

Not a mere compilation of recipes, but a complete and thorough outline of culinary ideas, accumulated throughout an every-day house-keeping experience of fifty years.

All the recipes have undergone thorough and practical tests, and can in every way be absolutely relied upon to give entire satisfaction.



SPECIAL FEATURES.

Contains important chapters on **Carving, Diet for Invalids** (this department comprises a book in itself and is worth more than the price of the whole book), **Chating Dishes, Dinner Giving and Laying of Table, Garnishing Dishes, Menus, Table Etiquette, Valuable Household Items.**



STYLE AND FINISH OF THE BOOK.

The binding, cover, and general typographical features are the latest and the most applicable for the purpose. Its pages are broad; the type large and clear. Bound in enameled cloth which may be easily cleaned.



PRICE, POSTPAID, - - - - - \$2.50.

The Werner Company,

NEW YORK

AKRON, OHIO

CHICAGO

The People . . . I've Smiled With

By
Marshall P. Wilder,
The American Humorist.



NEW EDITION WITH TWO PORTRAITS.

To this brave and philosophical youth has been given the richest of dowers,—the power to make others happy. In his soul no envy lurks. His heart is brimful of charity. His name is synonymous with Mirth. He is a living illustration of how kindly the harsh world receives those who come to it smiling and bearing in their hands offerings of good will.

He has written here a little book which is a reflex of his own happy, buoyant nature. It contains recollections of a life which has known no evil, and which, if it has not always been spent in Sunshine, has reflected every pleasant rainbow hue which has fallen upon it.

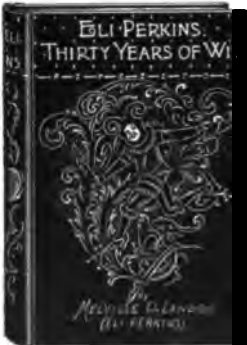
Printed from large, clear type on fine laid paper.

12 Mo., Beautifully bound in English Silk Cloth, with Special
Cover Design in Gold \$1.25
Paper Bound50

ELI PERKINS' "THIRTY YEARS OF WIT."

By
Melville D. Landon (Eli Perkins)

New and Improved Edition With Portrait.



The object of this book is to give to the people the best anecdotes, the best wit and humor, and the brightest sayings of the Nineteenth century, and to transmit them to posterity.

The following is a partial list of the amusing contents:—

General Sherman's Anecdotes and Jokes, Reminiscences of Wm. R. Travers, Chauncey Depew's Best Stories, Wild West Exaggerations, Eli Explains Repartee, Political Anecdotes and Wisdom, Story Telling Clergymen, Doctors' Wit and Humor, Eli with the Lawyers, Henry Ward Beecher's Humor, etc., etc.

Printed in large, clear type on fine laid paper.

12 Mo., Beautifully bound in English Silk Cloth, with Special
Cover Design in Gold and Inks \$1.25
Paper Binding50

THE WERNER COMPANY,

NEW YORK

AKRON, OHIO

CHICAGO

CONFIDENTIAL MEDICAL TALKS

..To Women..

By DOCTOR ROBERT A. GUNN.



Interesting Chapters on:—

HEALTH OF WOMEN AND
CHILDREN,
WOMAN'S PHYSICAL STRUCTURE,
BABYHOOD,
CHILDHOOD,
MAIDENHOOD,
WOMANHOOD,
MOTHERHOOD,
GENERAL HYGIENE.



This book is designed to occupy a position at once unique and important. It is a book expressly for women.

It deals exhaustively and intelligently with a vast number of matters, concerning which all ladies ought to be thoroughly informed. In its comprehensive sweep, it covers the whole ground of personal and domestic life, and, especially for women just entering on the many cares and responsibilities of married life. It would be exceedingly difficult to find, among the many books devoted to these matters, a more suitable **Adviser, Friend, and Guide.**



Printed from new plates, in large, clear type, on fine super-calendered paper. Beautifully bound in English Silk Cloth with special Cover Design in Gold and Inks. Profusely Illustrated. 12mo.

PRICE, POSTPAID, - - - - \$1.50.



D. M. MacLellan,

iii Fifth Avenue, = = = New York, N. Y.

N. E. A. Convention

*Los Angeles, Cal.,
July 11-14, 1899*

The Santa Fe Route

Is the most comfortable summer route —
It provides the best dining-car and eating-house service in the world.

It is 24 to 36 hours shorter to Los Angeles than any other line.

This Route presents scenes of extraordinary interest to the educated traveler, which are fully set forth in the following illustrated descriptive books, mailed free on application :

To California and Back,
176 pp., 176 illustrations.

The Moki Snake Dance,
60 pp., 64 illustrations.

New Mexico Health Resorts, 88 pp., 45 illustrations.

Grand Canon of Arizona,
32 pp., 15 illustrations.

Las Vegas Hot Springs,
48 pp., 39 illustrations.

Arizona Health Resorts,
84 pp., 27 illustrations.

The summer climate of southern California is delightful.
The mid-summer temperature of Los Angeles, San Diego, Coronado and Santa Barbara is lower than that of most Eastern cities.

Address General Passenger Office,
The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway,
CHICAGO.

Correspondence solicited.

ADVERTISEMENTS

BEST ROUTE



NEW YORK BUFFALO
CLEVELAND
CINCINNATI CHICAGO

...Erie Railroad...

ADVERTISEMENTS



THIS BRAND MARK
ON EVERY SHOE



THIS BRAND MARK
ON EVERY SHOE

SOROSIS

THE NEW SHOE FOR WOMEN.

A perfect shoe
at a fair price,
and the best
at any price.



Until the price was advertised, this shoe was retailed by reliable firms for \$5, \$6, and \$7. Sorosis make your feet look well, no matter what size you wear, and combine the extreme of style with the perfection of comfort and common sense. All imitations lack the peculiar and remarkable qualities of the genuine "Sorosis."

Now, Everywhere, \$3.50 (excepting in countries where duties are charged.)

Our Catalogue (shows twenty-seven styles) mailed FREE if you ask for it.

A. E. LITTLE & CO.,

85 Blake Street, - - - - - Lynn, Mass.



THIS BRAND MARK
ON EVERY SHOE



THIS BRAND MARK
ON EVERY SHOE

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.



In her hand this dainty nurse
 The symbolism bears,
 Of Purity and Excellence
 And Cleanliness - 'tis PEAR'S'

G. MERCER ADAM, Editor

CONTENTS FOR AUGUST, 1899

	PAGE
Quebec: The Gibraltar of America . . . (Illus.)	601
Papal Possibilities (With Portraits from Photographs by F. De Federicis, Official Photographer at the Vatican) . . . M. J. F.	610
The True Story of Betsy Ross—Birth of the American Flag . . . (Illus.)	614
A National School of Diplomacy . . . LEON MEAD	620
Bird Study . . . MARGARET C. GILMORE	627
A Decade of Institutional Development in Phila- delphia . . . (Illus.)	629
Missions and Social Evolution . . . (Illus.)	636
The Anglo-American Rapprochement . . . ARTHUR E. DAVIES, Ph.D.	640
The Famous Lyons Mail Case . . . FRANK H. MARK	644
Trusts—Their Legal Status . . . EDWIN BURRITT SMITH	648
Andreas Hofer, the Tyrolese Patriot (With Illustrations from the Historical Paintings of Franz Defregger) . . .	657
The Educational Value of the Study of Roman Law . . .	665
Browning's "The Return of the Druses" Con- sidered as an Example of Dramatic Literature . . .	669
The World and Its Doings: Editorial Comment The English in South Africa—England and the Transvaal —The New French Cabinet—The Re-trial of Dreyfus— The Peace Conference at The Hague—The Political Crisis in Belgium—The Outbreaks in Spain—Australian Federation—Peace in Samoa—The Sugar Problem in Jamaica—The Gloomy Outlook in the Philippines . . .	673
Departments	
WOMAN AND THE HOME Discouragement of American Art—The Future Careers of Our Youth—A Sorry Task—A Woman's Practical Citizenship—Should Women Propose?—The Interna- tional Council at London—The Programmes of Women's Clubs—The General Federation of Women's Clubs . . .	681
ART AND MUSIC Is Music Intellectual? . . .	684
THE LITERARY WORLD: BOOK REVIEWS Arnold Forster's "History of England"—Contemporary Spain—Some Sidelihts on American History—Source Book of American History—The Standard Intermediate School Dictionary—An Educationist's Memoirs . . .	688
THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD A Word on College Education . . .	690
YOUTHS' DEPARTMENT The Lord of Greenway . . .	692
The Weight of a Lion . . .	694
A Burial-Ground for Dogs . . .	694
ROUND THE TABLE Sea Etiquette . . .	695

Title Page and Index to Volume IX

"Self Culture" will be published on the 25th of each month. It will be sent postpaid for one year on receipt of \$1.00. Single numbers 10 cents. Subscriptions may begin at any time, and back numbers can be supplied to complete sets, with the exception of No. 3 of Volume I (June, 1895) which is entirely out of print. Money may be sent by Express Money Order, P. O. Money Order, Bank Draft, or Registered Letter. Money sent in letters is at sender's risk. When change of address is desired always give former address.

THE WERNER COMPANY, Publishers, - - - AKRON, OHIO.

SYRUP OF FIGS



The Excellence of Syrup of Figs

is due not only to the originality and simplicity of the combination, but also to the care and skill with which it is manufactured by scientific processes known to the CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP Co. only, and we wish to impress upon all the importance of purchasing the true and original remedy. As the genuine Syrup of Figs is manufactured by the CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP Co. only, a knowledge of that fact will assist one in avoiding the worth-

less imitations manufactured by other parties. The high standing of the CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP Co. with the medical profession, and the satisfaction which the genuine Syrup of Figs has given to millions of families, makes the name of the Company a guarantee of the excellence of its remedy. It is far in advance of all other laxatives, as it acts on the kidneys, liver, and bowels without irritating or weakening them, and it does not gripe nor nauseate. In order to get its beneficial effects, please remember the name of the Company—

CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP CO., San Francisco, Cal. **LOUISVILLE, KY.**
NEW YORK, N. Y.

For sale by all druggists. Price, 50 cents per bottle.



Morrison & Cass Paper Company

JOSEPH K. CASS, President
JOHN G. ANDERSON, Secretary
and Treasurer
CAPITAL STOCK, \$500,000



DAILY CAPACITY:
40 TONS PAPER
30 TONS SODA FIBRE

Manufacturers of
**Machine Finish and
Super Calendered Book Papers
and Engine Sized Writings**

— TYRONE, PA.



Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

THE UNITED STATES ARMY AND NAVY

1776 . . . 1899

Text for the Army Section by
LIEUT.-COL. A. L. WAGNER,
Assistant Adjutant-General, U. S. A.

Text for the Navy Section by
COMMANDER J. D. JERROLD KELLEY,
U. S. N.



*Their History from the Era of the REVOLUTION to the
Close of the SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, with accounts
of ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, DUTIES*

ILLUSTRATED

A Distinct and Thrilling History in Itself.

An Ever Changing Panorama, Bristling with Interest.

Mechanically, a Model of the Art of Modern Book-Making.

Represents the Highest Style of a De Luxe Edition.

Contains Forty-three Full-page Illustrations and

One Hundred and Sixty Pages of Text, 13½ x 18 inches.

Printed on Heavy, Velvet-finished Book Paper.

Price \$10.00

Each Copy Packed in a Strong Pasteboard Box.

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

THE UNITED STATES ARMY AND NAVY

The distinguished part played by the Navy in the late struggle has specially touched the heart of the Nation, while it has aroused it to a sense of the importance of sea power and evoked pride in its **MAGNIFICENT SERVICES**. Not less hearty has been public admiration for the heroic deeds of both the regular Army and the organized Militia, which have caused the native patriotism to glow with pride and deepened national interest in the Army's historic triumphs. It is to gratify this interest in all classes of our people that has led the publishers, at immense outlay, to prepare and publish a work of great moment dealing with the history of the

AMERICAN ARMY AND NAVY

*And the Annals of Martial Achievement
On Land and Sea.*

The narrative which records the annals, together with all details of the organization and administration of the Army is furnished by Lieutenant-Col. **ARTHUR L. WAGNER**, Assistant Adjutant-General, U. S. A., late instructor in the Art of War and gold medalist of the Military Service Institution of the United States.

That which recites the history of the Navy and supplies a description of its organization, administration and duties, is written by Commander **J. D. JERROLD KELLEY**, U. S. N., Prize Essayist of the United States Naval Institute, and author of "Modern Ships of War," etc.

In both of these narratives, while they cover, in brief, the whole historical ground from the era of the Revolution, and deal interestingly with the manner in which the Army and Navy are commanded, clothed, fed, paid, and generally cared for, considerable space is at the same time taken up with a graphic account of the military and naval operations of the Spanish-American War, including an instructive sketch of the training and education of the U. S. Naval Academy, of the duties of the fleet, and of the exploits of our battle-ships in action and

"THE MAN BEHIND THE GUN."

The illustrations which embellish the work, and which are beautiful specimens of the highest lithographic art, exquisitely produced in from ten to twelve tints and colors, are from drawings especially made for this volume by able artists. They represent correctly the uniforms worn by the Army and Navy at the different periods of the Country and in many instances portray well-known historical actions and events. In this particular respect this volume is probably the most costly which has ever been placed on the market in this country.

Germany's Army and Navy

Compiled from the Latest Authorities, including Specially Contributed
Articles from the well-known Military Writer,

MAJOR-GENERAL VON SPECHT



ARTISTICALLY ILLUSTRATED

An authentic history of Germany's ARMY and NAVY from the earliest period with their present strength, organization and efficiency.

This publication corrects many erroneous ideas that are prevalent in regard to Germany's military institutions.

The work appears in an English-German Edition, and is therefore of great interest, not only to the Germans who reside in the United States of whom many fought and bled for the Fatherland, but will also be welcomed by the American public with the same interest which it always manifests toward all important works of literature and national achievements.

Contains a minute description of the ARMY and covers the different branches of this service. Gives full

details on the Infantry's modern equipment, the manoeuvres of the balloon and railroad troops, etc.

The second part of the book treats of the NAVY. It shows how the German Navy from a most modest beginning has risen to a position commanding the respect of all sea-faring nations.

A LUCID, INSTRUCTIVE and ABLY WRITTEN SKETCH.

The illustrations which embellish the work are from drawings especially made for the volume by able artists. They represent accurately the uniforms of the different branches of the service in field and parade equipment, the different types of warships, with representation of the marine uniforms.

A wealth of illustrations that makes this volume the richest ever placed on the book markets in this country.

MECHANICAL EXECUTION.

A Large Quarto with Bevelled Edges. Bound in Morocco Grained Keratol, of a rich brown color. The Cover design is a Masterpiece embossed in Six Colors and Gold. Contains 41 Full-Page Illustrations, and 180 Pages of Text.

The Illustrations are Exquisitely Produced in from Ten to Twelve Colors on the Best Quality Enameled, Lithographic Paper.

The Text is printed on Heavy Velvet-finished Book-Paper.

Each Copy is Neatly Packed in a Handsome but Stout Pasteboard Box.

Price \$10.00

Sent post-paid on receipt of the price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

History of the Spanish-American War

THE WAR
AND ITS
RECORD FROM
BEGINNING
TO END



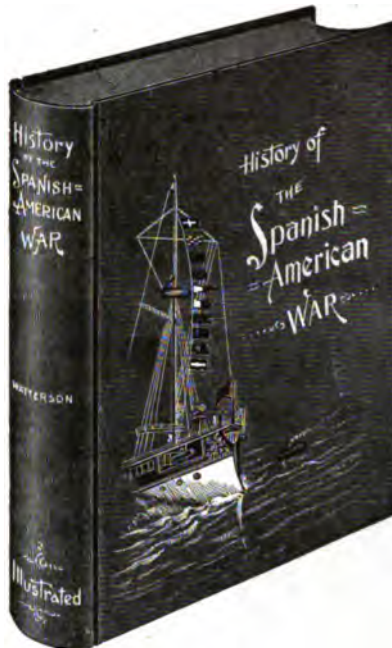
DEWEY.



SAMPSON.



SIGSBEE.



By
HENRY WATTERSTON

A COMPLETE and
AUTHENTIC History of
Our War With Spain.



SCHLEY.



ROOSEVELT.



SHAFTER.

The author has traced the events beginning with the destruction of The Maine which led up to the open rupture of the long lasting peace between the two countries. Every incident of note has been graphically described. Subjects like IMPERIALISM, ANNEXATION, NATIONAL EXPANSION and many others which arose from the War, are fully discussed.

In this book all the wealth of Art and the skill of the photographer has been called into service. The battles and other events of the work are graphically presented in scores of beautiful half-tone pictures, and numerous magnificent, double-page lithograph illustrations depicted from life and printed in ten colors from photographs and drawings from eye-witnesses.

EVERY PATRIOTIC AMERICAN, who loves the glory of his country, and wishes to become acquainted with the new lands and peoples that are a part of it, should read this magnificent volume. It contains,

THE TREATY OF PEACE.

660 Large Royal Octavo Pages. Beautifully Illustrated with more than 75 full-page half-tones and many double-page lithographs in rich colors.

Sold Exclusively by Subscription.

Navy Blue Cloth, richly stamped in gold and colors	\$2.50
Full Morocco Grained Keratol, stamped in Gold	3.25

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

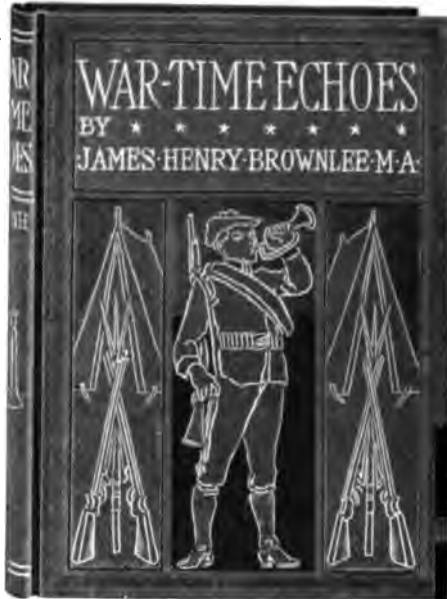
ADVERTISEMENTS

WAR-TIME ECHOES

By JAMES HENRY BROWNLEE

Of the State Normal School, Carbondale, Ill. Compiler of "Martial Recitations for the Veteran's Camp-Fire."

A volume of thrilling interest, consisting of a collection of the best poems of the Spanish-American War, Heroic, Pathetic, Dialectic, Humorous.



By sea and crag, where'er our flag
Victorious, be unfurled,
It shall stay, if we say, till the Judgment Day,
In spite of a snarling world.

A BEAUTIFUL VOLUME, handsomely bound in Cloth, for every Library and every Home in the land.

Out of the many hundreds of poems waked by the War for Humanity, one hundred and forty of the most striking and beautiful were selected for "WAR-TIME ECHOES." These, arranged in order of time, make up a series of vivid pictures that unroll before the reader's eye like the scenes of a panorama.

"WAR-TIME ECHOES" is a textbook of *Patriotism*. It should be placed in the hands of every boy and girl in

America. Better than the narrative of the historian, it will inspire in their hearts a love for their native land, and fit them to serve it with loyal hearts in the coming years. Anyone, indeed, who would form a true conception of the late momentous struggle, which resulted in such glory to our arms and so vast an addition to our national territory, must read "WAR-TIME ECHOES."

FROM THE PRESS

THE CHICAGO POST: Prof. Brownlee, the Compiler of WAR-TIME ECHOES was well equipped for his task. His long service of twenty-one years in the State University of Illinois, and in the State Normal School, as Professor of Oratory, Rhetoric, and Literature, is a guarantee that his work of selecting the most beautiful and typical poems for this book has been well done.

THE DAILY COURIER, Lowell, Mass.: If anybody believes that our recent war with Spain lasting but 133 days, did not produce several war poems a day, he has to examine this varied collection, filling 209 pages, to be disabused of the idea. The poems are collected largely from the newspapers of the country, and while many of the authors are anonymous, the names of Joaquin Miller, Edna Dean Proctor, Alfred Austin, Frank L. Stanton, Margaret E. Sangster, Minot J. Savage, Edwin Emerson, Tom Masson, Clinton Scollard, John T. Rooney, S. Wier Mitchell, are among those given.

Mr. Brownlee has shown excellent judgment in his selections. The poems are *Heroic, Pathetic, Humorous* and *Dialectic* and the volume will be of value in the days to come as showing what inspiration our poets found, even in so short a War.

Bound in Cloth, Gold Stamped, 208 Pages,
Price.....\$1.00

Heavy Manilla Cover, Stamped in two
Colors, Price......50

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

ADVERTISEMENTS

THE STORY OF AMERICA

By HEZEKIAH BUTTERWORTH.

FIRST ANNOUNCEMENT.
REVISED TO DATE.



RESUME

Mysterious Races.
The Mound Builders.
The Great Discovery.
Homes in New Lands.
Indians, Good and Bad.
Colonial Days.
The Revolutionary War.
Making a Nation.
The war of 1812.
New Inventions.
Slavery, Pro and Con.
Mexico, Mex. War.
The Gathering Storm.
The Great Conflict.
The Victories of Peace.
Recent Administrations.
Spanish-American War.
Manila, Hobe:n.
Santiago.
"Arms at Rest."



ILLUSTRATIONS

The Oldest House in America.
Penn's Treaty with the Indians.
Mounds at Marietta, O.
Toltec Ruins, Yucatan.
Burial of De Soto.
Quebec in 1608.
Witchcraft at Salem.
Battle of Lexington.
Sea Fight, War 1812.
Discovering the Mississippi.
Murder of La Salle in Texas.
Pioneer Life in the West.
Battle of Antietam.
President Lincoln in Richmond.
Assassination of Garfield.
Arthur, Hayes, Blaine, Cleveland.
Santiago, Havana.
On the Yukon, and 100 others.

8 Vo., 700 Pages, Cloth, \$1.50

STRONG POINTS

UP-TO-DATE. Butterworth's "STORY OF AMERICA" ends with the signing of the Peace Protocol terminating the Spanish-American War.

AUTHENTIC. The reliability of the work admits of no question. Events are faithfully recorded irrespective of sectional, political or religious bias.

READABLE. There is not a dull page in the book, facts are made as interesting as fiction. The style is such as to hold the attention of old and young.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE. The author, more than any other historian, has succeeded in placing in correct perspective the vital forces and important events in our national life.



HEZEKIAH BUTTERWORTH.

DISTINGUISHED AUTHOR

Hezekiah Butterworth is, to-day, one of the ablest as well as most popular writers in the United States. Certainly there is no one better qualified to present, in compact form, a helpful, inspiring history of our country. He is identified with the great movements which make for peace and prosperity, namely, education, arbitration and the Red Cross movement.

THE STORY OF AMERICA, Price, \$1.50

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

ADVERTISEMENTS

Germany's Iron Chancellor

A Faithful Portrayal of the
LIFE AND CAREER OF PRINCE BISMARCK

By **BRUNO GARLEPP**

Translated from the German and Edited by **SIDNEY WHITMAN, F. R. G. S.**, Author of
"Imperial Germany," "The Realm of the Hapsburgs," "Teutonic Studies," Etc., Etc.



Size, 12 x 15 inches.

An accurate and graphic account of **BISMARCK**.
A fitting memorial of one of the most extraordinary
political careers in the history of the world.

A book that appeals not alone to the Patriot and
Hero Worshipper, but to every intelligent person
interested in noting the upward steps of mankind.

Throws a searching light upon the condition of
European affairs during the last fifty years. The
recital of the events of such a life is not commonplace.

But the text is of no more importance than the
Illustrations, which are of the highest order.

The book is furnished with over **SEVEN HUN-**
DRED PICTURES, chiefly from photographs, and there are **TWENTY FULL-**
PAGE COLORED ILLUSTRATIONS, many of which are copyrighted by the
publishers, and **ARE FOUND NOWHERE ELSE THAN IN THIS BOOK**.

Among these is a pencil sketch of Bismarck on his death-bed, by the only
artist whom the Bismarck family permitted to visit the death chamber.

A noteworthy feature is the **HISTORICAL, CORRECTNESS** of the
Illustrations.

"**GERMANY'S IRON CHANCELLOR**" stands apart from all other publi-
cations on **BISMARCK**.

Affords a wonderful insight into the

POLICY AND CHARACTER OF ONE OF THE GREAT MAKERS OF HISTORY.

The Styles of Binding and Prices Are as Follows:

Fine Vellum Cloth, Emblematic Gold Stamp, Red Edges, 475 Pages	\$ 8.00
Half Morocco, Gold Stamped, 475 Pages	10.00
Full Morocco, Gold Side and Back Stamp, Gilt Edges, 475 Pages	12.00

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

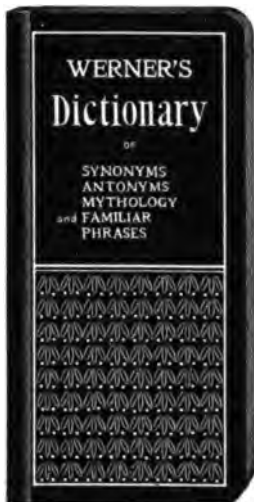
Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

WERNER'S DICTIONARY

OF
SYNONYMS and ANTONYMS

No two words in the English Language have exactly the same significance. To express the precise meaning that one intends to convey, a Dictionary of Synonyms is needed in order to avoid repetition.



The strongest figure of speech is Antithesis.

In WERNER'S
DICTIONARY of
SYNONYMS and
ANTONYMS,

the appended Antonyms
will therefore be found
extremely valuable.

Read what Senator Hoar says about
DANIEL WEBSTER Groping for Synonyms:

"He had a singular habit, which made it wearisome to listen to his ordinary speech, of groping after the most suitable word, and trying one SYNONYM after another till he got that which suited him best. 'Why is it, Mr. Chairman, that there has gathered, congregated, come together here, this great number of inhabitants, dwellers, that these roads, avenues, routes of travel, highways, converge, meet, come together here? Is it not because we have here a sufficient, ample, safe, secure, convenient, commodious, port, harbor, haven?' Of course, when the speech came to be printed all the SYNONYMS but the best one would be left out."

Other Special Features contained in Werner's Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms:

MYTHOLOGY—The Heathen Deities and other Fabulous Persons of Greek and Roman History.

FAMILIAR ALLUSIONS—Words and Phrases, Persons, Places, Pictures, Buildings, Streets and Monuments frequently alluded to in Literature and in Conversation.

FOREIGN PHRASES—Including Sentences and Quotations from both Living and Dead Languages.

HEROES AND HEROINES OF PROSE AND POETRY—A Compendium of the Celebrated Characters in the Literature of the World.

DICTIONARY OF MUSICAL TERMS, DATES, ABBREVIATIONS, Etc., concluding with **PROF. LOISETTE'S MEMORY SYSTEM**, the **ART OF NEVER FORGETTING**.

Cloth, Price 25c., postpaid.

Full Leather Gift, 50c., postpaid.

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

Manual of Useful Information

ALL WHEAT, NO CHAFF . . .
A POCKET ENCYCLOPEDIA
A WORLD OF KNOWLEDGE

Embracing more than 1,000,000 facts, figures and fancies, drawn from every Land and Language and carefully classified for the ready Reference of Teachers, Students, Business Men and the Family Circle. Compiled by a score of Editors under the direction of Mr. J. C. Thomas, with an introduction by Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Superintendent of City Schools, Omaha, Neb.

THIS Manual presents in accessible form, facts and figures of general interest to teachers and scholars; to the man of affairs, the student and the people at large. It contains not one useless or superfluous sentence. The grain has been sifted from the chaff; the precious metal extracted from the ore. In it will be found terse answers to thousands of questions, the solution of which is a matter of daily need to busy men. The work is designed as a compendium of useful knowledge, of problems not covered by other books, or of information that, to seek out personally, would require the possession of many volumes. The ruling idea in its preparation has been to furnish in as few words as possible such data as would be of service to men of inquiring minds, to scholars and to their instructors.



EMINENT EDUCATORS SAY:

From G. B. HARRINGTON, Supt. Bureau County, Illinois:—"It is great."

From J. M. GREENWOOD, Supt. City Schools, Kansas City, Mo.:—"Full to overflowing from cover to cover."

From CHAS. W. GROVES, Supt. Harvard, Ills.:—"I know of no other book containing so much carefully selected information presented in so apt a form."

From WILLIAM RICHARDSON, Supt. of Schools, Wichita, Kansas:—"It's scope is broad, and its treatment of topics terse and direct."

From B. S. COVELL, County Supt. of Schools, Kandiyohi County, Minn.:—"It is a storehouse of important facts."

From FRANK H. HALL, Supt. Waukegan, Ill.:—"Am surprised and delighted by the amount of valuable information it contains."

THE MANUAL OF USEFUL INFORMATION is 9½ inches long, 6½ inches wide and contains nearly 500 pages. It is printed on heavy supercalendered paper, bound in handsome drab cloth and has marbled edges. Price.....\$1.50
Full Morocco, gilt..... 3.00

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

The Werner Universal Educator

A MANUAL OF SELF-INSTRUCTION IN ALL
... BRANCHES OF POPULAR EDUCATION ...

"Every man has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives himself."—Gibbon.

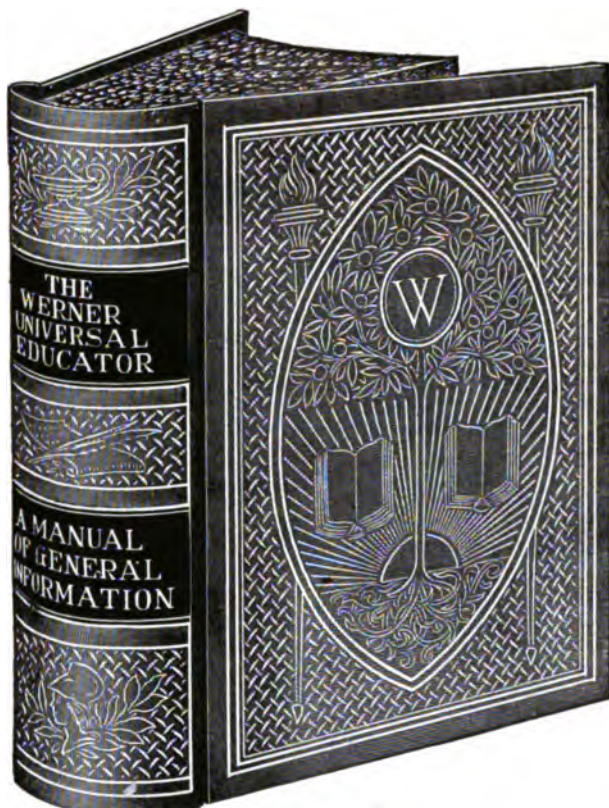
A Complete Cyclopedia
of Reference in

HISTORY,
SCIENCE,
BUSINESS AND
LITERATURE.

An Imperial Volume, ten
and one-half inches long,
nine inches wide and con-
tains 830 double-column
pages, also

One Million Facts and Figures,
One Thousand Forms and Rules,
Five Hundred Illustrations,
One Hundred Colored Plates and
Diagrams, and
Sixty Colored Maps, all
Down to Date.

*Printed on
Fine Super Calendered Paper
Durably and
Handsomely Bound.*



Magnificently Illustrated; Maps, Colored Plates and Diagrams.

THE mind has been endowed with no more laudable or profitable ambition than that of self-improvement. The educated man, in every walk of life, carries with him his own capital—a capital unaffected by monetary crises; an investment whose interest is not regulated by the success of a speculation; a treasure which none can dispute and of which none can deprive him. It is the greatest source of pleasure and profit and is the best legacy he can leave to his children. A duty which every man owes to himself and his family is to provide a means for obtaining PRACTICAL EDUCATION which will enable them to fight successfully in the GREAT BATTLE OF LIFE. THE WERNER EDUCATOR WILL PROVE OF INESTIMABLE VALUE TO ALL SEEKING EDUCATION. To the student it will prove the equivalent of a college training; the business man will find it teeming with simple business laws and forms which may save him from bankruptcy; the lawyer, the doctor, the farmer, the laborer and the members of every home circle will find it a sure guide along the road to prosperity.

- * Best English Cloth, Gold Back and Side Stamps, Marbled Edges.....\$4.00
- * Half Seal, Gold Side and Back Stamps, Marbled Edges..... 5.50
- * Dark Embossed Sheep, Gold Back Stamp, Marbled Edges..... 6.00

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

The Waldorf Cook Book

By "OSCAR" OF THE WALDORF.

**THE MOST THOROUGH AND COMPLETE TREATISE
.....ON PRACTICAL COOKERY EVER PUBLISHED.....**

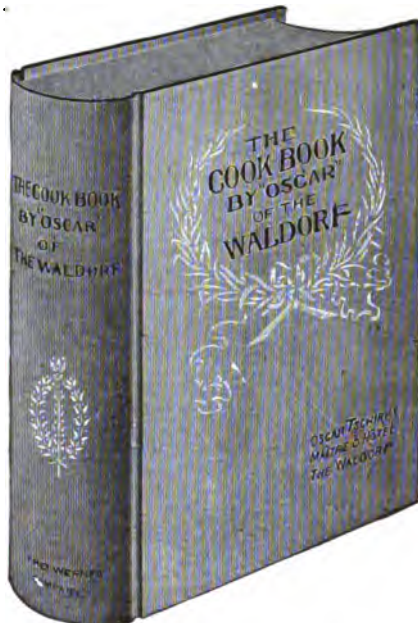
THE author, OSCAR TSCHIRKY, Maitre d'Hotel The Waldorf and Astoria, is acknowledged to be one of the foremost culinary authorities of the world. Elaborate directions are given for making Ice-Creams, Ices, Pastries and Tea and Coffee. Selections may be made to gratify any taste. Original and Varied Recipes are given for making Toothsome Confections, Preserves, Jams, Pickles and other Condiments.

Over 900 Pages

**Valuable
Information
Indispensable to
Families, Hotels, Cafes
and Boarding
Houses.**

**Wholesome,
Palatable
Economic and
Systematic
Cooking.**

**Everything used as food
is fully considered.**



Nearly 4,000 Recipes

**The Best and Most
Comprehensive
Cook Book
Compiled.**

**Special Features
Such as
Suggestions with
Regard to the
Kitchen,
Menus, Bills of Fare,
the Seasons,
Market,
Etc., Etc.**

Size, 8 x 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ x 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches.

Bound in one large octavo volume of over 900 pages, in handsome white oil cloth. The cover is beautifully embossed in gold and green ink, and the edges burnished to harmonize with the color of the cloth. **Price, \$2.50.**

BOSTON TRANSCRIPT: A GREAT COOK BOOK. There is apparently no end to the making of cook-books. The largest, and we assume from the authorship, one of the most important issues in this line of literature, is "The Cook-Book by Oscar of the Waldorf," Oscar being Oscar Tschirky, maitre d'hotel of the most aristocratic hotel in New York. It may be imagined that it is not specially prepared to meet the necessities of the ordinary housekeeper, or for the dwellers in flats. Nevertheless, even these can learn from its immense collection of recipes and suggestions, which fill nine hundred large quarto pages. There is hardly anything in the whole domain of cookery that is not touched upon. In the beginning the author makes a few suggestions with regard to the kitchen, gives instructions as to how a dinner should be served, the wines appropriate to each course, and a list of fish and game in their season. The volume, which is printed by The Werner Company, is a handsome specimen of book-making, printed in large clear type, and bound in strong canvas covers.

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

Werner's Universal Encyclopædia

Twelve Handsome Volumes.

A Comprehensive
Library in Itself.

Sweeps the Whole Circle
of Knowledge.

Contains Comprehensive Articles
by Specialists on a Wide
Range of Subjects.

An Encyclopædia which brings all
History, all Arts, all Sciences,
all Literature, up to date.



Architecture, Arts, Engineering, Painting, Music, Poetry, The Drama, Sculpture, Printing, Lithographing, Teaching. Astronomy, Physics, Medicine, Sciences, Chemistry, Geology, Botany, Zoology, Mechanics. Biography, Philosophy, Theology, Law, Commerce, Literature, Inventions, Industries, Manufactures. A fine array of **One Hundred Colored Maps**, showing every country in the world, with a separate map for every State in the Union. All corrected and revised up to date, with numerous illustrations, plans, and full-page engraved plates.

A Few of the Special Subjects Treated by Eminent Specialists:

Newspapers in the United States, by MELVILLE E. STONE, General Manager Associated Press.

Judaism and the Jews in the United States, by EMIL G. HIRSCH, D.D., Rabbi Sinai Congregation, Chicago, Professor of Semitic Languages in the University of Chicago.

The Spanish-American War, with the biographies of the noted persons it produced. We mention only a few: Admiral George W. Dewey, William R. Day, General Otis, Governor Theodore Roosevelt, Sampson, Schley, Sigsbee, Cervera, Aguinaldo, Gomez.

A complete History of the last quarter century of the United States, including the New Government of the Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Cuba, and Porto Rico.

Lord Kitchener of Khartum, Kipling and his Career, the Alaska Gold-fields, Klondike, Labor Organizations.

These are a Few of the Many Special Subjects, not so fully nor so authoritatively treated, if at all, in other Cyclopædias as in the Werner Universal Encyclopædia.

Enquire within these volumes and you will become "a specially well-informed man."

Twelve Large Handsome Volumes, Printed on Extra Fine Paper, in Good, Clear, New Type, Made Expressly for This Work.

Price, Cloth, \$24.00; Sheep, \$30.00.

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

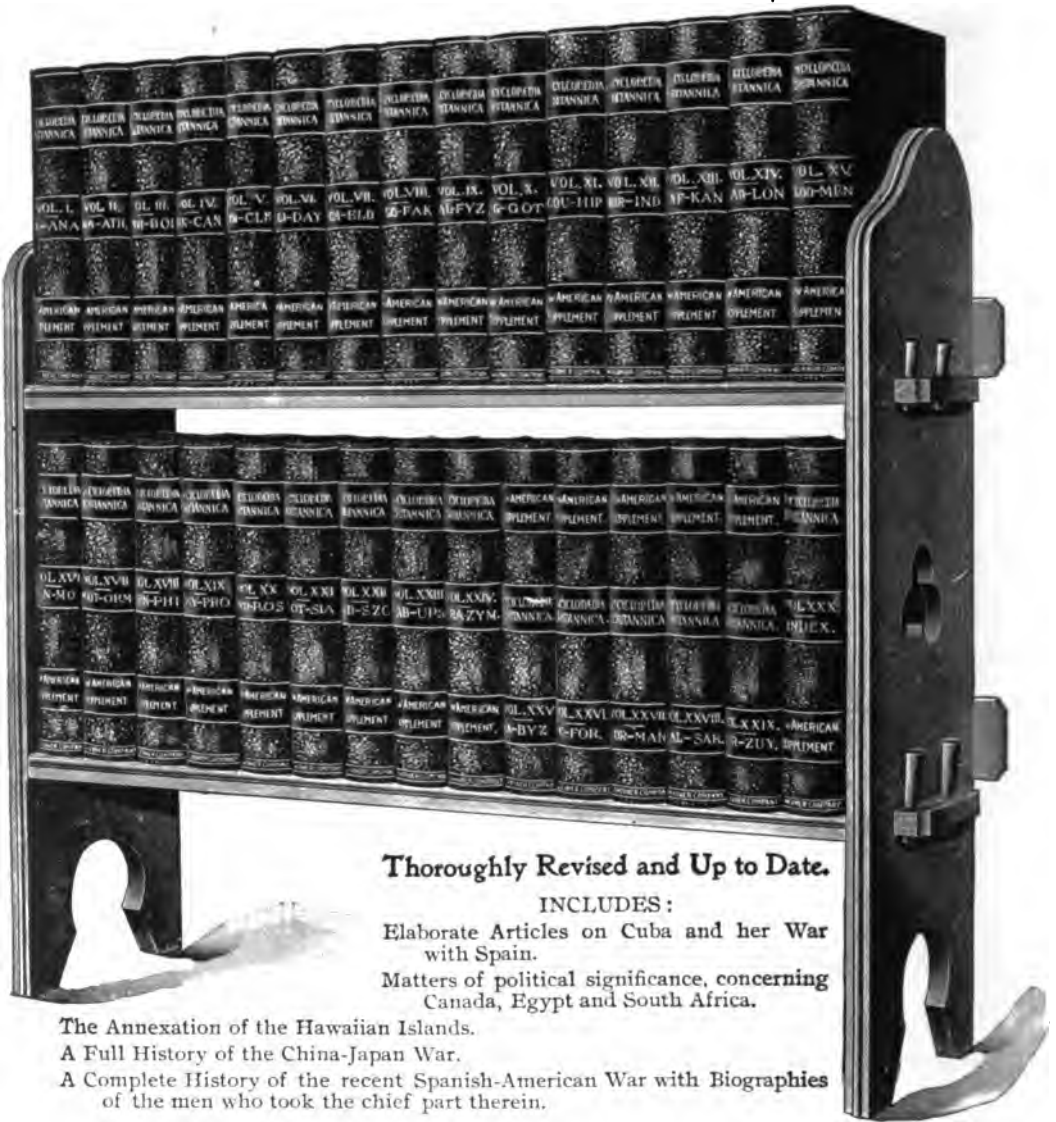
Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

ADVERTISEMENTS

THE NEW WERNER ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

WITH AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT



Thoroughly Revised and Up to Date.

INCLUDES:

Elaborate Articles on Cuba and her War with Spain.

Matters of political significance, concerning Canada, Egypt and South Africa.

The Annexation of the Hawaiian Islands.

A Full History of the China-Japan War.

A Complete History of the recent Spanish-American War with Biographies of the men who took the chief part therein.

**ALL ARTS, ALL SCIENCES, ALL LITERATURES, ALL SPORTS,
COMPLETELY AND SYMPATHETICALLY TREATED.**

It is **TO-DAY** what it has been for a **CENTURY AND A QUARTER**,
THE STANDARD REFERENCE LIBRARY OF THE WORLD,
THIRTY SUPERB OCTAVO VOLUMES, WITH OVER 12,000 ILLUSTRATIONS.

340 Full-page Engraved Plates. Nearly 25,000 Pages. 671 New Maps and Plans.
THE GREATEST, THE BEST, THE CHEAPEST.

Write for Our Prices and Terms. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention **SELF CULTURE** when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

ADVERTISEMENTS

SPECIAL FEATURES

OF THE

New Werner Encyclopædia Britannica

Experts, men of national fame, contribute exhaustive articles on Railroads, Architecture, Canals, Steamships, Shipping, etc. All extensive public works are adequately presented.

The world's navies, armies, coast defences, submarine boats, artilleries, gun making, and all defensive and aggressive resources of all nations of the world are authoritatively discussed.

No town or post-office in the United States possessing sufficient population, commercial advantages, or other points worthy of notice has been omitted. All data were obtained from the most recent and reliable reports. Particular stress has been laid upon the treatment of all geographical matter.

Contains a complete and reliable history as well as elaborate articles on Cuba and the War with Spain, Venezuela and the Monroe Doctrine; discusses matters of political significance, concerning Canada and South Africa; the Hawaiian Islands of the United States of America; a full history of the Japan-China war; full accounts of our new possessions, the Philippines and Porto Rico; reliable data on the gold fields of Alaska and the Klondyke.

Political parties are treated individually together with allied questions of labor and capital, protective tariff, etc.; a full discussion of the world of finances, including Banking, Savings Banks, Coinage Laws, Finances of the United States; Sports and Recreations of all sorts are presented by specialists, under such headings as Baseball, Football, Horse-racing, and Game Laws, etc.

AN INEXHAUSTIBLE SOURCE OF INFORMATION AND INSPIRATION.

Digitized by Google

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

THE QUEEN'S REIGN

BY
SIR WALTER BESANT

AN IMPERIAL QUARTO VOLUME; ONE HUNDRED AND EIGHT PAGES; VERY BEAUTIFULLY BOUND IN ART LINEN; GILT EDGES; SPLENDIDLY AND PROFUSELY ILLUSTRATED

NOTHING has been omitted to make it a complete and fitting memorial of the greatest, most eventful, and most successful reign in all the annals of history; culminating in the unapproachable magnificence of the DIAMOND JUBILEE.

The illustrations of this splendid literary and artistic work are a most noteworthy feature. Many of them were obtained from sources which were available only by special royal permit. The pictures of the jubilee ceremonies are unmatched. They faithfully represent all the striking incidents of the imposing pageants: The Royal Procession, The Naval Review, Colonial Military Types, etc. The whole is printed on specially prepared paper, rich and heavy.

Sir Walter Besant has written the text. He was never in better form. It is a luminous, picturesque description of the country and the people as they have developed during Victoria's noble reign.

LETTERPRESS, ILLUSTRATION PAPER AND
PRINTING IS EACH PERFECTION IN ITS WAY

The English Press is Unanimous in Expressions of Praise:

Sir Walter Besant's contributions to the literature of the jubilee are among the best. Especially excellent is his summary of the nation's recent history in "The Queen's Reign." The illustrations are quite worthy of the eloquent text.—*Daily Mail, London.*

A handsome volume.—*The London Times.*
The illustrations are excellent. The book is beautifully printed.—*Edinburgh Evening News.*

PRICE, \$2.50

Sent post-paid on receipt of amount. Address

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

HISTORY OF MEXICO

BY FREDERICK A. OBER

New Edition. Revised and Enlarged.

A COMPLETE AND CONCISE HISTORY OF MEXICO
INCLUDING

Geographical Distribution,	Ancient Mexicans,
The Chichimecs,	The Aztecs,
Rival Powers of Anahuac,	Triple Kingdom,
Mexico in Her Glory,	Last Years of the Mexican
Religion,	Empire,
Voyage of Hernando Cortez,	Discovery of Mexico,
Disastrous Retreat from Mexico,	Montezuma a Captive,
Destruction of the City,	The Verge,
Discovery and Conquest,	Reign of the Viceroy,
The Great Revolution,	Details of the Conquest,
The Era of Reform,	War with the United States,
Mexico After the Empire,	The French Intervention, Etc., Etc.

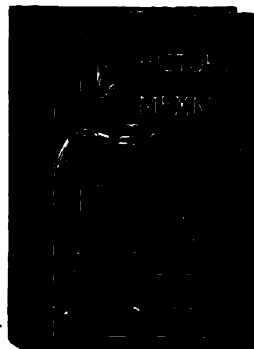
558 Pages. 100 Illustrations and Maps. Best Quality of Paper.
Splendid Type. Gold Stamped.

English Silk Cloth	\$1.00
Half Russia	1.25
Half Crushed Levant	1.50

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.



ADVERTISEMENTS

THE WERNER LIBRARY

Comprising 30 twelve mo. volumes.
Richly Bound, all Illustrated.
For Descriptions of Each Book,
See Following Pages.



BIOGRAPHIES

LIFE OF HOLMES.....	By E. E. Brown
LIFE OF LINCOLN.....	By Phebe A. Hanaford
LIFE OF LONGFELLOW.....	By W. Sloane Kennedy
LIFE OF LOWELL.....	By E. E. Brown
LIFE OF BAYARD TAYLOR.....	By Russell H. Conwell
LIFE OF DANIEL WEBSTER.....	By Rev. Joseph Banvard
LIFE OF WHITTIER.....	By W. Sloane Kennedy

HISTORIES

HISTORY OF AMERICA.....	By Hezekiah Butterworth
HISTORY OF CHINA.....	By Robert K. Douglas
HISTORY OF THE CIVIL WAR.....	By Mrs. C. Emma Cheney
HISTORY OF EGYPT.....	By Clara Erskine Ciment
HISTORY OF INDIA.....	By Fannie Roper Feudge
HISTORY OF MEXICO.....	By Frederick A. Ober
HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS.....	By Alexander Young
HISTORY OF OUR OWN TIMES (2 vols).....	By Justin McCarthy
HISTORY OF RUSSIA.....	By Nathan Haskell Dole
HISTORY OF SPAIN.....	By Jas. A. Harrison
HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND.....	By Harriet D. S. Mackenzie
MILITARY CAREER OF NAPOLEON.....	By Montgomery B. Gibbs
THE QUEENS OF ENGLAND (3 vols).....	By Rosalie Kaufman
THE QUEENS OF SCOTLAND (2 vols).....	By Rosalie Kaufman

MISCELLANEOUS

OUR BUSINESS BOYS.....	By Rev. F. E. Clark
RURAL BIRD LIFE IN ENGLAND.....	By Charles Dixon
STEAM, STEEL AND ELECTRICITY.....	By James W. Steele
WONDER STORIES OF HISTORY.....	By Mrs. Frances A. Humphrey
WONDER STORIES OF TRAVEL.....	By Ernest Ingersoll

STYLE AND PRICE

Silk Cloth, Gold and Black Stamped.....	\$0.75
Half Crushed Levant.....	1.00

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

ADVERTISEMENTS

Mrs. Gillette's Cook Book

**THE ART AND SCIENCE
OF COOKING**

**AUTHOR OF WHITE HOUSE
COOK BOOK**

COMPRISES: Cooking, Toilet, and Household Recipes. Menus, Dinner Giving, Table Etiquette, Medical Items, Diet for Invalids. *Things Worth Knowing.*

The Author has had FIFTY YEARS of EXPERIENCE in practical housekeeping. She has just celebrated her Golden Wedding Anniversary.

Adapted alike to TOWN, CITY and COUNTRY LIFE, and is strictly up-to-date American Cookery.

Not a mere compilation of recipes, but a complete and thorough outline of culinary ideas, accumulated throughout an every-day housekeeping experience of fifty years.

All the recipes have undergone thorough and practical tests and can in every way be absolutely relied upon to give entire satisfaction.

SPECIAL FEATURES:

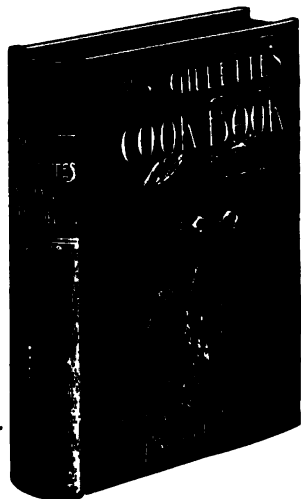
Contains important chapters on CARVING, DIET FOR INVALIDS (this department comprises a book in itself and is worth more than the price of the whole book), CHAFIN^g DISHES, DINNER GIVING AND LAYING OF TABLE, GARNISHING DISHES, MENUS, TABLE ETIQUETTE, VALUABLE HOUSEHOLD ITEMS.

STYLE AND FINISH OF THE BOOK

The Binding, Cover and general typographical features are the latest and the most applicable for the purpose. Its pages are broad; the type large and clear. Bound in enameled cloth which may be easily cleaned.

Sent post-paid on receipt of the price. Address, Price \$2.50

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio



A TREASURE TROVE OF LAUGHTER!

The Bow-Legged Ghost and Other Stories

AN ILLUSTRATED VOLUME OF ORIGINAL HUMOROUS SKETCHES
..... VERSE, FACETIOUS PARAGRAPHS AND COLLOQUIES

By LEON MEAD

With an Introduction by the GREATEST AMERICAN POET,
JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY.

A Book that will not disappoint the reader, because it enters a new and heretofore unexplored field of humor. Leon Mead is quite as fantastic in his conceptions as Frank R. Stockton, as droll as Mark Twain at his best, and as true in his ludicrous portrayal of life as Miss Mary E. Wilkins.

A BOOK TO BE READ ALOUD AND ENJOYED AMONG YOUR FRIENDS.

The author's cosmopolitan experience as a journalist and shrewd observer is evinced in every line of this eagerly read and cordially welcomed collection.

The following are some of the titles of subjects dealt with and indicate the general character of the contents:

THE BOW-LEGGED GHOST,
WHEN EZRA SANG FIRST BASS,
THE WOMAN IN YELLOW,
THE MAN WHO COULDN'T LAUGH,
EUGENE FIELD AND BILL NYE,
WILDER'S LATEST,
"REVELS OF THE MUSES,"
STORY OF FOUR CARRIER PIGEONS,
HAPPY HOPPER,
THE MIND CHILDREN,

AN ASSUMED WEAKNESS,
POSSIBLE TITLES OF FUTURE BOOKS,
POLLY,
MRS. TUBB'S MANŒUVRES,
A LIVING TOMBSTONE,
SELLING LOCKS OF HAIR,
NO WOMAN, NO FAD,
FAT MEN AND LEAN,
SOCIETY ACTRESSES,
Etc., etc., etc.

The book includes a number of pages of the author's lighter verse which first appeared in JUDGE, TRUTH LIFE and other leading periodicals.

If you wish to be entertained and amused, read "THE BOW-LEGGED GHOST AND OTHER STORIES."

Artistic Cover Design, 12 mo., Cloth \$1.25 Sent post paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

ADVERTISEMENTS

BEAUTIFUL BRITAIN

The Scenery and Splendors of the United Kingdom.

Royal Residences, Palaces, Castles, Bowers, Hunting Lodges, River Banks and Islets, Abbeys and Halls, The Homes of Princes, Views of Noted Places, Historic Landmarks and Ancient Ruins in

THE LANDS OF ROSE AND THISTLE

A magnificent collection of views, with elaborate descriptions and many interesting historical notes. Text set within emblematic borders, printed in a tint. A fine example of up-to-date printing.

Large quarto volume (11½ x 13½ inches), 385 pages. Extra enameled paper.

Bound in Extra English Cloth Price, \$4.50
Bound in Half Morocco, full gilt edges Price, 6.00
Bound in Full Morocco, full gilt edges Price, 7.50

Views of Stately Houses, Photographs taken by Permission of Her Majesty, the Queen, and by favor of the Noblemen and Gentlemen who own these Historic Places.



For all Americans there is an unflinching interest in the scenes and places of that historic little country that gave us our laws, our language, our conquering instinct and our faith. Divided many times by the bitterness of those contests that have made us what we are, she turns again to us and we to her, as the Mother Land, whose splendid story is also so largely ours, and in common with whom we claim the genius of Shakespeare, the laws of Alfred, and the dominant instinct of that Saxon lineage which wins and conquers and subdues by processes known to us two alone—the American and the Briton side by side. And as the centuries have passed England has grown nearer to us. She is no longer a far-off land of which we have only heard. The first voyages of those who made America, and made it English, occupied nine stormy and perilous weeks. It required two centuries to reduce that time one-half. Now our green shores and the white cliffs of Albion lie less than one week apart, and for thirty years we have talked with England under the sea in a common language, about common interests. To go and to return is an incident of daily life.

The Saxon, English and American, travels more than any man, and with a stouter purpose to see, to know and to appreciate. England and America exchange visits every year in the person of thousands of individuals. The Briton finds with us brighter skies and higher mountains, and larger rivers, and broader lakes, and taller trees and more stupendous waterfalls than his islands know. And for the old, the storied, the historic, we go to him. What he has is in a sense our own. It is a hand-made and a time mellowed beauty; for us the beauty of history and association, ours as well as his. We give him stupendous Nature dotted with new cities that seem old enough to us. He gives us the story of our common race written in piled stones and clustering ivy, representing the toil and hope of centuries; a toil and hope which we inherited, and whose memorials are also ours.

Sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address,

THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio.

The Determination of Sex

✻ SCHENK'S THEORY ✻

BY LEOPOLD SCHENK, M. D.,

Professor of Embryology in the Royal and Imperial University at Vienna, and President of the Austrian Embryological Institute. THE LAST AND GREATEST PHYSIOLOGICAL DISCOVERY OF THE AGE



12 mo. Artistic Cloth Binding. Price, \$1.50.

PRESS COMMENTS

LOKAL ANZEIGER, BERLIN. "At last the secret of Prof. Schenk, Vienna, has been disclosed: How the birth of boys is to be brought about. This appears in the form of a book with the title, 'The Determination of Sex.'"

THE STANDARD LONDON. "Science is making wonderful strides in the present century, and nothing is more remarkable than the light which has been thrown on the evolution of the sexes by Prof. Schenk."

Sent post-paid on receipt of price.

Address, **THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio**

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Digitized by Google

COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS

HOME STUDY



BOOK-KEEPING BUSINESS FORMS PENMANSHIP SHORTHAND, etc.

and private lessons By Mail, open up to Young Men and Women good-paying positions, affording chances for promotion. Gives just the training needed for success in business. Only spare

time required. No interference with daily occupation. The cheapest and best method of study; highly endorsed. Established 40 years. National reputation. We also teach all English and Civil Service branches BY MAIL. Trial lesson only 10 cents, showing how thorough our system is. Interesting Catalogue free. Write to

BRYANT & STRATTON'S COLLEGE
No. 60 College Building, - - - Buffalo, N. Y.

INDIANA, Indianapolis, 44 Penn St. Law Taught by Mail.

Professional, Elective, Commercial courses. One of the leading schools in the world. Indorsed by students and attorneys everywhere. Easy terms. Begin now.
NAT. COR. SCHOOL OF LAW.

INDIANA, Indianapolis, 18 North Pa. St. Study Medicine at Home.

Men and women, enter upon a regular Medical Course now. Thoroughly practical. University plan. Individual instruction. Indorsed by students everywhere. Easy terms. Begin now.
NAT. COR. SCHOOL OF MEDICINE.

New York.

BOOK-KEEPING

Stenography, Penmanship, etc., taught by mail or in person at Eastman, Poughkeepsie, N. Y. We always secure positions for graduates of complete business course. Catalogue free.

C. C. GAINES, Box 128, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.



School JOURNALISM

INSTRUCTION BY MAIL ONLY.

A THOROUGH and SCIENTIFIC course adapted to the individual needs of writers. Long established. Responsible. Successful. Instructors experienced and competent. Students successful and pleased. Best of references. Write for descriptive catalogue. It is sent free. Address,
SPRAGUE CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM, No. 97 Majestic Bldg., Detroit, Mich.



Mistakes in Addition,

Office Headache, and mistakes in carrying forward don't occur where the Comptometer is used. It saves half the time in doing the work and all time looking for errors. Solves with great rapidity and absolute accuracy all arithmetical problems. Why don't you get one! Write for Pamphlet.

FELT & TARRANT MFG CO.
52-56 ILLINOIS ST., CHICAGO.

Please mention SELF CULTURE when you write to advertisers.

Illinois, Aurora.

Shorthand Self-Taught by the Word Method.

The improved method of learning the standard Pitman Graham Shorthand makes it possible for anyone to become a shorthand writer in spare moments. 100 copies of the instructor (paper) will be sold for 50c. each. Sample lessons free. Address, Prin. Bus. Dept., AURORA COLLEGE.

Pennsylvania, Williamsport.

POTTS SHORTHAND COLLEGE.

MAIL and PERSONAL instruction. Pioneer Home Course in stenography. Catalogue and first lesson FREE. Write JNO. G. HENDERSON, Principal and Proprietor.

MOUNT COLLEGIATE, Preparatory, Normal, Oratory, Art, Business, Music Departments, Standard Courses. Total expenses \$3.50 a week. Museum, can be kept below \$3.50. **UNION COLLEGE**, Reading-room, Gymnasium unsurpassed. The 54th year begins Sept. 19, 1899. Send for free Catalogue. Alliance, Ohio.

STUDY LAW AT HOME

Instruction by mail, adapted to everyone. Original. Approved. Experienced and competent instructors. Takes spare time only. Three courses: Preparatory and College - Law Course; also Business Law Course. Improve your condition and prospects. Graduates everywhere. Nine years of success. Full particulars free. Sprague Correspondence School of Law, 69 Maj. Bldg. Detroit, Mich.



Virginia, Richmond.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF MEDICINE.

310 Students last year - 55 in Faculty. \$300.00 for 4 years - No compulsory extras. Record before last Virginia Medical Examining Board, 94.6% (36 applicants); before last North Carolina Board, 100% (17 applicants). For 88-page Catalogue, address HUNTER MCGUIRE, M.D., L.L.D., Prest., or DR. HODGES, Proctor.

Michigan, Ann Arbor.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING.

High School course required for entrance. Civil, Mechanical, Electrical, and Chemical Engineering. Technical work taught by experienced engineers. Workshops and all laboratories. For announcements, etc., address CHAS. E. GREENE, Dean.

HEALTH, STRENGTH AND BEAUTY



Every part and muscle of the body enlarged and strengthened to twice their present capacity by the most simple and scientific apparatus ever thought of. Insures quick and permanent physical development which means a Faultless Figure, Health, Strength, Vigor, Beauty, Grace and Sound Sleep. Removes Wrinkles and Makes the Skin Clear & Healthy. Enables one to increase or decrease flesh at will. Can be carried in the pocket. State age and sex. Sample to introduce, 86 cents in stamps. Your money back if not more than satisfied. We also show you how to develop mental strength. Circulars Free.

INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE, S.C. 89 MASONIC TEMPLE, CHICAGO

MEMORY! Write for particulars of our great work on Memory Culture! The only Complete, Practical System in the world! Highest endorsements! Nat'l Pub'g Co., St. Paul, Minn.

TYPEWRITER HEADQUARTERS,

102 Fulton st., New York, sell all makes under half price. Don't buy before writing them for unprejudiced advice and prices. Exchange stock for selection. Shipped for trial. Guaranteed first class. Dealers supplied. 64-page illus. cat. free.

ADVERTISEMENTS

GRAVY. DO NOT SERVE IT ON
THE DINNER-TABLE
BEFORE YOU HAVE ADDED A TABLE-SPOONFUL OF

LEA & PERRINS' SAUCE

The Original and Genuine Worcestershire.

**LEA & PERRINS' IS THE FAVORITE TABLE SAUCE
THROUGHOUT THE WORLD.-SEE SIGNATURE ON WRAPPER.**

JOHN DUNCAN'S SONS, AGTS., NEW YORK.



Wool Soap

For Toilet and Bath

Pure, white Wool Soap is an ideal soap for the toilet and bath. It is high grade toilet soap at the laundry soap price. For sale in grocery, drug and department stores everywhere.

Swift and Company, Makers, Chicago

THE PAPER IN THIS MAGAZINE
WAS MADE BY THE

Michigan Wood Pulp Company

Diles, Michigan.

MANUFACTURERS OF

**Super Calendered
Lithograph
and Extra Machine Finished
Book Papers**

ALSO

**PULP BOX BOARDS
BARREL AND BOX LAYERS
AND
PULP PIE PLATES.**

ED. PINAUD'S VIOLETTE REINE



FRENCH CARNATION PINK

THE TWO LEADING PERFUMES OF THE YEAR

SOLD EVERYWHERE OR APPLY TO
ED. PINAUD'S IMPORTATION OFFICE 461 B'WAY NEW YORK

BEWARE OF IMITATIONS

"IF I HAD ONLY KNOWN
OF THIS YEARS AGO"

ED. PINAUD'S EAU DE QUININE



PRESERVES THE HAIR -
CLEANSSES THE SCALP
AND KEEPS IT FREE FROM DANDRUFF.
-FOR SALE EVERYWHERE.

Imparts Energy

Horsford's Acid Phosphate

The most agreeable and effective remedy for relieving Languor and Exhaustion, so common in the spring and summer months. Its nutrient and tonic effects give tone and vigor to the entire system.

Taken before retiring it quiets the nerves and induces refreshing sleep.

For sale by Druggists.



The Best Breakfast Food



UNSURPASSED

for **SUMMER**

All Grocers

Free Samples of Entona, the great remedy for the relief and cure of Constipation and Piles, mailed to any address on application.

Entona is sold by all druggists.

Health Food Co.

61 Fifth Avenue, New York
1013 Arch Street, Philadelphia
199 Tremont Street, Boston
1601 Wabash Avenue, Chicago

SAPOLIO

DOUBLES
THE JOY
IN

HOUSE-WORK